Session 1

I. Introduction

Overview

- Hello, and course intro no cheating, course website, my website, email addr. <u>http://www.cs.berkeley.edu/~russell/classes/cs188/f05/</u> http://www.eecs.berkeley.edu/~nelsonb/
- The sections I'm teaching are intended for Cognitive Science majors.
 - These sections will attempt to address the concerns of those students. Since those students haven't had as much programming experience, I will try to focus these sections to meet those concerns.
 - For the time being, I need you to be understanding of three things:
 - 1. I'm not very good with names, so it may take me some time.
 - 2. This is my first time teaching, so let me know how I can
 - 3. I have my Prelim Exams in 2 weeks, so bear with me.
- My office hours will be: Wed: 3-5 pm 751 Soda
 - Fri: 10-11 am 751 Soda
- This is an overview course on modern techniques in artificial intelligence.
 - The primary textbook for this course is <u>Artificial Intelligence: A Modern</u> <u>Approach</u>, SECOND EDITION by Stuart Russell and Peter Norvig. While the 1st edition covers similar topics, they are quite different so get the 2nd edition – GREEN COVER.
 - This class is taught in LISP a programming language similar to SCHEME.
 - A good introduction and reference book for LISP is <u>ANSI Common</u> <u>Lisp</u> by Paul Graham.
 - An alternative LISP text is available on the web; Common LISP the Language, 2nd edition by Guy Steele: <u>http://www.cs.cmu.edu/Groups/AI/html/cltl/cltl2.html</u>

Names

- Let's go around the room and introduce ourselves. Please tell me:
 - o your NAME, YEAR, and MAJOR
 - Why are you taking this class?

Notecards

- Finally on the Front of the notecard, please write:
 - o Your Name and Major
 - o Email Address
 - Programming Languages you are comfortable with.
- On the back,
 - Please write a short description of what you want to get out of this section.

II. LISP

LISP References

Besides the books mentioned above, there are some other

- Differences between Scheme and LISP
 <u>http://dept-info.labri.u-bordeaux.fr/~strandh/Teaching/Langages-</u> Enchasses/Common/Strandh-Tutorial/diff-scheme.html
- Scheme vs. Common Lisp A table of differences between the languages. <u>http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/novak/schemevscl.html</u>
- Class LISP Tutorial how to setup, write, and run LISP in the lab. <u>http://www.cs.berkeley.edu/~russell/classes/cs188/f05/assignments/a0/lisp</u> <u>-tutorial.html</u>
 - Class LISP notes <u>http://www.cs.berkeley.edu/~russell/classes/cs188/f05/assignments/a0/lisp</u> <u>-notes.html</u>
- LISP Function Reference an online reference for LISP functions. <u>http://www.cs.cmu.edu/Groups/AI/html/cltl/clm/</u>

Fundamental LISP

- Everything in LISP is a list or an atom, even function calls. Hence, we can,
 - Extend the language.
 - LISP can be written in LISP.
- Function calls even function calls are lists
 - o function name is the 1st element of a list (fn arg1 ... argn)
 - *Prefix Notation* (+ 1 2 3 4 5 6)
 - In normal LISP evaluation, all arguments of a function are evaluated, and the function is applied to the result.
 - Quote Function passes an argument without evaluation. Abbrev. by ' (a b c)
- The fundamental element is the **Atom** symbols that represent a value.
- LISP stands for *List Processor*. The fundamental data structure is the **list**: e.g. (A 1 (1 3))
 - **nil** or () is both an atom and a list. Moreover it is also the symbol for false.
 - However (nil) is not the same as nil
 - Essential LISP list functions:
 - **cons** operator that builds a list. e.g. (cons x (cons 'z nil)) makes:
 - Two arguments:
 - \circ car the first element of the list
 - \circ cdr the remainder of the list
 - **car** operator that returns a list's 1st element.
 - **cdr** operator that returns the rest of the list after the 1st element.



Functions

- In LISP, functions are defined by the function *defun*, which takes >2 arguments
 - o A name
 - A list of argument names
 - All other arguments are evaluated and the last evaluated expression is the return value of the function
 - (defun sum (args) (apply #'+ args))
- **Comments** there are two ways to make comments.
 - semicolon (;) everything is ignored until the end of the line.
 - $\circ \# \dots \#$ everything between the delimiters is ignored.
- Functional Programming
 - As designed, LISP is a functional programming language. In this paradigm, programs are defined by the return values of their functions rather than by modifying variables.
 - In pure functional programming, no values are modified \rightarrow there are no *side effects* such as,
 - printing, incrementing, or setting value.
 - One consequence of pure functional programming is that no operations can modify their arguments, hence, they must copy.
 e.g. remove

(remove 'a '(b a n)) returns (b n) but copies those elements leaving the original list unaltered.

- LISP also has constructs *side effects*.
 - *format* is used to print
 - (format t "The number is $\sim A.\sim\%$ " x)
 - *incf* is used to increment a variable
 - *setf* is used to set the value of a variable.
 - (setf x 5)

setf is essential as it can set the value of any symbol including members of a structure or elements of an array.

- **Recursion** one of the building blocks of functional programming is recursion; the idea of a function calling itself \rightarrow Factorial.
 - **Base case** covers the "easy" case where the answer is simple.
 - **Recursive case** covers the cases where we don't know how to solve the big problem directly, but we know how to break the problem into smaller parts.
- Lambda Function allows you to define an anonymous function with no name. (lambda (x) (+ x 5))
 - Why would we want "nameless" functions?
 - Sometimes you want to make a simple function without the rigor of defining a whole new function.
 - This case comes up often when passing functions as arguments.
 - Passing Functions as arguments can be done by referring to the function name with the #'<function-name>. e.g. (apply #'+ '(1 2 3 4))
- **Keyword Arguments** some functions take keyword arguments, arguments that come in name, value pairs where the name is proceeded by a colon. e.g. :test eq

Truth & Equality

- Every value in LISP is considered *true* except the special symbol nil, which is considered *false*.
 - This allows functions to return more information than just true/false.
 - e.g. member
 - (member 'b '(a b c)) \rightarrow (b c)
- In LISP, functions that test whether or not a condition holds are called *predicates*.
 Predicates are no different from normal functions, but are often named
 - with a *p* at the end of the word (e.g. listp tests if its argument is a list).
- Equivalences
 - $\circ = (= 5 6)$ numerical comparison equality.
 - **EQ** (eq x y) true when x and y point to the same memory location; thus, to numbers may not be equal (compiler dependent)
 - \circ EQL (eql x y) same as EQ, but compares numbers and characters.
 - **EQUAL** (equal x y) true if x and y have the same list structure (look the same when printed).
 - **EQUALP** (equalp x y) like equal but recursively compares (arrays, vectors, and structures)
- Many functions use some form of equality to perform their task (e.g. member looks to see if a particular element is present in a list using equality).
 - By default, the equality function used is *eql*.
 - To specify a different equality function, we can use the keyword arg, **:test**
- Conditionals
 - In LISP the fundamental conditional is **if**:
 - It takes up to 3 arguments with an optional else:
 - (if cond then else)
 - *if* does not use the common evaluation rule of evaluating all its arguments; either the *then* or the *else* is evaluated depending on *cond*, but not both of them.
 - The **case** conditional is a multi-way if:
 - It has a condition, and a number of possible cases each of which is a list.
 - The 1st element of each list are the values handled by the clause.
 - The remaining elements are the statements to be executed conditional on the case.
 - The generic *otherwise* case handles all other cases.

Types Hierarchy

- Every value has a type hierarchy. Every value (except nil) is of type *t*, the generic type. Every subtype of *t* is considered *true* for conditional statements, as discussed earlier.
 - Type hierarchies capture the valid "contexts" of the value.
 - For instance, the type hierarchy of numbers is,



Special Functions

- *sharp quote* (#') an abbreviation for *function*, which returns the function associated with a given name. This is typically used to pass functions as arguments.
- *backquote* (`) used like *quote* except we can force evaluations within the quoted expression:
 - To evaluate within a backquote, use a comma. e.g. for x=1, $(1,x) \rightarrow (1,1)$
 - To get elements of a list use, @. e.g. for x = (a b c) $(1, @x) \rightarrow (1 a b c)$
- *apply* applies a function to a list of arguments. e.g. (apply #'+ '(1 2 3)) $\rightarrow 6$
- *funcall* applies a function to arguments. e.g. (funcall #'+123) $\rightarrow 6$
- mapcar applies a function to consecutive elements of lists it received as arguments:

e.g. $(mapcar \#'list (1 2 3) (4 5 6)) \rightarrow ((1 4) (2 5) (3 6))$

Objects

• The primary way we will associate data into a "class" is through the **defstruct** function that creates a new type with members.

(defstruct group x y z)

• We can define objects to be a given structure by using the <u>constructor</u> for that structure, **make-<name-of-struct>**. This constructor is automatically created when we create a structure. e.g.

(make-group g)

- this constructor can also take keyword arguments to specify the initial value for its members. These are named by the member name: (make-group g :z 1 :x 3) → makes a "group" g with x-part 3, y-part nil, and z-part 1.
- Any arguments not passed to the constructor are set to nil.
- defstruct also creates a member <u>accessor function</u> to refer to the members of a structure. e.g. $(\text{group-x g}) \rightarrow \text{returns the "x" part of } g$.
- defstruct also creates a <u>member-predicate</u> to check if a variable is of the type of that structure: e.g. $(\text{group-p g}) \rightarrow \text{returns } t$
- defstruct also creates a <u>copier function</u> to copy an instance of that structure: e.g. (copy-group g) \rightarrow returns a copy of g.
- Slot options
 - When defining each member of a struct, we can give a default value, a type, and define if it is read-only.
 - (defstruct thing (height 0.0 :type double-float)

(weight 0.0 :type double-float :read-only t))

- Inheritance & overriding default methods
 - When defining a structure, we can cause it to inherit:
 - (defstruct (person (:include thing)) name)
 - which causes person to inherit from our thing class.
 - In addition, we can also override constructor, predicate, copier, etc.
- To create new methods for a structure, we use the **defmethod** function.
 - This is similar to a *defun* declaration, but we need to refer to the class the method operates on. In specifying our method, we therefore pass arguments of the form (<arg-name> <class-name>):
 - e.g. (defmethod setx ((p group) x) (setf (group-x p) x))
 - While we will be using *defmethod* to build methods for our structures, *defmethod*, it is really just a specialized version of *defun* that allows overloading of a function name a generic function
 - define thod allows several functions to have the <u>same</u> name as long as they have different argument types.
 - To specify argument types, we have argument lists of the form: ((arg1 type1) ... (argn typen))
 - Thus, we are able to create several functions of the same name: (defun generic (x y) ...)
 - (defun generic ((x integer) y) ...)
 - LISP applies the most *specific* method that matches the arg types.