

SOME LISP HISTORY AND SOME PROGRAM LANGUAGE IDEAS

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- I suppose I'm here because of Lisp, although I have not been actively involved in the Lisp community for a very long time.
- Lisp is actively used, e.g. on the Deep Space 1 spacecraft and in the Orbitz airline reservation system, but I don't know the details.
- Fritz Kunze's Franz Inc. makes quite a good compiler for Lisp called Allegro Common Lisp.

- Some important aspects of Lisp are not available in other programming languages and systems. I don't know if they are used in the above applications.
- The original idea was to combine 1956 list processing ideas by Newell, Simon and Shaw with ideas from John Backus's Fortran.
- Herbert Gelernter at IBM undertook to implement Marvin Minsky's idea for a plane geometry theorem prover, and implemented list processing in Fortran. Gelernter and Carl Gerber developed FLPL.
- In 1958 Lisp was started at M.I.T. using recursion, which was not feasible in Fortran. Lisp was intended for AI programming.

- Lisp was intended to be compiled at first. However, a universal Lisp function *eval* in 1959 to show that a neater language for computability theory than Turing. Steve Russell pointed out that the universal function, taken as an interpreter for pure Lisp, and hand-compiled to IBM 704 machine language.

DIFFERENTIATION—the motivating example

The following example motivated

- recursion using conditional expressions
- lisp notation for algebraic expressions
- allowing functions as arguments with λ -expression s

$\text{diff}(e, v) \leftarrow$ if at e then
[if $e = v$ then 1 else 0]
else if $\text{car } e = PLUS$ then $PLUS . \text{maplist}(\text{cdr } e, \lambda u. \text{diff}(u, v))$
else if $\text{car } e = TIMES$ then $PLUS . \text{maplist}(\text{cdr } e, \lambda u. \text{diff}(u, v))$
 $\text{maplist}(\text{cdr } e, \lambda w. \text{ if } u \text{ eq } w \text{ then } \text{diff}(\text{car } u, v) \text{ else } 0)$

ASPECTS OF LISP

- Lisp lists including lists of list are the appropriate representation of symbolic expressions for computation—better than JSON and better than XML.
- Lisp programs are Lisp data. Put abstractly, Lisp has a self-referential *abstract syntax*.
- Lisp programs, most conveniently pure Lisp functions, are described extensionally by first order semantics.
- Many important properties of the functions can be proven by first order reasoning.
- Other important properties require *derived functions*.

EXAMPLES OF LISP FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMS

-

```
(defun append (u v)
```

```
(if
```

```
(null u)
```

```
v
```

```
(cons (car u) (append (cdr u) v))))
```

- $u * v \leftarrow \text{if } n \ u \ \text{then } v \ \text{else } a \ u$. $[d \ u \ * \ v]$ is a functional program.

- $(\forall u \ v)(u *' v = \text{if } n \ u \ \text{then } v \ \text{else } a \ u)$. $[d \ u \ *'$
equation for the function computed by the program.
correspondence is very convenient but sometimes con

- The pure Lisp functional program as an equation pe
venient proofs in a first order theory that Lisp prog
their specifications. For example, it is easy to prove
duction that

$\forall u v. (u * v) * w = u * (v * w)$, i.e. that appending
associative operation.

LISP AND OTHER LANGUAGES

- Garbage collection, conditional expressions and records have been taken into other languages.
- LISP data structures have been imitated clumsily in

(BUY item1 Item2 Item3)

<BUY> item1 item2 item3 </BUY>

- LISP programs having access to the abstract syntax tree program has not been imitated. This represents a lack of imitation, but I admit I don't have convincing examples

DERIVED FUNCTIONS

The computational cost of a Lisp functional recursive function is not determined by the extension of the function. $\forall x. f91(x) \leftarrow \text{if } x > 100 \text{ then } x - 10 \text{ else } f91(f91(x + 11))$ and $f91p(x) \leftarrow \text{if } x > 100 \text{ then } x - 10 \text{ else } 91$.

We have $\forall x. f91'(x) = f91p'(x)$, but clearly the functions are different computationally. Suppose we are interested in how many times the $+$ operation is executed in $f91(x)$. This is given by $f91p'(x)$, where

$f91p(x) \leftarrow \text{if } x > 100 \text{ then } 0 \text{ else } 1 + f91p(f91(x + 11))$

ELEPHANT 2000: a programming language for the
www.formal.stanford.edu/jmc/elephant.htm

- **An elephant never forgets.** An Elephant program
“A passenger has a reservation in a situation s if he has
made a reservation and not cancelled it. The Elephant program
must specify a data structure to remember reservations. The
program must provide the necessary data structures so that
whether a passenger has a reservation can be determined.

$$\begin{aligned} Has(passenger, reservation, s) \equiv & \\ (\exists s' < s) Occurs(Makes(passenger, reservation), s) & \\ \wedge \neg(\exists s'')(s < s'' < s' \wedge Occurs(Cancel(Passenger, reservation), s'')) & \end{aligned}$$

- An elephant is faithful one hundred percent. A promise is a promise to let the passenger on the airplane if he shows up. One kind of Elephant output statement is a promise, and correct Elephant programs fulfill their promises.
- The Elephant language includes program statements that make commitments generalizing Floyd assertions, because they refer to the future, A correct Elephant program fulfills its commitments.

$$(\forall s > Now)(Value(X, s) > Value(X, Now))$$

- Elephant i-o input output statements are speech acts, questions, requests, acceptances of proposals, answers to questions. Answers to questions should be true and responsive.

ALGOL 48

If we introduce time explicitly as distinct from the counter, Algolic programs can be written as sets of statements. Here's an Algol 60 program for computing the product of two natural numbers.

```
start :  
    i := n;  
    p := 0;  
loop :    if i = 0 then go to done;  
    i := i - 1;  
    goto loop;  
done :
```

Here's what mathematicians might have written in 19th-century programming languages existed.

```

                                pc(0) = 0;
                                i(t + 1) = if pc(t) = 1
else if pc(t) = 4 then i(t) - 1 else i(t);
                                p(t + 1) = if pc(t) = 2
else if pc(t) = 5 then p(t) + m else p(t)
                                pc(t + 1) = if pc(t) = 3
else if pc(t) = 5 then 2 else pc(t) + 1;

```

The proof that $\exists t.(t \geq 0 \wedge pc(t) = 6 \wedge p(t) = mn)$ follows from the sentences expressing the program and the laws of arithmetic, i.e. no theory of program correctness is needed. However, the proof ideas are essentially the same as those used to prove that an algolic program terminates and that the outputs are in a correct relation to the inputs. Amir Pnueli and Nissim G. Zaks had this idea before I did, but they mistakenly abandoned temporal logic.