# CS 296 - Getting Started in Clojure <br> Version 0.6 <br> Mattox Beckman 

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## 1 About Clojure

### 1.1 Purpose

The purpose of this document is to help a programmer get up to speed using Clojure. It is not meant to be comprehensive, but to serve as a starting point so that other reference materials will make more sense.

I assume that the reader has programmed before, and thus will be familiar with variables, function calls, loops, and the like. I do not assume that the reader's experience is extensive.

This document is organized by sections. Each section will introduce an aspect of Clojure. Included will be discussion, sample code, and some exercises. There are many code examples. You should read this with a running Clojure environment so you can type them in and play with them yourself. This is the fastest way to learn.

When you are finished with these sections you should be ready to start programming!

### 1.2 History of Clojure

Clojure is a dialect of Lisp. Lisp is best understood as a family of languages. This language family is ancient, one of the oldest languages still in use today. The fact that it is still in use is a testimony to its expressive power and its ability to be modified to the will of the programmer. Today there are many dialects of Lisp in use, some quite new. These include Common Lisp, Scheme, Racket, Guile, and of course, Clojure.

In 1958, John McCarthy created the Lisp programming language at MIT. It was meant to be a theoretical exercise, but then one of his graduate students converted it to assembly language, and thus the first Lisp interpreter came into being.

In 1962, the first Lisp compiler was written in Lisp. A language is usually considered a "toy" language until it can compile itself.

In the early 1970's, Sussman and Steele developed Scheme to study a programming concept called the actor. ${ }^{1}$ In 1975, the first paper on Scheme was published.

[^0]In the mid 1990's, Matthias Felleisen founded PLT, a group of researchers interested in Scheme. They produced their own dialect of Scheme called, appropriately enough, PLT Scheme. In 2010, they renamed PLT Scheme version 5.0 to Racket.

Lisp was very influential for a long time, until the dreaded AI Winter. Researchers began to doubt the ability of symbolic logic to mimic human intelligence, and AI (Artificial Intelligence) became less popular. Because Lisp was considered an "AI language," it also became less popular.

In spite of this, people continued to work with Lisp, writing production code and creating new dialects. We will ignore them all except for the one that concerns us now. In 2009, Rich Hickey released Clojure publicly. Because it could run on the JVM and have access to all of Java's libraries, it generated a lot of excitement, and is quickly finding its way into industry.

### 1.3 Getting Clojure

The very short version is "get Leinengen". Leinengen, or lein as the command is called, is a CloJURE build tool. It can run Clojure programs, but it can also manage Clojure packages very easily. We will be using this extensively in the course. It can be found at http://leiningen.org.

You will definitely want a Clojure-aware editor. If you want to get started quickly, the IDE called LightTable is very promising. It's a simple .jar file, and runs almost everywhere. It can use the vim keybindings, for those of you who know what those are. This is one of our recommended environments. Visit http://www.lighttable.com to try it.

The eclipse package has a plugin called CounterClockwise that supports Clojure, and I am told that it is good. You can find it at http://code.google.com/p/counterclockwise.

There are two editors also worth mentioning. The learning curve on them is much higher, but the benefit is also greater once you are familiar with them. The course web site has some resources for both of these.

The first is an ancient editor called vim. It is a modal editor, with keybindings optimized for touchtypists. You can edit very quickly with vim. You will want to get some plugins to vim to work with Clojure: the details can be found on the course web site.

The second is another ancient editor called emacs. The author of this guide started learning it 25 years ago (and it was already considered old then), though still in constant development. It is likely the most common environment for CloJure programmers.

For a best-of-all-worlds approach, someone has even written a vim emulator in emacs. It is called evil, and the reader can decide if that is just a coincidence or not. The spacemacs project has put a lot of effort into unifying the two editors.

### 1.4 Typographic Conventions

The examples in this manual will be of two types: files and interactive environments. A file listing will look like this:

```
(defn plus [a b]
    (+ a b))
```

Running the program from the interactive environment will look like this.

```
% lein repl
nREPL server started on port 43244
REPL-y 0.2.0
Clojure~1.5.1
        Docs: (doc function-name-here)
        (find-doc "part-of-name-here")
    Source: (source function-name-here)
user=> (load-file "foo.clj")
#'user/plus
user=> (plus 10 20)
30
```

The \% lein repl is the Unix prompt and command to start Clojure, and the user $=>$ symbol is the Clojure prompt. Your own prompts may look different depending on how your environment is set up.

Most of the examples in this document will be run from the Unix command line, but you could also use one of the editors we mentioned to take advantage of the graphic user interface.

In order to reduce the amount of space it takes to demonstrate Clojure code, many documentation writers use the convention of writing an expression followed by a comment displaying its value. The two forms are inline, like this:
(plus 10 20) ; => 30
or on the following line, like this:

```
(plus 10 20)
;; => 30
```


## 2 Numerics, Arithmetic, and Function Calls

Clojure contains many numeric types. The usual ones are there, such as integers and floats. They look like you would expect. Note that the semicolon is the comment character in Clojure.

```
10 ; Long Integers
234.345 ; Floats
```

It also has big integers. These allow as many digits as you have memory to store them.

918741238974019237401239487 ; Bignums
Clojure has fractions, though we propbably will not use them much. You can convert them to floats if you want.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
50 / 15 & ;=>10 / 3 \\
\text { (float 50/15) ; }=>3.333333333333335
\end{array}
$$

### 2.1 Function Calls

In Clojure, every computation begins with a parenthesis. This is the most noticeable feature of the language, and perhaps the most important. In non-lisps, a function call might look like $f(x, y)$. In Clojure, it looks like
(f x y)

So, to add two numbers 10 and 20 , you would write
(+ 10 20)

To add $3 \times 3$ to $4 \times 4$ you would write
(+ (* 3 3) (* 44 ) )

There are a few strengths to this setup. First, precedence is explicit. You all know the algebraic rules governing times and plus, but there are many other operators. Second, this allows functions to take a variable number of arguments. For example, you can say ( +248 ) to get 14 , and you can say (< $10 \times 20$ ) to check if variable $x$ is between 10 and 20.

Here is some example code

```
(+ 10 20 30) ; => 60
(-50 20 1) ; => 29
(* 8 6 6 7 5 5 3 9) ; => 45360
(mod 10 4) ; => 2
```


### 2.2 Mathematics

Clojure uses Java's Math library to handle machine math. There is a separate library if you want to use such functions on extended precision numbers. We will not be needing that in this class.

```
Math/E ; => 2.718281828459045
(Math/sqrt 2) ; => 1.4142135623730951
(Math/exp 34) ; => 5.834617425274549E14
Math/PI ; => 3.141592653589`93
```


### 2.3 Exercises

Question 1: Using Clojure, determine the sum and the product of $2,4,5,10$, and 12 .

Question 2: Using Clojure, verify the famous identity

$$
\sqrt{3^{2}+4^{2}}=5
$$

Use functions (Math/sqrt x) to compute $\sqrt{x}$ and Math/pow x 2 to compute $x^{2}$.

Question 3: This code is supposed to calculate $3^{2}+$ $4^{2}$. What's wrong with it?

```
(+ Math/pow(3 2) Math/pow(4 2))
```


## 3 Creating and Using Variables

### 3.1 Define

There are two common ways to create variables in Clojure. The first is with def. The syntax is simple: (def var exp) defines a variable named var and assigns to it the value given by expression exp.
(def a 10)
(def b (+ 15 5))

```
(+ a b) ; => 30
```

Variables created by def persist throughout their scope.

### 3.2 Let

The second way to create variables is with the let form. The syntax is (let [v1 e1 ...] body). Unlike def, the variables created by let are temporary and local. They exist only in the body part of the let, and then disappear. You can define more than one variable at a time by adding more pairs.

This session illustrates the interaction between local and global variables.

```
(def a 10)
(def b 20)
(let [a 50] a) ; => 50
a ; => 10
(let [a 20
            b 40]
    (+ a b)) ; => 60
(+ a b) ; => 30
```

Variables are defined by let one at a time. Subsequent definitions have access to previous definitions. For those of you familiar with other Lisp dialects, this is more like let*.

```
(def a 10)
(def b 20)
(let [a 20
    b a]
    (+ a b)) ; => 40
```


### 3.3 Exercises

Question 4: What will this do?

```
(let [x 10
        y 20]
    (/ x y))
```

Question 5: What will be the value of x after running the code from question 4 ? (Yes, this is a trick question!)

Question 6: What will this code print out?

```
(def x 10)
(def y 10)
(let [x 5
    y (+ x 1)
    z (* x y)]
    z)
```


## 4 Built-in Data Structures

### 4.1 Sequences

The most common data structure in Clojure is actually a family of structures called a sequence. A sequence has to be able to give you two things: the first element of the sequence and the rest of the sequence beyond the first element. ${ }^{2}$

We actually do not get to know what a sequence looks like in memory! It could be a list, a vector, or one of several other things. In class we will talk about why this is actually a good thing.

### 4.2 Lists

Lists are built out of a structure known as a cons cell. The name cons is short for construct. A cons cell contains a data element and a reference to another cons cell, or else to an empty list, which is represented by nil.

There are many ways to create lists. One way is to string together cons cells.

```
(def a (cons 10
    (cons 20 (cons 30 nil))))
```

This creates the memory diagram given in figure 1.


Figure 1: List with Three Elements
Another way to create this is with the quote form. So we could say:

```
(def a '(10 20 30))
```

[^1]A third way is to use the list form. It is like cons, but takes any number of arguments, and evaluates them all.

```
(def a (list 10 (+ 15 5) 30))
a ; => '(lllll
```

All three of the above codes produce the same memory diagram as given in figure 1 .

A list is a kind of sequence, so you can use use first to get the first element, and rest to access the rest of the elements. The result of rest is another sequence, not necessarily a list! Notice also that when you print out a sequence, Clojure will use list notation (parentheses) to display it.

```
(first a) ; => 10
(rest a) ; => '(20 30)
(rest '()) ; => nil
```

Note that whenever you refer to a cons cell that you have saved in a variable, you do not create a new list. Instead, you recycle the old one.

```
(def x (cons 1 (cons 2 nil)))
(def y (cons 10 x))
(def z (cons 5 y))
```

This code create figure 2 .


Figure 2: Three Lists Sharing
apply One very nice function is called apply. It takes a function and applies it to the whole list. It works with vectors too.

$$
\text { (apply + (list } 3579 \text { )) ; }=>24
$$

Common List Operations Here are some list operations you may find useful. ${ }^{3}$

```
(def xx (list 2 4 6 8 10))
(count xx)
;; => 5
(reverse xx)
;; => '(10 8 6 4 2)
(append xx xx)
;; => '(2 2 4 6 8 10 2 4 6 8 10)
(take 2 xx)
;; => '(2 4)
(drop 2 xx)
;; => '(% 8 10)
(first xx)
;; => 2
(rest xx)
;; => '(\begin{array}{llll}{4}&{6}&{8}&{10}\end{array})
(second xx)
; ; => 4
(nth xx 3)
;; => 8
(map inc '(4 6 8))
;; => '(\begin{array}{llrl}{5}\end{array})
```

We have tests:

```
(list? xx) ; => true
(list? 45) ; => false
```

We can also apply functions to the list in different ways.

```
(filter odd? '(2 3 4 5 6)) ; => '(3 5)
(map inc xx)
; ; => '(3 5 r % 9 11)
(reduce + '(2 3 4 5)) ; => 14
(reduce * '(2 3 4 5)) ; => 120
(apply max xx) ; => 10
```


## Exercises

Question 7: What is the difference between v1 and v2 below?

```
(def a 10)
(def b 20)
(def v1 '(a b))
(def v2 (list a b))
```

[^2]Question 8: Consider the following code, an attempt to create figure 1.

```
user=> (def x (cons (cons
        (cons 10 nil) 20) 30))
user=> x
clojure.lang.Compiler CompilerException:
    java.lang.IllegalArgumentException:
    Don't know how to create ISeq from:
    java.lang.Long, compiling ... ; etc.
```

Why did this go wrong?
Question 9: Draw a memory diagram for the following code:

```
(def a (cons 10 (cons 20 nil)))
(def b (cons a a))
(def c (cons b (cons a nil)))
```

Question 10: Try to write some code that creates the diagram in figure 3.


Figure 3: An exercise in memory

### 4.3 Vectors

A vector, also known as an array in many languages, is a collection of data kept in contiguous memory locations. In Clojure, a vector is written with square brackets.

For example this code

```
(def a [10 20 30])
```

creates a memory diagram as in figure 4.


Figure 4: A three-element vector

To access a vector element, you can use the vector as a function that takes an integer argument. That integer will be the index into the vector. The first element always has index 0 .

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\begin{array}{ll}
\mathrm{a} & \text { ) }
\end{array}\right]=>10 \\
& \left(\begin{array}{ll}
\mathrm{a} & 2
\end{array}\right) ; \text { }
\end{aligned}
$$

Vectors in Clojure are immutable.
Vectors are also sequences, so you can use first, rest, map, etc. on them as well. You will get a sequence back though. There is a function mapv which will return a vector if you really want to preserve the vector type.

### 4.4 Hash Maps

In the second half of the course, you will learn about hash tables in great detail. But they are ubiquitous in Clojure code, and very convenient, so we'll talk about how to use them here, and go over the implementation details later.

A hash map is a data structure similar to a vector, but the index can be almost anything, not just an integer. The index is usually called a key, and the data being indexed is usually called a value. The structure as a whole is one of many ways to implement a dictionary.

In Clojure, we can write a literal hash map using curly braces. Inside the curly braces are pairs. The first element of the pair is the key; the second element is the value.

```
(def ht { "Jenni" "867-5309"
    "Emergency" "911" })
```

One strange fact about Clojure is that a comma is considered whitespace. Sometimes you will see hash maps defined this way (note the comma after the first pair) for legibility:

```
(def ht { "Jenni" "867-5309",
    "Emergency" "911" })
```

To look up a value from a hash map, you treat it like a function, with the key as the input.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (ht "Jenni") ; => "867-5309" } \\
& \text { (ht "Home") ; => nil }
\end{aligned}
$$

Typically, Clojure programmers use keywords as the hash map keys when possible. (A keyword is a an identifier that begins with a colon. They cannot contain data. An identifier that begins with a single quote is called a symbol.) As a result, hash maps tend to look very much like records or structures in other languages. Another advantage of this is that a keyword can be treated as a function that takes a hash map as its argument.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (def pt \{:x } 10: y 20\} \text { ) } \\
& \text { (pt :x) ; => } 10 \\
& \text { (:y pt) ; => } 20
\end{aligned}
$$

To "update" a hash map, we have a function assoc.

```
(assoc pt :z 30)
;; => {:z 30,:y 20,:x 10}
(assoc pt :x 123)
;; => {:y 20,:x 123}
```

The keys and values can be arbitrary data structures.

```
(def t { [1 2] "hi"})
t ; => {[11 2] "hi"}
(t [1 2]) ; => "hi"
(def np { :p1 {:x 1 :y 2}
    :p2 {:x 5 :y 7}})
(np :p1) ; => {:y 2,:x 1}
(-> np :p2 :y) ; => 7
```

The functions keys and vals will return the keys and values, respectively, of a hash map.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { (vals pt) } & ;=>\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\text { (val } & 10) \\
\text { (keys pt) } & ;
\end{array}\right)(: y ~: x)
\end{array}
$$

The Arrow Macro In the previous code, you saw a shortcut, the arrow macro. It allows you to rewrite code more compactly.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
(+((n p: p 2): y) 10) & ; \\
(->n p: p 2: y(+10)) & ;=17 \\
(->y
\end{array}
$$

The rule is that the first thing after the arrow becomes the first argument to the second thing. I.e., ( $->$ x (f a b)) becomes ( $f$ x a b). From then on, each result becomes the first argument of the
next thing. So (-> x inc (* 10)) will become ($>(\operatorname{inc} x)(* 10)$ ) and then (* (inc x) 10)).

There is a double arrow version, $-\gg$, in which the results become the last argument. So, (->> x (f a b) ) would become ( $f$ a b x).

Because hash maps can be treated like functions, it is common to see the arrow macro used to access values deep within a nested hash map.

## Exercises

Question 11: Suppose you had the phone book hash map above and a function dial which would actually dial the number. How would you dial all the numbers in the phone book in one line of Clojure?

Question 12: The np hash map had a bunch of "named points" in it. Suppose we wanted to add the values of the coordinates of $: p 2$. Show how to do this.

## 5 Creating Functions

There are two common ways to create a function in Clojure: the fn form and the defn form.

### 5.1 Lambda

The keyword fn is called lambda in most other lisps. That in turn is named for the Greek symbol $\lambda$, and represents a function. This notation is from $\lambda$ calculus, developed in the 1930's by Alonzo Church to study the dynamics of functions. The $\lambda$-calculus is a foundation for the functional languages like CloJURE, and $\lambda$ has come to be a near-religious symbol for those who program in these languages. Even Clojure uses it in its logo.

It was renamed fn because we want to be able to use it a lot, and this is much easier to type.

We will not have time to explain in CS 296 why this is so, but will say for now that the ability to define a function and treat is as any other value is an extremely powerful mode of expression.

To create a function, use the keyword fn, list the parameters you want the function to take, and then write out the body of the function. For example, (fn [a] (+ a 1)) is a function that takes a variable $a$ and returns the value $a+1$. If you try to type it


Figure 5: Clojure logo, with lambda
out, Clojure will just tell you that it is ... well, it's something.

```
user> (fn [a] (+ a 1))
#<user eval8818 fn__8819 user ...
```

To make use of these, you have to apply them. Function application happens just like everything else in Clojure: you begin and end with parenthesis.

```
user=> ( (fn [a] (+ a 1)) 27 )
28
```

You can define functions that take multiple arguments as well.

```
user=> ( (fn [x y] (* x y)) 12 3.5)
42.0
```

Anonymous functions are wonderful, but without names it gets hard to use them more than once. You can assign a function to a variable so you can use it again.

```
user=> (def times (fn [x y] (* x y)))
user=> (times 12 3.5)
4 2 . 0
```


### 5.2 Another Shortcut

Programmers are a lazy bunch. Not content to shorten lambda to fn, we have an even more brief way of writing anonymous functions.

The code \#(+ $2 \%$ ) is equivalent to (fn [x] (+ $2 \mathrm{x})$ ). The hash sign in front of the parenthesis says that this expression is a function. The percent symbol is taken as the parameter.

You can create multi-parameter functions by having a number after the percent sign.

$$
(\#(+\% 1 \% 2) 1020) ;=>30
$$

This form is commonly used as to supply function arguments to functions like map and reduce. There is one important limitation though: you cannot nest one of these functions inside another, because the percent argument would be ambiguous.

## Exercises

Question 13: Write a function that takes a number and doubles it.

Question 14: Write a function that takes two numbers and returns their hypotenuse. Assume you have a function sqrt to take the square root.

### 5.3 Defn

Defining functions is so common that we have a shortcut for it. Instead of (def foo (fn [a] ...)) you can simply say (defn foo [a] ...).

```
(defn double [x] (* x 2))
(defn times [a b] (* a b))
```


## 6 Conditionals

To handle branching and conditions, Clojure provides several constructs. The two most commonly used are if and cond.

### 6.1 What is truth?

The if form is simple: (if $\mathrm{x} y \mathrm{z}$ ), where x is an expression that evaluates to true or false, y is the "then" branch, and $z$ is the "else" branch. We do not use then and else keywords like in other languages, the position of the subexpression tells us all we need to know.

You need to know that false is represented as false or nil. Truth is represented explicitly by true, but in fact everything that isn't false or nil is also considered to be true. In the Clojure world, such values are called truthy, to distinguish between "things that are taken to be true" and "the boolean value True."

Here is an example function that checks if a number is negative, and if so, makes it positive.

```
(defn quickabs [a]
(if (< a 0) (- a) a))
```

Sometimes you want an if without the else branch. The idiomatic way to do this is Clojure is the when form. This form is typically used for sideeffecting operations, like I/O.

```
(when (< x 0) (println "Negative!"))
;; => "Negative!"
```

You can nest if forms if you want to, but if you are doing that, then the next section may be more useful to you.

## 6.2 cond



Figure 6: cooooooond!
If you only need two cases, then if is usually a good choice, but more frequently you will see the cond form, since it allows as many cases as we want. The structure is as follows:

```
(cond c1 e1
    c2 e2
    c3 e3
    :else e4)
```

The c expressions are booleans, and are called guards. The corresponding e expressions are the branches guarded by the booleans. The first guard in the list that evaluates to true wins, and its corresponding expression gets evaluated.

The final guard is written :else here, but any truthy value would do the same thing: catch every case that reaches that point. So, to be clear, the word :else has no special meaning. We could have used :fred instead, since all keywords are truthy.

Here is a function that finds the maximum of three elements.

```
(defn max3 [a b c]
    (cond (and (> a b) (> a c)) a
    (and (> b a) (> b c)) b
    :else c))
(max3 10 20 3)
;; => 20
```

Question 15: Instead of using :else as the last guard, you could also use true. Why does that work?

Question 16: The following code is supposed to do a special comparison, but for some reason it is not working. What is the bug?

```
(defn my-compare [a b]
    (cond (= a b) 'equal
            < a b 'less
            :else 'greater))
(my-compare 10 10) ; => equal
(my-compare 10 1) ; => 10
(my-compare 10 31) ; => 10
```


## 7 Records

The cons cell is very useful, but sometimes you may want to aggregate your data differently. To teach Clojure a new structure, you can use the defrecord form. The format is this:
(defrecord name $\left[f_{1} \cdots f_{n}\right]$ )
For name you specify the name of your structure, and for each of the $f_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$ you specify a field name. For those of you with object-oriented backgrounds, the name is like a class name, and $f_{i}$ are like member variables.

For example, consider this code:

```
(defrecord Foo [x y z])
```

This creates a new structure type called foo which has three fields, $x, y$, and $z$.

When you create a structure this way, CloJURE creates a function to create instances of the record (we'll just call it a constructor), and accessor functions to retrieve the contents of the fields. The record creator function will have the same name as the record itself, but with a dot appended. This is because defrecord creates a Java class, and the
name of a class followed by a dot is the name of the constructor for that class. For this reason it is customary to capitalize the record name. The accessor functions will be keywords, having the format : $f_{i}$ for each of the fields $f_{i}$.

In the Foo example above, our constructor is called Foo. and the field accessors are $: x,: y$, and $: z$.

Here is an example of creating a Foo and examining the fields.

```
(def f (Foo. 10 20 30))
(:x f) ; => 10
(:y f) ; => 20
(:z f) ; => 30
user> f ; => #user.Foo{:x 10, :y 20,
    :z 30}
```

Figure 7 shows what this looks like in memory.


Figure 7: (def f (Foo. 1020 30) )
Note that you cannot use a record like a function as you could with hash maps. ( $f: x$ ) will raise an error.

## 8 Mutation

Clojure structures are immutable. To allow destructive update, you have to use special operations. In our class, we will use something called an atom.

You create an atom using the atom form. To access the contents, you need to use deref, or a shortcut @. You can set (i.e. destructively update) the atom with a simple value by using reset!. It is very common to want to update the content of the atom in terms of its previous content. The swap! form allows you to provide a function that does this. So (reset! a (* @a 2) ) becomes (swap! a \#(* \% 2)).

```
(def a (atom 0)) ; => #'user/a
(deref a) ; => 0
user> @a ; => 0
(reset! a 5) ; => 5
(+ @a @a) ; => 10
user> a ; => #<Atom@3ebbf380: 5>
(reset! a (inc @a)) ; => 6
(swap! a inc) ; => Y
```


## 9 Looping

### 9.1 You don't need to do it.

You will not use loops as frequently in Clojure as you might in other languages. This is because CloJURE provides constructs to do what you really want to do: in most cases, creating an integer and counting it up is an artificial addition to the problem.
To do something to every element of a datastructure, use map.

$$
\left(\text { map inc } '\left(\begin{array}{llll}
2 & 3 & 4 & 5
\end{array}\right) \quad ; \quad \Rightarrow l^{\prime}\left(\begin{array}{llll}
3 & 4 & 5
\end{array}\right)\right.
$$

To select the elements that meet a certain criteria, use filter.

```
(filter odd? '(2 3 4 5 6 7 8))
;; => '(3 5 7)
```

To check if every element has a property, use every?. To check if some element has a property, use some.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (every? odd? ' }\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4
\end{array}\right) \text { ) } \\
& \text { (some odd? ' }\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3
\end{array}\right) \text { ) false } \text {; => true }
\end{aligned}
$$

These functions work on vectors as well as lists.

### 9.2 But I really want to use a loop!

Okay. There is a form called for that will make a loop for you. It is similar to the let form, but instead of a value, you must provide a sequence.

```
(for [i '(1 2 3)] (+ i 10))
;; => (11 12 13)
```

If you are using a loop to do "side-effecting" things, like print values to the string, you will need to wrap the loop in a dorun call.

```
user> (for [i '(1 2 3)]
    (printf "%d\n" i))
;; (1
;; 2
;; nil 3
;; nil nil)
user> (dorun (for [i '(1 2 3)]
    (printf "%d\n" i)))
;; 1
;; 2
;; 3
;; nil
```

The printf function takes a format string common to C's, followed by a list of arguments: \%d means an integer, and $\backslash \mathrm{n}$ means a newline.

There are some convenient sequence generators for you. One of them is range:

```
(dorun (for [i (range 10)]
    (printf "%d-" i)))
0-1-2-3-4-5-6-7-8-9-
(dorun (for [i (range 3 10)]
    (printf "%d-" i)))
3-4-5-6-7-8-9-
```

You can also add filters:

```
(dorun (for [i (range 3 10)
            :when (odd? i)]
            (printf "%d-" i)))
3-5-7-9-
(dorun (for [i (range 3 10)
            :when (not (odd? i))]
            (printf "%d-" i)))
4-6-8-
```

You can have multiple sequences. They will be nested.

```
(dorun (for [i (range 0 2)
            j (range 0 2)]
(printf "%d %d -" i j)))
0 0 -0 1 -1 0 - 1 1 -
```


### 9.3 List Comprehensions

The for form is also known as a list comprehension. Instead of executing a command in the body of the loop, the body emits a value, and for accumulates them into a list. You can use the : when form to filter out some of the results, and the :let form to define temporary variables during the run.

```
(for [i (range 1 10)]
        (* i i))
;; => '(1 4 9 16 25 36 49 64 81)
(for [i (range 1 10)]
    (* i i))
;; => '(1 4 4 9 16 25 36 49 64 81)
(for [i (range 1 10)
    :when (odd? i)]
    (* i i))
```

```
;; => '(1 9 25 49 81)
(for [i (range 1 10)
    :let [j (- i 1)]]
    (* i j))
;; => (0 2 % 6 12 20 30 42 56 72)
```

Question 17: Write a function (mods n xx ) that uses for to return the moduli of each element of $x x$ with respect to $n$.

Question 18: Write a function crazy that takes two lists xx and yy . Use a for to compute $x^{2}-1+$ $y^{2}-1$ for odd $x^{2}$ and $y^{2}$, where $x \in x x$ and $y \in y y$. Only compute the squares once for each element. So, (crazy ' (1 2 3) ' (4 5 6) ) will return ' (26 34), because $26=1^{2}+5^{2}$ and $34=3^{2}+5^{2}$.

## 10 Namespaces

Often we will write code where some of it should be accessible to the user but other parts should not be. We also will want to group related functions together. Many languages provide modules to handle this: in Clojure, modules are called namespaces.

To declare a module, you use the form

```
(ns myname
...)
```

where "myname" is the name of the module you want to define.

Usually, you will use myname.clj as the name of your source file.

Let's suppose we want to create a module foo that has an increment function. We can write our module like this:

```
user> (ns foo)
nil
foo> (defn bar [x] (+ x 1))
#'foo/bar
foo> (bar 10)
11
```

Notice how the prompt changes.
If you want to change namepaces, use the in-ns form. The argument to in-ns must be a symbol. In the following example we switch namespaces back to user.

```
foo> (in-ns 'user)
#<Namespace user>
user> (bar 10)
CompilerException RuntimeException:
Unable to resolve symbol: bar
compiling:(NO_SOURCE_PATH:1:1)
```

To use a symbol in a different namespace, you can require the namespace like this.

```
user> (require '[foo :as foo])
nil
user> (foo/bar 10)
1 1
```

If you don't want to have to prefix everything with the name of the namespace, you can use this form:

```
user> (require '[foo :refer :all])
nil
user> (bar 10)
1 1
```

Sometimes you will see (use 'foo); it does the same thing, but it has been deprecated.

## 11 Solutions to exercises

Solution 1 The necessary code is:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{lllllll}
(+ & 2 & 4 & 5 & 10 & 12
\end{array}\right) \quad ; \quad \Rightarrow 33
$$

Solution 2 The necessary Clojure code is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (+(\text { Math/pow } 3 \text { 2) (Math/pow 4 2))) } \\
& ; ;=>5.0
\end{aligned}
$$

Solution 3 The expt functions should be written as (Math/pow 3 2) and (Math/pow 4 2).

Solution 4 The code will create the fraction 10/20, and display it as $1 / 2$.

Solution 5 Variable x will no longer have a value, since it only existed in the body of the let.

Solution 630

Solution 7 The list v1 will be ' (a b), while the list v2 will be ' (10 20). The quote operator used to make v1 causes everything to be quoted, whereas the list form evaluates everything and builds the list from the resulting values.

Solution 8 When using cons to build lists, you need to put the element in the first part, and the rest of the list in the second part. The code in this question has it reversed.


Figure 8: Solution to question 9

## Solution 10

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (\text { def } x(\operatorname{cons} 1(\operatorname{cons} 2 \text { nil) })) \\
& (\operatorname{def} y(\operatorname{cons} 10(c d r x))) \\
& (\operatorname{def} z(\operatorname{cons} y(c d r x)))
\end{aligned}
$$

## Solution 11

```
(map dial (vals ht))
```

Solution 12
(+ (-> np :p2 :x) (-> np :p2 :y))

Solution 13 Either of these will work.

```
(def double (fn [x] (* x 2)))
(def double #(* x %))
```


## Solution 14

```
(def hypot (fn [a b]
(Maht/sqrt (+ (* a a) (* b b)))))
```

Solution 15 Since it is the last element, it will only be checked if everything else fails, and since it is true, it will always execute if it is reached.

Solution 16 The problem is on this line:
< a b 'less

It takes < as a condition, and since it is not false, runs the value a. To fix it, use this code:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { (defn my-compare [a b] } \\
\text { (cond (= a b) 'equal } \\
\text { (< a b) 'less } \\
\text { :else 'greater)) }
\end{gathered}
$$

## Solution 17

```
(defn mods [n xx]
(for [i xx]
(mod i n)))
(mods 3 '(8 6 7 5 3 0 9))
;; => '(2 (2 0 1 2 0 0 0)
```

Usually, though, we would just use map to accomplish this.

```
(defn mods [n xx]
(map #(mod % n) xx))
```


## Solution 18

```
(defn crazy [xx yy]
        (for [x xx
            :let [xs (* x x)]
            :when (odd? xs)
            y yy
            :let [ys (* y y)]
            :when (odd? ys)]
        (+ xs ys)))
(crazy '(1 2 3) '(4 5 6))
    ;; => (26 34)
```


## 12 Colophon

This document was compiled using LuaLaTeX. The body text is set in the Equity font, and the headers are set in the Concourse font. Both these fonts are available from Matthew Butterick. The source code is set in Computer Modern Teletype, designed by Donald Knuth. The picture of Captian Kirk screaming belongs to Paramount Pictures, and is used under the fair use doctrine. The Clojure logo was designed by Tom Hickey (the brother of Clojure's creator, Rich Hickey), and is available under the Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike license. The diagrams are set using TikZ and the author's data-structures library.

Thanks to Jeffrey Tolar for edits and comments.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Actors are entities that have their own threads and states, and can communicate with other actors. They are an early attempt to understand distributed computing, and are still in use today.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ The functions to do this are called first and rest. Note that rest will convert its argument into a sequence!

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Actually, these are sequence operations. In particular, functions reverse, map, etc. will return a sequence, not a list. You will probably will not be able to tell the difference most of the time.

