By now you’re accustomed to the idea of expressing a computational process in terms of the function whose value you want to compute, rather than in terms of a sequence of actions. But you probably think of a function (or the procedure that embodies it) as something very different from the words, sentences, numbers, or other data that serve as arguments to the functions. It’s like the distinction between verbs and nouns in English: A verb represents something to do, while a noun represents something that is.

In this part of the book our goal is to overturn that distinction.

Like many big ideas, this one seems simple at first. All we’re saying is that a function can have functions as its domain or range. One artificially simple example that you’ve seen earlier was the number-of-arguments function in Chapter 2. That function takes a function as argument and returns a number. It’s not so different from count, which takes a word or sentence as argument and returns a number.

But you’ll see that this idea leads to an enormous rise in the length and complexity of the processes you can express in a short procedure, because now a process can give rise to several other processes. A typical example is the acronym procedure that we introduced in Chapter 1 and will examine now in more detail. Instead of applying the first procedure to a single word, we use first as an argument to a procedure, every, that automatically applies it to every word of a sentence. A single every process gives rise to several first processes.

The same idea of function as data allows us to write procedures that create and return new procedures. At the beginning of Part II we showed a Scheme representation of a function that computes the third person singular of a verb. Now, to illustrate the idea of function as data, we’ll show how to represent in Scheme a function make-conjugator whose range is the whole family of verb-conjugation functions:
Never mind the notation for now; the idea to think about is that we can use make-conjugator to create many functions similar to the third-person example of the Part II introduction:

```
> (define third-person (make-conjugator 'she 's))
> (third-person 'program)
(SHE PROGRAMS)

> (define third-person-plural-past (make-conjugator 'they 'ed))
> (third-person-plural-past 'play)
(THEY PLAYED)

> (define second-person-future-perfect
   (make-conjugator '(you will have) 'ed))
> (second-person-future-perfect 'laugh)
(YOU WILL HAVE LAUGHED)
```

We’ll explore only a tiny fraction of the area opened up by the idea of allowing a program as data. Further down the same road is the study of compilers and interpreters, the programs that translate your programs into instructions that computers can carry out. A Scheme compiler is essentially a function whose domain is Scheme programs.
Turning function machines into plowshares


8 Higher-Order Functions

Note: If you read Part IV before this one, pretend you didn’t; we are going to develop a different technique for solving similar problems.

You can use the function first to find the first letter of a word. What if you want to find the first letters of several words? You did this in the first chapter, as part of the process of finding acronyms.

To start with a simple case, suppose you have two words (that is, a sentence of length two). You could apply the first procedure to each of them and combine the results:

```scheme
(define (two-firsts sent)
  (se (first (first sent))
     (first (last sent))))

> (two-firsts '(john lennon))
(J L)

> (two-firsts '(george harrison))
(G H)
```

Similarly, here’s the version for three words:

```scheme
(define (three-firsts sent)
  (se (first (first sent))
     (first (first (bf sent))))
     (first (last sent))))

> (three-firsts '(james paul mccartney))
(J P M)
```
Every

To write a better any-length first-letter procedure, you need to be able to say “apply the function first to every word in the sentence, no matter how long the sentence is.” Scheme provides a way to do this:*  

(define (first-letters sent)  
  (every first sent))

> (first-letters '(here comes the sun))
(H C T S)

> (first-letters '(lucy in the sky with diamonds))
(L I T S W D)

Every takes two arguments. The second argument is a sentence, but the first is something new: a procedure used as an argument to another procedure.** Notice that

* Like all the procedures in this book that deal with words and sentences, every and the other procedures in this chapter are part of our extensions to Scheme. Later, in Chapter 17, we’ll introduce the standard Scheme equivalents.

** Talking about every strains our resolve to distinguish functions from the procedures that implement them. Is the argument to every a function or a procedure? If we think of every itself
As a procedure—that is, if we’re focusing on how it does its job—then of course we must say that it does its job by repeatedly invoking the procedure that we supply as an argument. But it’s equally valid for us to focus attention on the function that the every procedure implements, and that function takes functions as arguments.

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words. The first argument to \texttt{every} can also be a function that returns a sentence. In this case, \texttt{every} returns one long sentence:

\begin{verbatim}
(define (sent-of-first-two wd)
  (se (first wd) (first (bf wd)))))

> (every sent-of-first-two '(the inner light))
(T H I N L I)

> (every sent-of-first-two '(tell me what you see))
(T E M E W H Y O S E)

> (define (g wd)
  (se (word 'with wd) 'you))

> (every g '(in out))
(WITHIN YOU WITHOUT YOU)
\end{verbatim}

A function that takes another function as one of its arguments, as \texttt{every} does, is called a \textit{higher-order function}. If we focus our attention on procedures, the mechanism through which Scheme computes functions, we think of \texttt{every} as a procedure that takes another procedure as an argument—a \textit{higher-order procedure}.

\section*{A Pause for Reflection}

Earlier we used the metaphor of the “function machine,” with a hopper at the top into which we throw data, and a chute at the bottom from which the result falls, like a meat grinder. Well, \texttt{every} is a function machine into whose hopper we throw another function machine! Instead of a meat grinder, we have a metal grinder.*

Do you see what an exciting idea this is? We are accustomed to thinking of numbers and sentences as “real things,” while functions are less like things and more like activities. As an analogy, think about cooking. The real foods are the meats, vegetables, ice cream, and so on. You can’t eat a recipe, which is analogous to a function. A recipe has to be applied to ingredients, and the result of carrying out the recipe is an edible meal. It

* You can get in trouble mathematically by trying to define a function whose domain includes all functions, because applying such a function to itself can lead to a paradox. In programming, the corresponding danger is that applying a higher-order procedure to itself might result in a program that runs forever.

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would seem weird if a recipe used other recipes as ingredients: “Preheat the oven to 350 and insert your Joy of Cooking.” But in Scheme we can do just that.*

Cooking your cookbook is unusual, but the general principle isn’t. In some contexts we do treat recipes as things rather than as algorithms. For example, people write recipes on cards and put them into a recipe file box. Then they perform operations such as searching for a particular recipe, sorting the recipes by category (main dish, dessert, etc.), copying a recipe for a friend, and so on. The same recipe is both a process (when we’re cooking with it) and the object of a process (when we’re filing it).

Keep

Once we have this idea, we can use functions of functions to provide many different capabilities.

For instance, the keep function takes a predicate and a sentence as arguments. It returns a sentence containing only the words of the argument sentence for which the predicate is true.

> (keep even? '(1 2 3 4 5))
(2 4)
> (define (ends-e? word) (equal? (last word) 'e))
> (keep ends-e? '(please put the salami above the blue elephant))
(PLEASE THE ABOVE THE BLUE)
> (keep number? '(1 after 909))
(1 909)

Keep will also accept a word as its second argument. In this case, it applies the predicate to every letter of the word and returns another word:

> (keep number? 'zonk23hey9)
239
> (define (vowel? letter) (member? letter '(a e i o u)))
> (keep vowel? 'piggies)
IIE

* Some recipes may seem to include other recipes, because they say things like “add pesto (recipe on p. 12).” But this is just composition of functions; the result of the pesto procedure is used as an argument to this recipe. The pesto recipe itself is not an ingredient.
When we used every to select the first letters of words earlier, we found the first letters even of uninteresting words such as “the.” We’re working toward an acronym procedure, and for that purpose we’d like to be able to discard the boring words.

(define (real-word? wd)
  (not (member? wd '(a the an in of and for to with)))))

> (keep real-word? '(lucy in the sky with diamonds))
(LUCY SKY DIAMONDS)

> (every first (keep real-word? '(lucy in the sky with diamonds)))
(L S D)

**Accumulate**

In every and keep, each element of the second argument contributes independently to the overall result. That is, every and keep apply a procedure to a single element at a time. The overall result is a collection of individual results, with no interaction between elements of the argument. This doesn’t let us say things like “Add up all the numbers in a sentence,” where the desired output is a function of the entire argument sentence taken as a whole. We can do this with a procedure named accumulate. Accumulate takes a procedure and a sentence as its arguments. It applies that procedure to two of the words of the sentence. Then it applies the procedure to the result we got back and another element of the sentence, and so on. It ends when it’s combined all the words of the sentence into a single result.

> (accumulate + '(6 3 4 -5 7 8 9))
32

> (accumulate word '(a c l u))
ACLU

> (accumulate max '(128 32 134 136))
136

> (define (hyphenate word1 word2)
   (word word1 ‘- word2))

> (accumulate hyphenate '(ob la di ob la da))
OB-LA-DI-OB-LA-DA

(In all of our examples in this section, the second argument contains at least two elements. In the “pitfalls” section at the end of the chapter, we’ll discuss what happens with smaller arguments.)
Accumulate can also take a word as its second argument, using the letters as elements:

> (accumulate + 781)
16

> (accumulate sentence ’colin)
(C O L I N)

Combining Higher-Order Functions

What if we want to add up all the numbers in a sentence but ignore the words that aren’t numbers? First we keep the numbers in the sentence, then we accumulate the result with +. It’s easier to say in Scheme:

(define (add-numbers sent)
  (accumulate + (keep number? sent)))

> (add-numbers ’(4 calling birds 3 french hens 2 turtle doves))
9

> (add-numbers ’(1 for the money 2 for the show 3 to get ready
  and 4 to go))
10

We also have enough tools to write a version of the count procedure, which finds the number of words in a sentence or the number of letters in a word. First, we’ll define a procedure always-one that returns 1 no matter what its argument is. We’ll every always-one over our argument sentence,\(^*\) which will result in a sentence of as many ones as there were words in the original sentence. Then we can use accumulate with + to add up the ones. This is a slightly roundabout approach; later we’ll see a more natural way to find the count of a sentence.

(define (always-one arg)
  1)

\(^*\) We mean, of course, “We’ll invoke every with the procedure always-one and our argument sentence as its two arguments.” After you’ve been programming computers for a while, this sort of abuse of English will come naturally to you.
Choosing the Right Tool

So far you’ve seen three higher-order functions: every, keep, and accumulate. How do you decide which one to use for a particular problem?

Every transforms each element of a word or sentence individually. The result sentence usually contains as many elements as the argument.*

* What we mean by “usually” is that every is most often used with an argument function that returns a single word. If the function returns a sentence whose length might not be one, then the number of words in the overall result could be anything!
**Keep** selects certain elements of a word or sentence and discards the others. The elements of the result are elements of the argument, without transformation, but the result may be smaller than the original.

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
  & & & & & \\
  & & & & & \\
  & & & & & \\
  & & & & & \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
  & & & & & \\
  & & & & & \\
  & & & & & \\
  & & & & & \\
\end{array}
\]

**Accumulate** transforms the entire word or sentence into a single result by combining all of the elements in some way.

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
  & & & & & \\
  & & & & & \\
  & & & & & \\
  & & & & & \\
\end{array}
\]

These three pictures represent graphically the differences in the meanings of *every*, *keep*, and *accumulate*. In the pictures, we’re applying these higher-order procedures to sentences, but don’t forget that we could have drawn similar pictures in which the higher-order procedures process the letters of a word.

Here’s another way to compare these three higher-order functions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>function</th>
<th>purpose</th>
<th>first argument is a ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>every</td>
<td>transform</td>
<td>one-argument transforming function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keep</td>
<td>select</td>
<td>one-argument predicate function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accumulate</td>
<td>combine</td>
<td>two-argument combining function</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To help you understand these differences, we'll look at specific examples using each of them, with each example followed by an equivalent computation done without the higher-order procedure. Here is an example for every:

> (every double 'girl)
(GG II RR LL)

> (se (double 'g)
  (double 'i)
  (double 'r)
  (double 'l))
(GG II RR LL)

You can, if you like, think of the first of these expressions as abbreviating the second.

An expression using keep can also be replaced with an expression that performs the same computation without using keep. This time it's a little messier:

> (keep even? '(1 2 3 4 5))
(2 4)

> (se (if (even? 1) 1 '())
  (if (even? 2) 2 '())
  (if (even? 3) 3 '())
  (if (even? 4) 4 '())
  (if (even? 5) 5 '()))
(2 4)

Here's how an accumulate can be expressed the long way:

> (accumulate word '(a c l u))
ACLU

> (word 'a (word 'c (word 'l 'u)))
ACLU

(Of course word will accept any number of arguments, so we could have computed the same result with all four letters as arguments to the same invocation. But the version we've shown here indicates how accumulate actually works; it combines the elements one by one.)
First-Class Functions and First-Class Sentences

If Scheme (or any dialect of Lisp) is your first programming language, having procedures that operate on entire sentences at once may not seem like a big deal. But if you used to program in some lesser language, you’re probably accustomed to writing something like first-letters as a loop in which you have some variable named \( I \) and you carry out some sequence of steps for \( I=1, I=2, \) and so on, until you get to \( N \), the number of elements. The use of higher-order functions allows us to express this problem all at once, rather than as a sequence of events. Once you’re accustomed to the Lisp way of thinking, you can tell yourself “just take every first of the sentence,” and that feels like a single step, not a complicated task.

Two aspects of Scheme combine to permit this mode of expression. One, which we’ve mentioned earlier, is that sentences are first-class data. You can use an entire sentence as an argument to a procedure. You can type a quoted sentence in, or you can compute a sentence by putting words together.

The second point is that functions are also first-class. This lets us write a procedure like pigl that applies to a single word, and then combine that with every to translate an entire sentence to Pig Latin. If Scheme didn’t have first-class functions, we couldn’t have general-purpose tools like keep and every, because we couldn’t say which function to extend to all of a sentence. You’ll see later that without every it would still be possible to write a specific pigl-sent procedure and separately write a first-letters procedure. But the ability to use a procedure as argument to another procedure lets us generalize the idea of “apply this function to every word of the sentence.”

Repeated

All the higher-order functions you’ve seen so far take functions as arguments, but none of them have functions as return values. That is, we have machines that can take machines in their input hoppers, but now we’d like to think about machines that drop other machines out of their output chutes—machine factories, so to speak.

In the following example, the procedure repeated returns a procedure:

\[
\begin{align*}
&> ((\text{repeated bf} \ 3) \ '(\text{she came in through the bathroom window})) \\
&\text{(THROUGH THE BATHROOM WINDOW)} \\
&> ((\text{repeated plural} \ 4) \ '\text{computer}) \\
&\text{COMPUTERSSSSS}
\end{align*}
\]
The procedure `repeated` takes two arguments, a procedure and a number, and returns a new procedure. The returned procedure is one that invokes the original procedure repeatedly. For example, `(repeated bf 3)` returns a function that takes the butfirst of the butfirst of the butfirst of its argument.

Notice that all our examples start with two open parentheses. If we just invoked `repeated` at the Scheme prompt, we would get back a procedure, like this:

```
> (repeated square 4)
#<PROCEDURE>
```

The procedure that we get back isn’t very interesting by itself, so we invoke it, like this:

```
> ((repeated square 4) 2)
65536
```

To understand this expression, you must think carefully about its two subexpressions. Two subexpressions? Because there are two open parentheses next to each other, it would be easy to ignore one of them and therefore think of the expression as having four atomic subexpressions. But in fact it has only two. The first subexpression, `(repeated square 4)`, has a procedure as its value. The second subexpression, 2, has a number as its value. The value of the entire expression comes from applying the procedure to the number.

All along we’ve been saying that you evaluate a compound expression in two steps: First, you evaluate all the subexpressions. Then you apply the first value, which has to be a procedure, to the rest of the values. But until now the first subexpression has always been just a single word, the name of a procedure. Now we see that the first expression might be an invocation of a higher-order function, just as any of the argument subexpressions might be function invocations.

We can use `repeated` to define `item`, which returns a particular element of a sentence:
(define (item n sent)
  (first ((repeated bf (- n 1)) sent)))

> (item 1 '(a day in the life))
A

> (item 4 '(a day in the life))
THE

---

**Pitfalls**

⇒ Some people seem to fall in love with `every` and try to use it in all problems, even when `keep` or `accumulate` would be more appropriate.

⇒ If you find yourself using a predicate function as the first argument to `every`, you almost certainly mean to use `keep` instead. For example, we want to write a procedure that determines whether any of the words in its argument sentence are numbers:

```scheme
(define (any-numbers? sent) ;; wrong!
  (accumulate or (every number? sent)))
```

This is wrong for two reasons. First, since Boolean values aren’t words, they can’t be members of sentences:

> (sentence #T #F)
ERROR: ARGUMENT TO SENTENCE NOT A WORD OR SENTENCE: #F

> (every number? '(a b 2 c 6))
ERROR: ARGUMENT TO SENTENCE NOT A WORD OR SENTENCE: #T

Second, even if you could have a sentence of Booleans, Scheme doesn’t allow a special form, such as `or`, as the argument to a higher-order function.\* Depending on your version of Scheme, the incorrect `any-numbers?` procedure might give an error message about either of these two problems.

Instead of using `every`, select the numbers from the argument and count them:

```scheme
(define (any-numbers? sent)
  (not (empty? (keep number? sent))))
```

---

\* As we said in Chapter 4, special forms aren’t procedures, and aren’t first-class.

---

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The `keep` function always returns a result of the same type (i.e., word or sentence) as its second argument. This makes sense because if you’re selecting a subset of the words of a sentence, you want to end up with a sentence; but if you’re selecting a subset of the letters of a word, you want a word. `Every`, on the other hand, always returns a sentence. You might think that it would make more sense for `every` to return a word when its second argument is a word. Sometimes that is what you want, but sometimes not. For example:

```
(define (spell-digit digit)
  (item (+ 1 digit)
    '(zero one two three four five six seven eight nine)))

> (every spell-digit 1971)
(ONE NINE SEVEN ONE)
```

In the cases where you do want a word, you can just accumulate word the sentence that `every` returns.

Remember that `every` expects its first argument to be a function of just one argument. If you invoke `every` with a function such as `quotient`, which expects two arguments, you will get an error message from `quotient`, complaining that it only got one argument and wanted to get two.

Some people try to get around this by saying things like

```
(every (quotient 6) '(1 2 3)) ;; wrong!
```

This is a sort of wishful thinking. The intent is that Scheme should interpret the first argument to `every` as a fill-in-the-blank template, so that `every` will compute the values of

```
(quotient 6 1)
(quotient 6 2)
(quotient 6 3)
```

But of course what Scheme really does is the same thing it always does: It evaluates the argument expressions, then invokes `every`. So Scheme will try to compute `(quotient 6)` and will give an error message.

We picked `quotient` for this example because it requires exactly two arguments. Many Scheme primitives that ordinarily take two arguments, however, will accept only one. Attempting the same wishful thinking with one of these procedures is still wrong,
but the error message is different. For example, suppose you try to add 3 to each of several numbers this way:

\[ (\text{every} \ (+\ 3) \ '(1\ 2\ 3)) \quad ;; \text{wrong!} \]

The first argument to `every` in this case isn’t “the procedure that adds 3,” but the result returned by invoking `+` with the single argument 3. `(+ 3)` returns the number 3, which isn’t a procedure. So you will get an error message like “Attempt to apply non-procedure 3.”

The idea behind this mistake—looking for a way to “specialize” a two-argument procedure by supplying one of the arguments in advance—is actually a good one. In the next chapter we’ll introduce a new mechanism that does allow such specialization.

⇒ If the procedure you use as the argument to `every` returns an empty sentence, then you may be surprised by the results:

\[
(\text{define} \ (\text{beatle-number} \ n) \n  (\text{if} \ (\text{or} \ (<\ n\ 1) \ (>\ n\ 4)) \n       '() \n       (\text{item} \ n \ '(\text{john} \ \text{paul} \ \text{george} \ \text{ringo})))))
\]

\[
> \ (\text{beatle-number} \ 3) \n\quad \text{GEORGE}
\]

\[
> \ (\text{beatle-number} \ 5) \n\quad ()
\]

\[
> \ (\text{every} \ \text{beatle-number} \ '(2\ 8\ 4\ 0\ 1)) \n\quad \text{(PAUL RINGO JOHN)}
\]

What happened to the 8 and the 0? Pretend that `every` didn’t exist, and you had to do it the hard way:

\[
(\text{se} \ (\text{beatle-number} \ 2) \ (\text{beatle-number} \ 8) \ (\text{beatle-number} \ 4) \n  (\text{beatle-number} \ 0) \ (\text{beatle-number} \ 1))
\]

Using result replacement, we would get

\[
(\text{se} \ 'paul' \ () \ 'ringo' \ () \ 'john')
\]

which is just `\text{PAUL RINGO JOHN}`.
On the other hand, if every’s argument procedure returns an empty word, it will appear in the result.

\[ \text{every bf '(i need you)} \]

\[ ("" EED OU) \]

The sentence returned by every has three words in it: the empty word, eed, and ou.

\[ \text{Don’t confuse} \]

\[ \text{(first '(one two three four))} \]

with

\[ \text{(every first '(one two three four))} \]

In the first case, we’re applying the procedure first to a sentence; in the second, we’re applying first four separate times, to each of the four words separately.

\[ \text{What happens if you use a one-word sentence or one-letter word as argument to accumulate? It returns that word or that letter, without even invoking the given procedure. This makes sense if you’re using something like + or max as the accumulator, but it’s disconcerting that} \]

\[ \text{(accumulate se '(one-word))} \]

returns the word one-word.

\[ \text{What happens if you give accumulate an empty sentence or word? Accumulate accepts empty arguments for some combiners, but not for others:} \]

\[ \text{(accumulate + '())} \]

0

\[ \text{(accumulate max '())} \]

ERROR: CAN’T ACCUMULATE EMPTY INPUT WITH THAT COMBINER

The combiners that can be used with an empty sentence or word are +, *, word, and sentence. Accumulate checks specifically for one of these combiners.

Why should these four procedures, and no others, be allowed to accumulate an empty sentence or word? The difference between these and other combiners is that you
can invoke them with no arguments, whereas `max`, for example, requires at least one number:

```
> (+)
0

> (max)
ERROR: NOT ENOUGH ARGUMENTS TO #<PROCEDURE>.
```

`accumulate` actually invokes the combiner with no arguments in order to find out what value to return for an empty sentence or word. We would have liked to implement `accumulate` so that any procedure that can be invoked with no arguments would be accepted as a combiner to accumulate the empty sentence or word. Unfortunately, Scheme does not provide a way for a program to ask, “How many arguments will this procedure accept?” The best we could do was to build a particular set of zero-argument-okay combiners into the definition of `accumulate`.

Don’t think that the returned value for an empty argument is always zero or empty.

```
> (accumulate * '())
1
```

The explanation for this behavior is that any function that works with no arguments returns its identity element in that case. What’s an identity element? The function `+` has the identity element 0 because `( + anything 0 )` returns the `anything`. Similarly, the empty word is the identity element for `word`. In general, a function’s identity element has the property that when you invoke the function with the identity element and something else as arguments, the return value is the something else. It’s a Scheme convention that a procedure with an identity element returns that element when invoked with no arguments.*

⇒ The use of two consecutive open parentheses to invoke the procedure returned by a procedure is a strange-looking notation:

```
((repeated bf 3) 987654)
```

---

* PC Scheme returns zero for an invocation of `max` with no arguments, but that’s the wrong answer. If anything, the answer would have to be $-\infty$. 

---

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Don’t confuse this with the similar-looking cond notation, in which the outer parentheses have a special meaning (delimiting a cond clause). Here, the parentheses have their usual meaning. The inner parentheses invoke the procedure repeated with arguments bf and 3. The value of that expression is a procedure. It doesn’t have a name, but for the purposes of this paragraph let’s pretend it’s called bfthree. Then the outer parentheses are basically saying (bfthree 987654); they apply the unnamed procedure to the argument 987654.

In other words, there are two sets of parentheses because there are two functions being invoked: repeated and the function returned by repeated. So don’t say

\[
\text{(repeated bf 3 987654)} \quad ;; \text{wrong}
\]

just because it looks more familiar. Repeated isn’t a function of three arguments.

---

**Boring Exercises**

8.1 What does Scheme return as the value of each of the following expressions? Figure it out for yourself before you try it on the computer.

\[
\begin{align*}
&> (\text{every last } '(\text{algebra purple spaghetti tomato gnu})) \\
&> (\text{keep number? } '(\text{one two three four})) \\
&> (\text{accumulate } * ' (6 7 13 0 9 42 17)) \\
&> (\text{member? } 'h (\text{keep vowel? } '(t h r o a t))) \\
&> (\text{every square (keep even? } '(87 4 7 12 0 5))) \\
&> (\text{accumulate word (keep vowel? (every first } '(\text{and i love her})))) \\
&> ((\text{repeated square 0}) 25) \\
&> (\text{every (repeated bl 2) } '(\text{good day sunshine}))
\end{align*}
\]

8.2 Fill in the blanks in the following Scheme interactions:

\[
> (\text{_________ vowel? } '\text{birthday})
\]

IA
8.3 Describe each of the following functions in English. Make sure to include a description of the domain and range of each function. Be as precise as possible; for example, “the argument must be a function of one numeric argument” is better than “the argument must be a function.”

(define (f a)
  (keep even? a))

(define (g b)
  (every b '(blue jay way)))

(define (h c d)
  (c (c d)))

(define (i e)
  (/ (accumulate + e) (count e)))

Chapter 8 Higher-Order Functions
(repeated even? 2)
(repeated first 2)
(repeated (repeated bf 3) 2)

**Real Exercises**

Note: Writing helper procedures may be useful in solving some of these problems. *If you read Part IV before this, do not use recursion in solving these problems; use higher order functions instead.*

8.4 Write a procedure `choose-beatles` that takes a predicate function as its argument and returns a sentence of just those Beatles (John, Paul, George, and Ringo) that satisfy the predicate. For example:

```scheme
(define (ends-vowel? wd) (vowel? (last wd)))
(define (even-count? wd) (even? (count wd)))
> (choose-beatles ends-vowel?)
(GEORGE RINGO)
> (choose-beatles even-count?)
(JOHN PAUL GEORGE)
```

8.5 Write a procedure `transform-beatles` that takes a procedure as an argument, applies it to each of the Beatles, and returns the results in a sentence:

```scheme
(define (amazify name)
  (word 'the-amazing- name))

> (transform-beatles amazify)
> (transform-beatles butfirst)
(OHN AUL EORGE INGO)
```
8.6 When you’re talking to someone over a noisy radio connection, you sometimes have to spell out a word in order to get the other person to understand it. But names of letters aren’t that easy to understand either, so there’s a standard code in which each letter is represented by a particular word that starts with the letter. For example, instead of “B” you say “bravo.”

Write a procedure \texttt{words} that takes a word as its argument and returns a sentence of the names of the letters in the word:

\begin{verbatim}
> (words 'cab)
(Charlie Alpha Bravo)
\end{verbatim}

(You may make up your own names for the letters or look up the standard ones if you want.)

Hint: Start by writing a helper procedure that figures out the name for a single letter.

8.7 [14.5]* Write a procedure \texttt{letter-count} that takes a sentence as its argument and returns the total number of letters in the sentence:

\begin{verbatim}
> (letter-count '(fixing a hole))
11
\end{verbatim}

8.8 [12.5] Write an \texttt{exaggerate} procedure which exaggerates sentences:

\begin{verbatim}
> (exaggerate '(i ate 3 potstickers))
(I ATE 6 POTSTICKERS)
> (exaggerate '(the chow fun is good here))
(THE CHOW FUN IS GREAT HERE)
\end{verbatim}

It should double all the numbers in the sentence, and it should replace “good” with “great,” “bad” with “terrible,” and anything else you can think of.

* Exercise 14.5 in Part IV asks you to solve this same problem using recursion. Here we are asking you to use higher-order functions. Whenever we pose the same problem in both parts, we’ll cross-reference them in brackets as we did here. When you see the problem for the second time, you might want to consult your first solution for ideas.
8.9 What procedure can you use as the first argument to **every** so that for any sentence used as the second argument, **every** returns that sentence?

What procedure can you use as the first argument to **keep** so that for any sentence used as the second argument, **keep** returns that sentence?

What procedure can you use as the first argument to **accumulate** so that for any sentence used as the second argument, **accumulate** returns that sentence?

8.10 Write a predicate **true-for-all?** that takes two arguments, a predicate procedure and a sentence. It should return **#t** if the predicate argument returns true for every word in the sentence.

```lisp
> (true-for-all? even? '(2 4 6 8))
#t
> (true-for-all? even? '(2 6 3 4))
#f
```

8.11 [12.6] Write a GPA procedure. It should take a sentence of grades as its argument and return the corresponding grade point average:

```lisp
> (gpa '(A A+ B+ B))
3.67
```

Hint: write a helper procedure **base-grade** that takes a grade as argument and returns 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4, and another helper procedure **grade-modifier** that returns -.33, 0, or .33, depending on whether the grade has a minus, a plus, or neither.

8.12 [11.2] When you teach a class, people will get distracted if you say “um” too many times. Write a **count-ums** that counts the number of times “um” appears in a sentence:

```lisp
> (count-ums
 ' (today um we are going to um talk about functional um programming))
3
```

8.13 [11.3] Write a procedure **phone-unspell** that takes a spelled version of a phone number, such as **POPCORN**, and returns the real phone number, in this case **7672676**.

You will need to write a helper procedure that uses an 8-way **cond** expression to translate a single letter into a digit.
8.14 Write the procedure `subword` that takes three arguments: a word, a starting position number, and an ending position number. It should return the subword containing only the letters between the specified positions:

```
> (subword 'polythene 5 8)
```

THEN