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### 3. LISTS

One of the most useful datatypes in Lisp is the list cell, a data structure that contains pointers to two other objects, called the CAR and the CDR of the list cell. You can build very complicated structures out of list cells, including lattices and trees, but most often they're used to represent simple linear lists of objects.

The following functions are used to manipulate individual list cells:

**(CONS X Y)** [Function]

CONS is the primary list construction function. It creates and returns a new list cell containing pointers to X and Y. If Y is a list, this returns a list with X added at the beginning of Y.

**(LISTP X)** [Function]

Returns X if X is a list cell, e.g., something created by CONS; NIL otherwise.

(LISTP NIL) = NIL

**(NLISTP X)** [Function]

The same as (NOT (LISTP X)). Returns T if X is not a list cell, NIL otherwise. However, (NLISTP NIL) = T

**(CAR X)** [Function]

Returns the first element of the list X. CAR of NIL is always NIL. For all other nonlists (e.g., symbols, numbers, etc.), the value returned is controlled by CAR/CDRERR (below).

**(CDR X)** [Function]

Returns all but the first element of the list X. CDR of NIL is always NIL. The value of CDR for other nonlists is controlled by CAR/CDRERR (below).

**CAR/CDRERR** [Variable]

The variable CAR/CDRERR controls the behavior of CAR and CDR when they are passed non-lists (other than NIL).

If CAR/CDRERR = NIL (the current default), then CAR or CDR of a non-list (other than NIL) return the string "{car of non-list}" or "{cdr of non-list}". If CAR/CDRERR = T, then CAR and CDR of a non-list (other than NIL) causes an error.

If CAR/CDRERR = ONCE, then CAR or CDR of a string causes an error, but CAR or CDR of anything else returns the string "{car of non-list}" or "{cdr of non-list}" as above. This catches loops which repeatedly take CAR or CDR of an object, but it allows one-time errors to pass undetected.

## INTERLISP-D REFERENCE MANUAL

If `CAR/CDRERR = CDR`, then `CAR` of a non-list returns "{car of non-list}" as above, but `CDR` of a non-list causes an error. This setting is based on the observation that nearly all infinite loops involving non-lists occur from taking `CDRs`, but a fair amount of careless code takes `CAR` of something it has not tested to be a list.

**(CAAR X) (CADR X) (CDDR X) etc.** [Function]

Often, combinations of `CAR` and `CDR` are used to extract parts of complex list structures. Functions of the form `C...R` may be used for some of these combinations:

```
(CAAR X) ==> (CAR (CAR X))
(CADR X) ==> (CAR (CDR X))
(CDDDDR X) ==> (CDR (CDR (CDR (CDR X))))
```

All 30 combinations of nested `CARs` and `CDRs` up to 4 deep are included in the system.

**(RPLACD X Y)** [Function]

Replaces the `CDR` of the list cell `X` with `Y`. This physically changes the internal structure of `X`, as opposed to `CONS`, which creates a new list cell. You can make a circular list by using `RPLACD` to place a pointer to the beginning of a list at the end of the list.

The value of `RPLACD` is `X`. An attempt to `RPLACD NIL` will cause an error, `Attempt to RPLACD NIL` (except for `(RPLACD NIL NIL)`). An attempt to `RPLACD` any other non-list will cause an error, `Arg not list`.

**(RPLACA X Y)** [Function]

Like `RPLACD`, but replaces the `CAR` of `X` with `Y`. The value of `RPLACA` is `X`. An attempt to `RPLACA NIL` will cause an error, `Attempt to RPLACA NIL`, (except for `(RPLACA NIL NIL)`). An attempt to `RPLACA` any other non-list will cause an error, `Arg not list`.

**(RPLNODE X A D)** [Function]

Performs `(RPLACA X A)`, `(RPLACD X D)`, and returns `X`.

**(RPLNODE2 X Y)** [Function]

Performs `(RPLACA X (CAR Y))`, `(RPLACD X (CDR Y))` and returns `X`.

**(FRPLACD X Y)** [Function]

**(FRPLACA X Y)** [Function]

**(FRPLNODE X A D)** [Function]

**(FRPLNODE2 X Y)** [Function]

Faster versions of `RPLACD`, etc.

Usually, you don't use list cells alone, but in structures called "lists". A list is represented by a list cell whose `CAR` is the first element of the list, and whose `CDR` is the rest of the list. That's normally another list cell (with another element of the list) or the "empty list," `NIL`, marking the list's end. List elements may be any Lisp objects, including other lists.

You type in a list as a sequence of Lisp data objects (symbols, numbers, other lists, etc.) enclosed in parentheses or brackets. Note that `()` is read as the symbol `NIL`.

## LISTS

Sometimes, you won't want your list to end in `NIL`, but just with the final element. To indicate that, type a period (with spaces on both sides) in front of the final element. This makes `CDR` of the list's final cell be the element immediately following the period, e.g. `(A . B)` or `(A B C . D)`. Note that a list needn't end in `NIL`. It is simply a structure composed of one or more list cells. The input sequence `(A B C . NIL)` is equivalent to `(A B C)`, and `(A B . (C D))` is equivalent to `(A B C D)`. Note, however, that `(A B . C D)` will create a list containing the five symbols `A`, `B`, `%`, `C`, and `D`.

Lists are printed by printing a left parenthesis, and then printing the first element of the list, a space, the second element, etc., until the final list cell is reached. The individual elements of a list are printed by `PRIN1`, if the list is being printed by `PRIN1`, and by `PRIN2` if the list is being printed by `PRINT` or `PRIN2`. Lists are considered to terminate when `CDR` of some node is not a list. If `CDR` of this terminal node is `NIL` (the usual case), `CAR` of the last node is printed followed by a right parenthesis. If `CDR` of the terminal node is *not* `NIL`, `CAR` of the last node is printed, followed by a space, a period, another space, `CDR` of the last node, and the right parenthesis. A list input as `(A B C . NIL)` will print as `(A B C)`, and a list input as `(A B . (C D))` will print as `(A B C D)`. `PRINTLEVEL` affects the printing of lists (see the `PRINTLEVEL` section of Chapter 25), and that carriage returns may be inserted where dictated by `LINELENGTH` (see the `Output Functions` section of Chapter 25).

Note: Be careful when testing the equality of list structures. `EQ` will be true only when the two lists are the *exact* same list. For example,

```
← (SETQ A '(1 2))
(1 2)
← (SETQ B A)
(1 2)
← (EQ A B)
T
← (SETQ C '(1 2))
(1 2)
← (EQ A C)
NIL
← (EQUAL A C)
T
```

In the example above, the values of `A` and `B` are the exact same list, so they are `EQ`. However, the value of `C` is a totally different list, although it happens to have the same elements. `EQUAL` should be used to compare the elements of two lists. In general, one should notice whether list manipulation functions use `EQ` or `EQUAL` for comparing lists. This is a frequent source of errors.

### Creating Lists

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**(LIST**  $X_1$   $X_2$  ...  $X_N$ )

[NoSpread Function]

Returns a list of its arguments, e.g.

```
(LIST 'A 'B '(C D)) => (A B (C D))
```

**(LIST\***  $X_1$   $X_2$  ...  $X_N$ )

[NoSpread Function]

Returns a list of its arguments, using the last argument for the tail of the list. This is like an iterated `CONS`: `(LIST* A B C) == (CONS A (CONS B C))`. For example,

```
(LIST* 'A 'B 'C) => (A B . C)
```

## INTERLISP-D REFERENCE MANUAL

```
(LIST* 'A 'B '(C D)) => (A B C D)
```

**(APPEND  $X_1 X_2 \dots X_N$ )** [NoSpread Function]

Copies the top level of the list  $X_1$  and appends this to a copy of the top level of the list  $X_2$  appended to  $\dots$  appended to  $X_N$ , e.g.,

```
(APPEND '(A B) '(C D E) '(F G)) => (A B C D E F G)
```

Only the first  $N-1$  lists are copied. However  $N = 1$  is treated specially; (APPEND  $X$ ) copies the top level of a single list. To copy a list to all levels, use COPY.

The following examples illustrate the treatment of non-lists:

```
(APPEND '(A B C) 'D) => (A B C . D)
(APPEND 'A '(B C D)) => (B C D)
(APPEND '(A B C . D) '(E F G)) => (A B C E F G)
(APPEND '(A B C . D)) => (A B C . D)
```

**(NCONC  $X_1 X_2 \dots X_N$ )** [NoSpread Function]

Returns the same value as APPEND, but modifies the list structure of  $X_1 \dots X_{N-1}$ .

NCONC cannot change NIL to a list:

```
←(SETQ FOO NIL)
NIL
←(NCONC FOO '(A B C))
(A B C)
←FOO
NIL
```

Although the value of the NCONC is (A B C), FOO has *not* been changed. The “problem” is that while it is possible to alter list structure with RPLACA and RPLACD, there is no way to change the non-list NIL to a list.

**(NCONC1  $LST X$ )** [Function]

Adds  $X$  to the end of  $LST$ : (NCONC  $LST (LIST X)$ )

**(ATTACH  $X L$ )** [Function]

“Attaches”  $X$  to the front of  $L$  by doing a RPLACA and RPLACD. The value is EQUAL to (CONS  $X L$ ), but EQ to  $L$ , which it physically changes (except if  $L$  is NIL). (ATTACH  $X NIL$ ) is the same as (CONS  $X NIL$ ). Otherwise, if  $L$  is not a list, an error is generated, Arg not list.

**(MKLIST  $X$ )** [Function]

“Make List.” If  $X$  is a list or NIL, returns  $X$ ; Otherwise, returns (LIST  $X$ ).

## Building Lists From Left to Right

---

(**TCONC** *PTR* *X*)

[Function]

TCONC is similar to NCONC1; it is useful for building a list by adding elements one at a time at the end. Unlike NCONC1, TCONC does not have to search to the end of the list each time it is called. Instead, it keeps a pointer to the end of the list being assembled, and updates this pointer after each call. This can be considerably faster for long lists. The cost is an extra list cell, *PTR*. (CAR *PTR*) is the list being assembled, (CDR *PTR*) is (LAST (CAR *PTR*)). TCONC returns *PTR*, with its CAR and CDR appropriately modified.

*PTR* can be initialized in two ways. If *PTR* is NIL, TCONC will create and return a *PTR*. In this case, the program must set some variable to the value of the first call to TCONC. After that, it is unnecessary to reset the variable, since TCONC physically changes its value. Example:

```
←(SETQ FOO (TCONC NIL 1))
  ((1) 1)
←(for I from 2 to 5 do (TCONC FOO I))
  NIL
←FOO
  ((1 2 3 4 5) 5)
```

If *PTR* is initially (NIL), the value of TCONC is the same as for *PTR* = NIL, but TCONC changes *PTR*. This method allows the program to initialize the TCONC variable before adding any elements to the list. Example:

```
←(SETQ FOO (CONS))
  (NIL)
←(for I from 1 to 5 do (TCONC FOO I))
  NIL
←FOO
  ((1 2 3 4 5) 5)
```

(**LCONC** *PTR* *X*)

[Function]

Where TCONC is used to add *elements* at the end of a list, LCONC is used for building a list by adding *lists* at the end, i.e., it is similar to NCONC instead of NCONC1. Example:

```
←(SETQ FOO (CONS))
  (NIL)
←(LCONC FOO '(1 2))
  ((1 2) 2)
←(LCONC FOO '(3 4 5))
  ((1 2 3 4 5) 5)
←(LCONC FOO NIL)
  ((1 2 3 4 5) 5)
```

LCONC uses the same pointer conventions as TCONC for eliminating searching to the end of the list, so that the same pointer can be given to TCONC and LCONC interchangeably. Therefore, continuing from above,

```
←(TCONC FOO NIL)
  ((1 2 3 4 5 NIL) NIL)
```

## INTERLISP-D REFERENCE MANUAL

```
← (TCONC FOO ' (3 4 5))
  ((1 2 3 4 5 NIL (3 4 5)) (3 4 5))
```

The functions `DOCOLLECT` and `ENDCOLLECT` also let you build lists from left-to-right like `TCONC`, but without the overhead of an extra list cell. The list is kept as a circular list. `DOCOLLECT` adds items; `ENDCOLLECT` replaces the tail with its second argument, and returns the full list.

**(DOCOLLECT ITEM LST)** [Function]

“Adds” *ITEM* to the end of *LST*. Returns the new circular list. Note that *LST* is modified, but it is not `EQ` to the new list. The new list should be stored and used as *LST* to the next call to `DOCOLLECT`.

**(ENDCOLLECT LST TAIL)** [Function]

Takes *LST*, a list returned by `DOCOLLECT`, and returns it as a non-circular list, adding *TAIL* as the terminating `CDR`.

Here is an example using `DOCOLLECT` and `ENDCOLLECT`. `HPRINT` is used to print the results because they are circular lists. Notice that `FOO` has to be set to the value of `DOCOLLECT` as each element is added.

```
← (SETQ FOO NIL)
NIL
← (HPRINT (SETQ FOO (DOCOLLECT 1 FOO))
  ↑ (1 . {1})
← (HPRINT (SETQ FOO (DOCOLLECT 2 FOO))
  ↑ (2 1 . {1})
← (HPRINT (SETQ FOO (DOCOLLECT 3 FOO))
  ↑ (3 1 2 . {1})
← (HPRINT (SETQ FOO (DOCOLLECT 4 FOO))
  ↑ (4 1 2 3 . {1})
← (SETQ FOO (ENDCOLLECT FOO 5))
  (1 2 3 4 . 5)
```

The following two functions are useful when writing programs that reuse a scratch list to collect together some result(s) (both of these compile open):

**(SCRATCHLIST LST X<sub>1</sub> X<sub>2</sub> . . . X<sub>N</sub>)** [NLambda NoSpread Function]

`SCRATCHLIST` sets up a context in which the value of *LST* is used as a “scratch” list. The expressions *X<sub>1</sub>*, *X<sub>2</sub>*, . . . *X<sub>N</sub>* are evaluated in turn. During the course of evaluation, any value passed to `ADDTOSCRATCHLIST` will be saved, reusing `CONS` cells from the value of *LST*. If the value of *LST* is not long enough, new `CONS` cells will be added onto its end. If the value of *LST* is `NIL`, the entire value of `SCRATCHLIST` will be “new” (i.e., no `CONS` cells will be reused).

**(ADDTOSCRATCHLIST VALUE)** [Function]

For use under calls to `SCRATCHLIST`. *VALUE* is added on to the end of the list of things being collected by `SCRATCHLIST`. When `SCRATCHLIST` returns, its value is a list containing all of the things added by `ADDTOSCRATCHLIST`.

## Copying Lists

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**(COPY X)** [Function]

Creates and returns a copy of the list *X*. All levels of *X* are copied down to non-lists, so that if *X* contains arrays and strings, the copy of *X* will contain the same arrays and strings, not copies. **COPY** is recursive in the **CAR** direction only, so very long lists can be copied.

To copy just the *top level* of *X*, do **(APPEND X)**.

**(COPYALL X)** [Function]

Like **COPY**, but it copies down to atoms. Arrays, hash-arrays, strings, user data types, etc., are all copied. Analogous to **EQUALALL** (see the Equality Predicates section of Chapter 9). This will not work if given a data structure with circular pointers; in this case, use **HCOPYALL**.

**(HCOPYALL X)** [Function]

Like **COPYALL**, but it will work even if the data structure contains circular pointers.

## Extracting Tails of Lists

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**(NTH X N)** [Function]

Returns the tail of *X* beginning with the *N*th element. Returns **NIL** if *X* has fewer than *N* elements. This is different from Common Lisp's **NTH**. Examples:

```
(NTH ' (A B C D) 1) => (A B C D)
(NTH ' (A B C D) 3) => (C D)
(NTH ' (A B C D) 9) => NIL
(NTH ' (A . B) 2) => B
```

For consistency, if *N* = 0, **NTH** returns **(CONS NIL X)**:

```
(NTH ' (A B) 0) => (NIL A B)
```

**(FNTH X N)** [Function]

Faster version of **NTH** that terminates on a null-check.

**(LAST X)** [Function]

Returns the last list cell in the list *X*. Returns **NIL** if *X* is not a list. Examples:

```
(LAST ' (A B C)) => (C)
(LAST ' (A B . C)) => (B . C)
(LAST ' A) => NIL
```

**(FLAST X)** [Function]

Faster version of **LAST** that terminates on a null-check.

**(NLEFT L N TAIL)** [Function]

**NLEFT** returns the tail of *L* that contains *N* more elements than *TAIL*. If *L* does not contain *N* more elements than *TAIL*, **NLEFT** returns **NIL**. If *TAIL* is **NIL** or not a tail of *L*, **NLEFT**

## INTERLISP-D REFERENCE MANUAL

returns the last  $N$  list cells in  $L$ . `NLEFT` can be used to work backwards through a list.

Example:

```
← (SETQ FOO ' (A B C D E))
      (A B C D E)
← (NLEFT FOO 2)
      (D E)
← (NLEFT FOO 1 (CDDR FOO))
      (B C D E)
← (NLEFT FOO 3 (CDDR FOO))
      NIL
```

(**LASTN**  $L$   $N$ ) [Function]

Returns (CONS  $X$   $Y$ ), where  $Y$  is the last  $N$  elements of  $L$ , and  $X$  is the initial segment, e.g.,

```
(LASTN ' (A B C D E) 2) => ((A B C) D E)
(LASTN ' (A B) 2) => (NIL A B)
```

Returns NIL if  $L$  is not a list containing at least  $N$  elements.

(**TAILP**  $X$   $Y$ ) [Function]

Returns  $X$ , if  $X$  is a *tail* of the list  $Y$ ; otherwise NIL.  $X$  is a tail of  $Y$  if it is EQ to 0 or more CDRs of  $Y$ .

Note: If  $X$  is EQ to 1 or more CDRs of  $Y$ ,  $X$  is called a “proper tail.”

### Counting List Cells

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(**LENGTH**  $X$ ) [Function]

Returns the length of the list  $X$ , where “length” is defined as the number of CDRs required to reach a non-list. Examples:

```
(LENGTH ' (A B C)) => 3
(LENGTH ' (A B C . D)) => 3
(LENGTH ' A) => 0
```

(**FLENGTH**  $X$ ) [Function]

Faster version of LENGTH that terminates on a null-check.

(**EQLLENGTH**  $X$   $N$ ) [Function]

Equivalent to (EQUAL (LENGTH  $X$ )  $N$ ), but more efficient, because EQLLENGTH stops as soon as it knows that  $X$  is longer than  $N$ . EQLLENGTH is safe to use on (possibly) circular lists, since it is “bounded” by  $N$ .

(**COUNT**  $X$ ) [Function]

Returns the number of list cells in the list  $X$ . Thus, COUNT is like a LENGTH that goes to all levels. COUNT of a non-list is 0. Examples:

```
(COUNT ' (A)) => 1
(COUNT ' (A . B)) => 1
(COUNT ' (A (B) C)) => 4
```



## LISTS

In this last example, the value is 4 because the list (A X C) uses three list cells for any object X, and (B) uses another list cell.

**(COUNTDOWN X N)** [Function]

Counts the number of list cells in X, decrementing N for each one. Stops and returns N when it finishes counting, or when N reaches 0. COUNTDOWN can be used on circular structures since it is “bounded” by N. Examples:

```
(COUNTDOWN ' (A) 100) => 99
(COUNTDOWN ' (A . B) 100) => 99
(COUNTDOWN ' (A (B) C) 100) => 96
(COUNTDOWN (DOCOLLECT 1 NIL) 100) => 0
```

**(EQUALN X Y DEPTH)** [Function]

Like EQUAL, for use with (possibly) circular structures. Whenever the depth of CAR recursion plus the depth of CDR recursion exceeds DEPTH, EQUALN does not search further along that chain, and returns the symbol ?. If recursion never exceeds DEPTH, EQUALN returns T if the expressions X and Y are EQUAL; otherwise NIL.

```
(EQUALN ' ((A) B) ' ((Z) B) 2) => ?
(EQUALN ' ((A) B) ' ((Z) B) 3) => NIL
(EQUALN ' ((A) B) ' ((A) B) 3) => T
```

## Set Operations

---

**(INTERSECTION X Y)** [Function]

Returns a list whose elements are members of both lists X and Y (using EQUAL to do compares).

Note that (INTERSECTION X X) gives a list of all members of X without duplicates.

**(UNION X Y)** [Function]

Returns a (new) list consisting of all elements included on either of the two original lists (using EQUAL to compare elements). It is more efficient for X to be the shorter list.

The value of UNION is Y with all elements of X not in Y CONSED on the front of it. Therefore, if an element appears twice in Y, it will appear twice in (UNION X Y). Since (UNION ' (A) ' (A A)) = (A A), while (UNION ' (A A) ' (A)) = (A), UNION is non-commutative.

**(LDIFFERENCE X Y)** [Function]

“List Difference.” Returns a list of the elements in X that are not members of Y (using EQUAL to compare elements).

Note: If X and Y share no elements, LDIFFERENCE returns a copy of X.

**(LDIFF LST TAIL ADD)** [Function]

TAIL must be a tail of LST, i.e., EQ to the result of applying some number of CDRs to LST. (LDIFF LST TAIL) returns a list of all elements in LST up to TAIL.

## INTERLISP-D REFERENCE MANUAL

If *ADD* is not *NIL*, the value of *LDIFF* is effectively *(NCONC ADD (LDIFF LST TAIL))*, i.e., the list difference is added at the end of *ADD*.

If *TAIL* is not a tail of *LST*, *LDIFF* generates an error, *LDIFF: not a tail*. *LDIFF* terminates on a null-check, so it will go into an infinite loop if *LST* is a circular list and *TAIL* is not a tail.

Example:

```
← (SETQ FOO ' (A B C D E F))
  (A B C D E F)
← (CDDR FOO)
  (C D E F)
← (LDIFF FOO (CDDR FOO))
  (A B)
← (LDIFF FOO (CDDR FOO) ' (1 2))
  (1 2 A B)
← (LDIFF FOO ' (C D E F))
  LDIFF: not a tail
  (C D E F)
```

Note that the value of *LDIFF* is always new list structure unless *TAIL* = *NIL*, in which case the value is *LST* itself.

### Searching Lists

---

**(MEMB *X Y*)** [Function]

Determines if *X* is a member of the list *Y*. If there is an element of *Y* EQ to *X*, returns the tail of *Y* starting with that element. Otherwise, returns *NIL*. Examples:

```
(MEMB 'A ' (A (W) C D)) => (A (W) C D)
(MEMB 'C ' (A (W) C D)) => (C D)
(MEMB 'W ' (A (W) C D)) => NIL
(MEMB ' (W) ' (A (W) C D)) => NIL
```

**(FMEMB *X Y*)** [Function]

Faster version of *MEMB* that terminates on a null-check.

**(MEMBER *X Y*)** [Function]

Identical to *MEMB* except that it uses *EQUAL* instead of *EQ* to check membership of *X* in *Y*. Examples:

```
(MEMBER 'C ' (A (W) C D)) => (C D)
(MEMBER 'W ' (A (W) C D)) => NIL
(MEMBER ' (W) ' (A (W) C D)) => ((W) C D)
```

**(EQMEMB *X Y*)** [Function]

Returns *T* if either *X* is EQ to *Y*, or else *Y* is a list and *X* is an *FMEMB* of *Y*.

## Substitution Functions

---

**(SUBST NEW OLD EXPR)** [Function]

Returns the result of substituting *NEW* for all occurrences of *OLD* in the expression *EXPR*. Substitution occurs whenever *OLD* is EQUAL to CAR of some subexpression of *EXPR*, or when *OLD* is atomic and EQ to a non-NIL CDR of some subexpression of *EXPR*. For example:

```
(SUBST 'A 'B '(C B (X . B))) => (C A (X . A))
(SUBST 'A '(B C) '((B C) D B C)) => (A D B C) not (A D . A)
```

SUBST returns a copy of *EXPR* with the appropriate changes. Furthermore, if *NEW* is a list, it is copied at each substitution.

**(DSUBST NEW OLD EXPR)** [Function]

Like SUBST, but it does not copy *EXPR*, but changes the list structure *EXPR* itself. Like SUBST, DSUBST substitutes with a copy of *NEW*. More efficient than SUBST.

**(LSUBST NEW OLD EXPR)** [Function]

Like SUBST, but *NEW* is substituted as a segment of the list *EXPR* rather than as an element. For instance,

```
(LSUBST '(A B) 'Y '(X Y Z)) => (X A B Z)
```

If *NEW* is not a list, LSUBST returns a copy of *EXPR* with all *OLD*'s deleted:

```
(LSUBST NIL 'Y '(X Y Z)) => (X Z)
```

**(SUBLIS ALST EXPR FLG)** [Function]

*ALST* is a list of pairs:

```
((OLD1 . NEW1) (OLD2 . NEW2) ... (OLDN . NEWN))
```

Each *OLD<sub>i</sub>* is an atom. SUBLIS returns the result of substituting each *NEW<sub>i</sub>* for the corresponding *OLD<sub>i</sub>* in *EXPR*, e.g.,

```
(SUBLIS '((A . X) (C . Y)) '(A B C D)) => (X B Y D)
```

If *FLG* = NIL, new structure is created only if needed, so if there are no substitutions, the value is EQ to *EXPR*. If *FLG* = T, the value is always a copy of *EXPR*.

**(DSUBLIS ALST EXPR FLG)** [Function]

Like SUBLIS, but it changes the list structure *EXPR* itself instead of copying it.

**(SUBPAIR OLD NEW EXPR FLG)** [Function]

Like SUBLIS, but elements of *NEW* are substituted for corresponding atoms of *OLD* in *EXPR*, e.g.,

```
(SUBPAIR '(A C) '(X Y) '(A B C D)) => (X B Y D)
```

## INTERLISP-D REFERENCE MANUAL

As with `SUBLIS`, new structure is created only if needed, or if `FLG = T`, e.g., if `FLG = NIL` and there are no substitutions, the value is `EQ` to `EXPR`.

If `OLD` ends in an atom other than `NIL`, the rest of the elements on `NEW` are substituted for that atom. For example, if `OLD = (A B . C)` and `NEW = (U V X Y Z)`, `U` is substituted for `A`, `V` for `B`, and `(X Y Z)` for `C`. Similarly, if `OLD` itself is an atom (other than `NIL`), the entire list `NEW` is substituted for it. Examples:

```
(SUBPAIR ' (A B . C) ' (W X Y Z) ' (C A B B Y)) => ((Y Z) W X X Y)
```

`SUBST`, `DSUBST`, and `LSUBST` all substitute copies of the appropriate expression, whereas `SUBLIS`, and `DSUBLIS`, and `SUBPAIR` substitute the identical structure (unless `FLG = T`). For example:

```
← (SETQ FOO ' (A B))
(A B)
← (SETQ BAR ' (X Y Z))
(X Y Z)
← (DSUBLIS (LIST (CONS 'X FOO)) BAR)
((A B) Y Z)
← (DSUBLIS (LIST (CONS 'Y FOO)) BAR T)
((A B) (A B) Z)
← (EQ (CAR BAR) FOO)
T
← (EQ (CADR BAR) FOO)
NIL
```

### Association Lists and Property Lists

---

It is often useful to associate a set of property names (`NAME1`, `NAME2`, etc.), with a set of property values (`VALUE1`, `VALUE2`, etc.). Two list structures commonly used to store such associations are called “property lists” and “association lists.” A list in “association list” format is a list where each element is a call whose `CAR` is a property name, and whose `CDR` is the value:

```
( (NAME1 . VALUE1) (NAME2 . VALUE2) ... )
```

A list in “property list” format is a list where the first, third, etc. elements are the property names, and the second, forth, etc. elements are the associated values:

```
( NAME1 VALUE1 NAME2 VALUE2 ... )
```

Another data structure that offers some of the advantages of association lists and property lists is the hash array (see the first page of Chapter 6).

The functions below provide facilities for searching and changing lists in property list or association list format.

**Note:** Property lists are used in many Medley system datatypes. There are special functions that can be used to set and retrieve values from the property lists of symbols (see the Property Lists section of Chapter 2), from properties of windows (see the Window Properties section of Chapter 28), etc.

(**ASSOC** KEY ALST)

[Function]

`ALST` is a list of lists. `ASSOC` returns the first sublist of `ALST` whose `CAR` is `EQ` to `KEY`. If such a list is not found, `ASSOC` returns `NIL`. Example:

## LISTS

```
(ASSOC 'B ' ((A . 1) (B . 2) (C . 3))) => (B . 2)
```

**(FASSOC KEY ALST)** [Function]

Faster version of ASSOC that terminates on a null-check.

**(SASSOC KEY ALST)** [Function]

Same as ASSOC, but uses EQUAL instead of EQ when searching for KEY.

**(PUTASSOC KEY VAL ALST)** [Function]

Searches ALST for a sublist CAR of which is EQ to KEY. If one is found, the CDR is replaced (using REPLACD) with VAL. If no such sublist is found, (CONS KEY VAL) is added at the end of ALST. Returns VAL. If ALST is not a list, generates an error, Arg not list.

The argument order for ASSOC, PUTASSOC, etc. is different from that of LISTGET, LISTPUT, etc.

**(LISTGET LST PROP)** [Function]

Searches LST two elements at a time, by CDDR, looking for an element EQ to PROP. If one is found, returns the next element of LST, otherwise NIL. Returns NIL if LST is not a list. Example:

```
(LISTGET ' (A 1 B 2 C 3) 'B) => 2
(LISTGET ' (A 1 B 2 C 3) 'W) => NIL
```

**(LISTPUT LST PROP VAL)** [Function]

Searches LST two elements at a time, by CDDR, looking for an element EQ to PROP. If PROP is found, replaces the next element of LST with VAL. Otherwise, PROP and VAL are added to the end of LST. If LST is a list with an odd number of elements, or ends in a non-list other than NIL, PROP and VAL are added at its beginning. Returns VAL. If LST is not a list, generates an error, Arg not list.

**(LISTGET1 LST PROP)** [Function]

Like LISTGET, but searches LST one CDR at a time, i.e., looks at each element. Returns the next element after PROP. Examples:

```
(LISTGET1 ' (A 1 B 2 C 3) 'B) => 2
(LISTGET1 ' (A 1 B 2 C 3) '1) => B
(LISTGET1 ' (A 1 B 2 C 3) 'W) => NIL
```

**(LISTPUT1 LST PROP VAL)** [Function]

Like LISTPUT, but searches LST one CDR at a time. Returns the modified LST. Example:

```
← (SETQ FOO ' (A 1 B 2))
  (A 1 B 2)
← (LISTPUT1 FOO 'B 3)
  (A 1 B 3)
← (LISTPUT1 FOO 'C 4)
  (A 1 B 3 C 4)
← (LISTPUT1 FOO 1 'W)
  (A 1 W 3 C 4)
← FOO
```

## INTERLISP-D REFERENCE MANUAL

(A 1 W 3 C 4)

If *LST* is not a list, no error is generated. However, since a non-list cannot be changed into a list, *LST* is not modified. In this case, the value of `LISTPUT1` should be saved. Example:

```
←(SETQ FOO NIL)
NIL
←(LISTPUT1 FOO 'A 5)
(A 5)
←FOO
NIL
```

### Sorting Lists

---

(**SORT** *DATA COMPAREFN*)

[Function]

*DATA* is a list of items to be sorted using *COMPAREFN*, a predicate function of two arguments which can compare any two items on *DATA* and return T if the first one belongs before the second. If *COMPAREFN* is NIL, `ALPHORDER` is used; thus (`SORT DATA`) will alphabetize a list. If *COMPAREFN* is T, CAR's of items that are lists are given to `ALPHORDER`, otherwise the items themselves; thus (`SORT A-LIST T`) will alphabetize an assoc list by the CAR of each item. (`SORT X 'ILESSP`) will sort a list of integers.

The value of `SORT` is the sorted list. The sort is destructive and uses no extra storage. The value returned is EQ to *DATA* but elements have been switched around. There is no safe way to interrupt `SORT`. If you abort a call to `SORT` by any means, you may lose elements from the list being sorted. The algorithm used by `SORT` is such that the maximum number of compares is  $N \log_2 N$ , where *N* is (`LENGTH DATA`).

Note: If (*COMPAREFN* A B) = (*COMPAREFN* B A), then the ordering of A and B may or may not be preserved.

For example, if (FOO . FIE) appears before (FOO . FUM) in X, (`SORT X T`) may or may not reverse the order of these two elements.

(**MERGE** *A B COMPAREFN*)

[Function]

*A* and *B* are lists which have previously been sorted using `SORT` and *COMPAREFN*. Value is a destructive merging of the two lists. It does not matter which list is longer. After merging both *A* and *B* are equal to the merged list. (In fact, (`CDR A`) is EQ to (`CDR B`)).

(**ALPHORDER** *A B CASEARRAY*)

[Function]

A predicate function of two arguments, for alphabetizing. Returns a non-NIL value if its arguments are in lexicographic order, i.e., if *B* does not belong before *A*. Numbers come before literal atoms, and are ordered by magnitude (using `GREATERP`). Literal atoms and strings are ordered by comparing the character codes in their print names. Thus (`ALPHORDER 23 123`) is T, whereas (`ALPHORDER 'A23 'A123`) is NIL, because the character code for the digit 2 is greater than the code for 1.

## LISTS

Atoms and strings are ordered before all other data types. If neither *A* nor *B* are atoms or strings, the value of `ALPHORDER` is always `T`.

If `CASEARRAY` is non-NIL, it is a casearray (see the Random Access File Operations section of Chapter 25) that the characters of *A* and *B* are translated through before being compared. Numbers are not passed through `CASEARRAY`.

**Note:** If either *A* or *B* is a number, the value returned in the “true” case is `T`. Otherwise, `ALPHORDER` returns either `EQUAL` or `LESSP` to discriminate the cases of *A* and *B* being equal or unequal strings/atoms.

**Note:** `ALPHORDER` does no `UNPACKS`, `CHCONS`, `CONSES` or `NTHCHARS`. It is several times faster for alphabetizing than anything that can be written using these other functions.

**(`UALPHORDER` *A B*)** [Function]

Defined as `(ALPHORDER A B UPPERCASEARRAY)`. `UPPERCASEARRAY` maps every lowercase character into the corresponding uppercase character. For more information on `UPPERCASEARRAY` see Chapter 25.

**(`MERGEINSERT` *NEW LST ONEFLG*)** [Function]

*LST* is NIL or a list of partially sorted items. `MERGEINSERT` tries to find the “best” place to (destructively) insert *NEW*, e.g.,

```
(MERGEINSERT 'FIE2 ' (FOO FOO1 FIE FUM)) => (FOO FOO1 FIE
FIE2 FUM)
```

Returns *LST*. `MERGEINSERT` is undoable.

If `ONEFLG` = `T` and *NEW* is already a member of *LST*, `MERGEINSERT` does nothing and returns *LST*.

`MERGEINSERT` is used by `ADDTOFILE` (see the Functions for Manipulating File Command Lists section of Chapter 17) to insert the name of a new function into a list of functions. The algorithm is essentially to look for the item with the longest common leading sequence of characters with respect to *NEW*, and then merge *NEW* in starting at that point.

---

### Other List Functions

**(`REMOVE` *X L*)** [Function]

Removes all top-level occurrences of *X* from list *L*, returning a copy of *L* with all elements `EQUAL` to *X* removed. Example:

```
(REMOVE 'A ' (A B C (A) A)) => (B C (A) )
(REMOVE ' (A) ' (A B C (A) A)) => (A B C A)
```

**(`DREMOVE` *X L*)** [Function]

Like `REMOVE`, but uses `EQ` instead of `EQUAL`, and actually modifies the list *L* when removing *X*, and thus does not use any additional storage. More efficient than `REMOVE`.

`DREMOVE` cannot *change* a list to NIL:

```
← (SETQ FOO ' (A) )
```

## INTERLISP-D REFERENCE MANUAL

```

      (A)
← (DREMOVE 'A FOO)
  NIL
← FOO
  (A)

```

The DREMOVE above returns NIL, and does not perform any CONSES, but the value of FOO is *still* (A), because there is no way to change a list to a non-list. See NCONC.

**(REVERSE L)** [Function]

Reverses (and copies) the top level of a list, e.g.,

```
(REVERSE ' (A B (C D) ) ) => ((C D) B A)
```

If *L* is not a list, REVERSE just returns *L*.

**(DREVERSE L)** [Function]

Value is the same as that of REVERSE, but DREVERSE destroys the original list *L* and thus does not use any additional storage. More efficient than REVERSE.

**(COMPARELISTS X Y)** [Function]

Compares the list structures *X* and *Y* and prints a description of any differences to the terminal. If *X* and *Y* are EQUAL lists, COMPARELISTS simply prints out SAME. Returns NIL.

COMPARELISTS prints a terse description of the differences between the two list structures, highlighting the items that have changed. This printout is not a complete and perfect comparison. If *X* and *Y* are radically different list structures, the printout will not be very useful. COMPARELISTS is meant to be used as a tool to help users isolate differences between similar structures.

When a single element has been changed for another, COMPARELISTS prints out items such as (A -> B), for example:

```

← (COMPARELISTS ' (A B C D) ' (X B E D) )
  (A -> X) (C -> E)
  NIL

```

When there are more complex differences between the two lists, COMPARELISTS prints *X* and *Y*, highlighting differences and abbreviating similar elements as much as possible. "&" is used to signal a single element that is present in the same place in the two lists; "--" signals an arbitrary number of elements in one list but not in the other; "-2-", "-3-", etc. signal a sequence of two, three, etc. elements that are the same in both lists. Examples:

```

(COMPARELISTS ' (A B C D) ' (A D) )
  (A B C --)
  (A D)
← (COMPARELISTS ' (A B C D E F G H) ' (A B C D X) )
  (A -3- E F --)
  (A -3- X)
← (COMPARELISTS ' (A B C (D E F (G) H) I) ' (A B (G) C (D E F
  H) I) )
  (A &      & (D -2- (G) &) &)

```



## LISTS

(A & (G) & (D -2- &) &)

(**NEGATE** X)

[Function]

For a form  $X$ , returns a form which computes the negation of  $X$ . For example:

```
(NEGATE ' (MEMBER X Y)) => (NOT (MEMBER X Y))
(NEGATE ' (EQ X Y)) => (NEQ X Y)
(NEGATE ' (AND X (NLISTP X))) => (OR (NULL X) (LISTP X))
(NEGATE NIL) => T
```

## INTERLISP-D REFERENCE MANUAL

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