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The Iterate Manual

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Abstract: This is the manual for version 1.1 of iterate, a powerful iteration macro for Common Lisp. iterate is similar to loop but provides numerous additional features, is well integrated with Lisp, and is extensible.

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1 INTRODUCTION 3

1 Introduction

This manual describes iterate, a powerful iteration facility for Common Lisp. iterate provides abstractions for many common iteration patterns and allows for the definition of additional patterns. iterate is a macro that expands into ordinary Lisp at compile-time, so it is more efficient than higher-order functions like map and reduce. While it is similar to loop, iterate offers a more Lisp-like syntax and enhanced extensibility. (For a more complete comparison of iterate with other iteration constructs, see MIT AI Lab Working Paper No. 324, Don't Loop, Iterate.)

An iterate form consists of the symbol iter¹ followed by one or more forms, some of which may be iterate *clauses*. Here is a simple example of iterate which collects the numbers from 1 to 10 into a list, and returns the list. The return value is shown following the arrow.

```
(iter (for i from 1 to 10)

(collect i)) \Rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10)
```

This form contains two clauses: a for clause that steps the variable i over the integers from 1 to 10, and a collect clause that accumulates its argument into a list. With a few exceptions, all iterate clauses have the same format: alternating symbols (called *keywords*) and expressions (called *arguments*). The syntax and terminology are those of Common Lisp's keyword lambda lists. One difference is that iterate's keywords do not have to begin with a colon—though they may, except for the first symbol of a clause. So you can also write (for i :from 1 :to 10) if you prefer.

Any Lisp form can appear in the body of an iterate, where it will have its usual meaning. iterate walks the entire body, expanding macros, and recognizing clauses at any level. This example collects all the odd numbers in a list:

There are clauses for iterating over numbers, lists, arrays and other objects, and for collecting, summing, counting, maximizing and other useful operations. iterate also supports the creation of new variable bindings, stepping over multiple sequences at once, destructuring, and compiler declarations of variable types. The following example illustrates some of these features:

¹You can also use iterate, but iter is preferred because it avoids potential conflicts with possible future additions to Common Lisp, and because it saves horizontal space when writing code.

This loop takes the keys of an alist and returns a new alist associating the keys with their positions in the original list. The compiler declaration for i will appear in the generated code in the appropriate place.

2 Clauses

Most of iterate's clauses will be familiar to loop programmers. (loop is an iteration macro that has been incorporated into Common Lisp. Seen Guy Steele's Common Lisp, 2nd Edition.) In nearly all cases they behave the same as their loop counterparts, so a loop user can switch to iterate with little pain (and much gain).

All clauses with the standard keyword-argument syntax consist of two parts: a required part, containing keywords that must be present and in the right order; and an optional part, containing keywords that may be omitted and, if present, may occur in any order. In the descriptions below, the parts are separated by the Lisp lambda-list keyword &optional.

2.1 Drivers

An iteration-driving clause conceptually causes the iteration to go forward. Driver clauses in iterate allow iteration over numbers, lists, vectors, hashtables, packages, files and streams. Iteration-driving clauses must appear at the top level of an iterate form; they cannot be nested inside another clause. The driver variable is updated at the point where the driver clause occurs. Before the clause is executed for the first time, the value of the variable is undefined.

Multiple drivers may appear in a single iterate form, in which case all of the driver variables are updated each time through the loop, in the order in which the clauses appear. The first driver to terminate will terminate the entire loop.

In all cases, the value of the driver variable on exit from the loop, including within the epilogue code (see the finally clause), is undefined.

All the parameters of a driver clause are evaluated once, before the loop begins. Hence it is not possible to change the bounds or other properties of an iteration by side-effect from within the loop.

With one exception, driver clauses begin with the word for (or the synonym as) and mention an iteration variable, which is given a binding within the iterate form. The exception is repeat, which just executes a loop a specified number of times:

repeat n

Repeats the loop n times. For example:

If $n \leq 0$, the loop will never be executed. If n is not an integer, the actual number of executions will be $\lceil n \rceil$.

2.1.1 Numerical Iteration

for var &sequence

The general form for iterating over a sequence of numbers requires a variable and, optionally, one or more keywords that provide the bounds and step size of the iteration. The &sequence lambda-list keyword is a shorthand for these sequence keywords. They are: from, upfrom, downfrom, to, downto, above, below and by. from provides the starting value for var and defaults to zero. to provides a final value and implies that the successive values of var will be increasing; downto implies that they will be decreasing. The loop terminates when var passes the final value (i.e. becomes smaller or larger than it, depending on the direction of iteration); in other words, the loop body will never be executed for values of var past the final value. below and above are similar to to and downto, except that the loop terminates when var equals or passes the final value.

If no final value is specified, the variable will be stepped forever. Using from or upfrom will result in increasing values, while downfrom will give decreasing values.

On each iteration, *var* is incremented or decremented by the value of the sequence keyword by, which defaults to 1. It should always be a positive number, even for downward iterations.

In the following examples, the sequence of numbers generated is shown next to the clause.

```
(for i upfrom 0) \Rightarrow 0 1 2 ...

(for i from 5) \Rightarrow 5 6 7 ...; either from or upfrom is okay

(for i downfrom 0) \Rightarrow 0 -1 -2 ...

(for i from 1 to 3) \Rightarrow 1 2 3

(for i from 1 below 3) \Rightarrow 1 2

(for i from 1 to 3 by 2) \Rightarrow 1 3

(for i from 1 below 3 by 2) \Rightarrow 1

(for i from 5 downto 3) \Rightarrow 5 4 3
```

2.1.2 Sequence Iteration

There are a number of clauses for iterating over sequences. In all of them, the argument following for may be a list instead of a symbol, in which case destructuring is performed. See section 3.3.

for var in list &optional by step-function

var is set to successive elements of list. step-function, which defaults to cdr, is used to obtain the next sublist.

for var on list &optional by step-function

var is set to successive sublists of list. step-function (default cdr) is used as in for...in.

These two clauses use atom to test for the end of a list. Hence, given a list whose final cdr is not nil, they will silently ignore the last cdr. Other choices are endp, which would signal an error, and null, which would probably result in an error somewhere else. If you wish to use an end-test other than atom, set the variable iterate::*list-end-test* to the name of the desired function.

for var in-vector vector & sequence

var takes on successive elements from vector. The vector's fill-pointer is observed. Here and in subsequent clauses, the &sequence keywords include with-index, which takes a symbol as argument and uses it for the index variable instead of an internally generated symbol. The other &sequence keywords behave as in numerical iteration, except that the default iteration bounds are the bounds of the vector. E.g. in (for i in-vector v downto 3), i will start off being bound to the last element in v, and will be set to preceding elements down to and including the element with index 3.

for var in-sequence seq &sequence

This uses Common Lisp's generalized sequence functions, elt and length, to obtain elements and determine the length of *seq.* Hence it will work for any sequence, including lists, and will observe the fill-pointers of vectors.

for var in-string string & sequence

var is set to successive characters of string.

for var index-of-vector vector &sequence for var index-of-sequence sequence &sequence for var index-of-string string &sequence

var is set to successive indices of the sequence. These clauses avoid the overhead of accessing the sequence elements for those applications where they do not need to be examined, or are examined rarely. They admit all the optional keywords of the other sequence drivers except the (redundant) with-index keyword.

for (key value) in-hashtable table

key and value, which must appear as shown in a list and may be destructuring templates, are set to the keys and values of table. If key is nil, then the hashtable's keys will be ignored; similarly for value. The order in which elements of table will be retrieved is unpredictable.

for var in-package package &optional external-only ext

Iterates over all the symbols in *package*, or over only the external symbols if *ext* is specified and non-nil. The same symbol may appear more than once.

for var in-file name &optional using reader

Opens the file *name* (which may be a string or pathname) for input, and iterates over its contents. *reader* defaults to read, so by default *var* will be bound to the successive forms in the file. The iterate body is wrapped in an unwind-protect to ensure that the file is closed no matter how the iterate is exited.

for var in-stream stream &optional using reader

Like for...in-file, except that *stream* should be an existing stream object that supports input operations.

2.1.3 Generalized Drivers

These are primarily useful for writing drivers that can also be used as generators (see section 2.1.4, below).

for var next expr

var is set to expr each time through the loop. Destructuring is performed. When the clause is used as a generator, expr is the code that is executed when (next var) is encountered (see section 2.1.4, below). expr should compute the first value for var, as well as all subsequent values, and is responsible for terminating the loop. For compatibility with future versions of iterate, this termination should be done with terminate, which can be considered a synonym for finish (see section 2.4).

As an example, the following clauses are equivalent to (for i from 1 to 10):

```
(initially (setq i 0))
(for i next (if (> i 10) (terminate) (incf i)))
```

for var do-next form

form is evaluated each time through the loop. Its value is not set to var; that is form's job. var is only present so that iterate knows it is a driver variable. (for var next expr) is equivalent to (for var do-next (dsetq var expr)). (See section 3.3 for an explanation of dsetq.)

2.1.4 Generators

In all of the above clauses, the driver variable is updated on each iteration. Sometimes it is desirable to have greater control over updating. For instance, consider the problem of associating numbers, in increasing order and with no gaps, with the non-nil elements of a list. One obvious first pass at writing this is:

```
(iter (for el in list)
     (for i upfrom 1)
     (if el (collect (cons el i))))
```

But on the list (a b nil c) this produces ((a . 1) (b . 2) (c . 4)) instead of the desired ((a . 1) (b . 2) (c . 3)). The problem is that i is incremented each time through the loop, even when el is nil.

The problem could be solved elegantly if we could step i only when we wished to. This can be accomplished for any iterate driver by writing generate (or its synonym generating) instead of for. Doing so produces a generator—a driver whose values are yielded explicitly. To obtain the next value of a generator variable v, write (next v). The value of a next form is the next value of v, as determined by its associated driver clause. next also has the side-effect of updating v to that value. If there is no next value, next will terminate the loop, just as with a normal driver.

Using generators, we can now write our example like this:

```
(iter (for el in list)
      (generate i upfrom 1)
      (if el (collect (cons el (next i)))))
```

Now i is updated only when (next i) is executed, and this occurs only when el is non-nil.

To better understand the relationship between ordinary drivers and generators, observe that we can rewrite an ordinary driver using its generator form immediately followed by next, as this example shows:

Provided that the loop body contains no (next i) forms, this will behave just as if we had written (for i from 1 to 10).

We can still refer to a driver variable v without using \mathtt{next} ; in this case, its value is that given to it by the last evaluation of $(\mathtt{next}\ v)$. Before $(\mathtt{next}\ v)$ has been called the first time, the value of v is undefined.

This semantics is more flexible than one in which v begins the loop bound to its first value and calls of next supply subsequent values, because it means the loop will not terminate too soon if the generator's sequence is empty. For instance, consider the following code, which tags non-nil elements of a list using a list of tags, and also counts the null elements. (We assume there are at least as many tags as non-nil elements.)

It may be that there are just as many tags as non-null elements of list. If all the elements of list are null, we still want the counting to proceed, even though tag-list is nil. If tag had to be assigned its first value before the loop begins, we would have had to terminate the loop before the first iteration, since when tag-list is nil, tag has no first value. With the existing semantics, however, (next tag) will never execute, so the iteration will cover all the elements of list.

When the "variable" of a driver clause is actually a destructuring template containing several variables, all the variables are eligible for use with next. As before, ($next \ v$) evaluates to v's next value; but the effect is to update all of the template's variables. For instance, the following code will return the list ($a \ 2 \ c$).

```
(iter (generating (key . item) in '((a . 1) (b . 2) (c . 3)))
      (collect (next key))
      (collect (next item)))
```

Only driver clauses with variables can be made into generators. This includes all clauses mentioned so far except for repeat. It does *not* include for...previous, for...=, for...initially...then or for...first...then (see below).

2.1.5 Previous Values of Driver Variables

Often one would like to access the value of a variable on a previous iteration. iterate provides a special clause for accomplishing this.

```
for pvar previous var &optional initially init back n
```

Sets *pvar* to the previous value of *var*, which should be a driver variable, a variable from another for...previous clause, or a variable established by a for...=, for...initially...then or for...first...then clause (see section 2.2). Initially, *pvar* is given the value *init* (which defaults to nil). The *init* expression will be moved outside the loop body, so it should not depend on anything

computed within the loop. *pvar* retains the value of *init* until *var* is set to its second value, at which point *pvar* is set to *var's* first value; and so on.

The argument n to back must be a constant, positive integer, and defaults to 1. It determines how many iterations back pvar should track var. For example, when n is 2, then pvar will be assigned var's first value when var is set to its third value.

A for...previous clause may occur after or before its associated driver clause. for...previous works with generators as well as ordinary drivers.

Example:

```
(iter (for el in '(1 2 3 4))
      (for p-el previous el)
      (for pp-el previous p-el initially 0)
      (collect pp-el))
```

This evaluates to (0 0 1 2). It could have been written more economically as

```
(iter (for el in '(1 2 3 4))
      (for pp-el previous el back 2 initially 0)
      (collect pp-el))
```

2.2 Variable Binding and Setting

Several clauses exist for establishing new variable bindings or for setting variables in the loop. They all support destructuring.

```
with var &optional = value
```

Causes var to be bound to value before the loop body is entered. If value is not supplied, var assumes a default binding, which will be \mathtt{nil} in the absence of declarations. Also, if value is not supplied, no destructuring is performed; instead, var may be a list of symbols, all of which are given default bindings. If value is supplied, var is bound to it, with destructuring.

Because with creates bindings whose scope includes the entire iterate form, it is good style to put all with clauses at the beginning.

Successive occurrences of with result in sequential bindings (as with let*). There is no way to obtain parallel bindings; see section 3.5 for a rationale.

```
for var = expr
```

On each iteration, *expr* is evaluated and *var* is set to its value.

This clause may appear to do the same thing as for...next. In fact, they are quite different. for...= provides only three services: it sets up a binding for var, sets it to expr on each iteration, and makes it possible to use for...previous

with var. for...next provides these services in addition to the ability to turn the driver into a generator.

for var initially init-expr then then-expr

Before the loop begins, var is set to *init-expr*; on all iterations after the first it is set to *then-expr*. This clause must occur at top-level. *init-expr* will be moved outside the loop body and *then-expr* will be moved to the end of the loop body, so they are subject to code motion problems (see section 5).

This clause may appear to be similar to for...next, but in fact they differ significantly. for...initially...then is typically used to give var its first value before the loop begins, and subsequent values on following iterations. This is incompatible with generators, whose first value and subsequent values must all be computed by (next var). Also, the update of var in for...initially...then does not occur at the location of the clause. Use for...initially...then for one-shot computations where its idiom is more convenient, but use for...next for extending iterate with new drivers (see section 7).

for var first first-expr then then-expr

The first time through the loop, var is set to first-expr; on subsequent iterations, it is set to then-expr. This differs from for...initially in that var is set to first-expr inside the loop body, so first-expr may depend on the results of other clauses. For instance,

is probably erroneous; i will be bound to num's default binding (usually nil) for the first iteration.

Compatibility note: loop's for...= works like iterate's, but loop used the syntax for...=...then to mean for...initially...then. It was felt that these two operations were sufficiently different to warrant different keywords.

Also, the for in the above three clauses is misleading, since none is true driver (e.g. none has a corresponding generate form). setting would have been a better choice, but for was used to retain some compatibility with loop.

2.3 Gathering Clauses

Many of iterate's clauses accumulate values into a variable, or set a variable under certain conditions. At the end of the loop, this variable contains the desired result. All these clauses have an optional into keyword, whose argument should be a symbol. If the into keyword is not supplied, the accumulation variable will be internally generated and its value will be returned at the end of the loop; if a variable is specified, that variable is used for the accumulation, and is not returned as a result—it is up to the user to return it explicitly, in the loop's epilogue code (see finally). It is safe to examine the accumulation variable during the loop, but it should not be modified.

These clauses all begin with a verb. When the verb does not conflict with an existing Common Lisp function, then it may be used in either its infinitival or present-participle form (e.g. sum, summing). However, when there is a conflict with Common Lisp, only the present-participle form may be used (e.g. unioning). This is to prevent iterate clauses from clashing with Common Lisp functions.

2.3.1 Reductions

Reduction is an extremely common iteration pattern in which the results of successive applications of a binary operation are accumulated. For example, a loop that computes the sum of the elements of a list is performing a reduction with the addition operation. This could be written in Common Lisp as (reduce #'+ list) or with iterate as

$\operatorname{sum}\ expr\ \operatorname{\&optional}\ \operatorname{into}\ var$

Each time through the loop, *expr* is evaluated and added to a variable, which is bound initially to zero. If *expr* has a type, it is *not* used as the type of the sum variable, which is always number. To get the result variable to be of a more specific type, use an explicit variable, as in

```
(iter (for el in number-list)
      (sum el into x)
      (declare (fixnum x))
      (finally (return x)))
```

multiply expr &optional into var

Like sum, but the initial value of the result variable is 1, and the variable is updated by multiplying *expr* into it.

```
counting expr &optional into var
```

expr is evaluated on each iteration. If it is non-nil, the accumulation variable, initially zero, is incremented.

```
maximize expr &optional into var minimize expr &optional into var
```

expr is evaluated on each iteration and its extremum (maximum or minimum) is stored in the accumulation variable. If expr is never evaluated, then the result is nil (if the accumulation variable is untyped) or 0 (if it has a numeric type).

reducing expr by func &optional initial-value init-val into var

This is a general way to perform reductions. *func* should be a function of two arguments, the first of which will be the value computed so far and the second of which will be the value of *expr*. It should return the new value. **reducing** is roughly equivalent to the Common Lisp (**reduce** *func list*), where *list* is a list of the successive values of *expr*. Because this list need not be explicitly constructed, the **iterate** clause may be more efficient than the Common Lisp function.

If the reducing clause is never executed, the result is undefined.

It is not necessary to provide an initial value, but better code can be generated if one is supplied. Regardless of its location in the iterate body, *init-val* will be evaluated before the loop is entered, so it should not depend on any value computed inside the iterate form.

2.3.2 Accumulations

All the predefined accumulation clauses add values to a sequence. If the sequence is a list, they all have the property that the partial list is kept in the correct order and available for inspection at any point in the loop.

```
collect expr &optional into var at place result-type type
```

Produces a sequence of the values of *expr* on each iteration. *place* indicates where the next value of *expr* is added to the list and may be one of the symbols start, beginning (a synonym for start) or end. The symbol may be quoted, but need not be. The default is end. For example,

produces (5 4 3 2 1) (and is likely to be faster in most Common Lisp implementations).

If type is provided, it should be a subtype of sequence. The default is list. Specifying a type other than list will result in collect returning a sequence of that type. However, the type of the sequence being constructed when inside the loop body is undefined when a non-list type is specified. (As with place, quoting type is optional.)

adjoining expr &optional into var test test at place result-type type

Like collect, but only adds the value of *expr* if it is not already present. *test*, which defaults to #'eql, is the test to be used with member.

```
appending expr &optional into var at place nconcing expr &optional into var at place unioning expr &optional into var at place nunioning expr &optional into var at place
```

These are like collect, but behave like the Common Lisp functions append, nconc, union or nunion. As in Common Lisp, they work only on lists. Also as in Common Lisp, unioning and nunioning assume that the value of *expr* contains no duplicates.

accumulate expr by func &optional initial-value init-val into var

This is a general-purpose accumulation clause. *func* should be a function of two arguments, the value of *expr* and the value accumulated so far in the iteration, and it should return the updated value. If no initial value is supplied, nil is used.

The differences between accumulate and reducing are slight. One difference is that the functions take their arguments in a different order. Another is that in the absence of *init-val*, accumulate will use nil, whereas reducing will generate different code that avoids any dependence on the initial value. The reason for having both clauses is that one usually thinks of reductions (like sum) and accumulations (like collect) as different beasts.

2.3.3 Finders

A finder is a clause whose value is an expression that meets some condition.

finding expr such-that test &optional into var on-failure failure-value

If test (which is an expression) ever evaluates to non-nil, the loop is terminated, the epilogue code is run and the value of expr is returned. Otherwise, nil (or failure-value, if provided) is returned. If var is provided, it will have either the non-nil value of expr or failure-value when the epilogue code is run.

As a special case, if the *test* expression is a sharp-quoted function, then it is applied to expr instead of being simply evaluated. E.g. (finding x such-that #'evenp) is equivalent to (finding x such-that (evenp x)).

On-failure is a misnomer. Because it is always evaluated, it behaves more like the default third argument to the gethash function. As a result, on-failure (error "Not found") makes no sense. Instead, leave or thereis in conjunction with finally can be used as follows:

```
(iter (for x in '(1 2 3))
    (if (evenp x) (leave x))
    (finally (error "not found")))
```

This clause may appear multiple times when all defaults are identical. It can also be used together with either always/never or thereis if their defaults match. More specifically, on-failure nil is compatible with thereis, while on-failure t is compatible with always and never clauses.

finding expr maximizing m-expr &optional into var finding expr minimizing m-expr &optional into var

Computes the extremum (maximum or minimum) value of *m-expr* over all iterations, and returns the value of *expr* corresponding to the extremum. *expr* is evaluated inside the loop at the time the new extremum is established. If *m-expr* is never evaluated (due to, for example, being embedded in a conditional clause), then the returned value depends on the type, if any, of *expr* (or *var*, if one is supplied). If there is no type, the returned value will be nil; if the type is numeric, the returned value will be zero.

For these two clauses, var may be a list of two symbols; in that case, the first is used to record expr and the second, m-expr.

As with finding...such-that, if m-expr is a sharp-quoted function, then it is called on expr instead of being evaluated.

2.3.4 Aggregated Boolean Tests

always expr

If expr ever evaluates to nil, then nil is immediately returned; the epilogue code is not executed. If expr never evaluates to nil, the epilogue code is executed and the last value of expr (or t if expr was never evaluated) is returned (whereas loop would constantly return t).

;; mention last evaluated clause when multiple always clauses?

never expr

Like (always (not *expr*)), except it does not influence the last value returned by a possible other always clause. That is,

```
(iter (repeat 2) (always 2) (never nil)) \Rightarrow 2; not t
```

thereis expr

If expr is ever non-nil, its value is immediately returned without running epilogue code. Otherwise, the epilogue code is performed and nil is returned. This clause cannot be used together with always or never, because their defaults are opposed (similarly, (loop always 3 thereis nil) refuses to compile in some implementations of loop).

2.4 Control Flow

Several clauses can be used to alter the usual flow of control in a loop.

Note: the clauses of this and subsequent sections don't adhere to iterate's usual syntax, but instead use standard Common Lisp syntax. Hence the format for describing syntax subsequently is like the standard format used in the Common Lisp manual, not like the descriptions of clauses above.

finish

Stops the loop and runs the epilogue code.

leave &optional value

Immediately returns *value* (default nil) from the current iterate form, skipping the epilogue code.

next-iteration

Skips the remainder of the loop body and begins the next iteration of the loop.

while expr

If expr ever evaluates to nil, the loop is terminated and the epilogue code executed. equivalent to (if (not expr) (finish)).

until expr

```
Equivalent to (if expr (finish)).
```

if-first-time then &optional else

If this clause is being executed for the first time in this invocation of the iterate form, then the *then* code is evaluated; otherwise the *else* code is evaluated.

The only difference is that the for version makes var available for use with for...previous.

2.5 Code Placement

When fine control is desired over where code appears in a loop generated by **iterate**, the following special clauses may be useful. They are all subject to codemotion problems (see section 5).

initially &rest forms

The lisp *forms* are placed in the prologue section of the loop, where they are executed once, before the loop body is entered.

after-each &rest forms

The *forms* are placed at the end of the loop body, where they are executed after each iteration. Unlike the other clauses in this section, *forms* may contain iterate clauses.

finally &rest forms

The lisp *forms* are placed in the epilogue section of the loop, where they are executed after the loop has terminated normally.

finally-protected &rest forms

The lisp *forms* are placed in the second form of an unwind-protect outside the loop. They are always executed after the loop has terminated, regardless of how the termination occurred.

3 Other Features

3.1 Multiple Accumulations

It is permitted to have more than one clause accumulate into the same variable, as in the following:

```
(iter (for i from 1 to 10)
          (collect i into nums)
```

```
(collect (sqrt i) into nums)
(finally (return nums)))
```

Clauses can only accumulate into the same variable if they are compatible. collect, adjoining, appending, nconcing, unioning and nunioning are compatible with each other; sum, multiply and counting are compatible; always and never are compatible; finding ...such-that is compatible with either there is or always and never when their defaults match; and maximize and minimize clauses are compatible only with other maximize and minimize clauses, respectively.

3.2 Named Blocks

Like Common Lisp blocks, iterate forms can be given names. The name should be a single symbol, and it must be the first form in the iterate. The generated code behaves exactly like a named block; in particular, (return-from name) can be used to exit it:

An iterate form that is not given a name is implicitly named nil.

Sometimes one would like to write an expression in an inner iterate form, but have it processed by an outer iterate form. This is possible with the in clause.

in name &rest forms

Evaluates *forms* as if they were part of the iterate form named *name*. In other words, iterate clauses are processed by the iterate form named *name*, and not by any iterate forms that occur inside *name*.

As an example, consider the problem of collecting a list of the elements in a two-dimensional array. The naive solution,

is wrong because the list created by the inner iterate is simply ignored by the outer one. But using in we can write:

which has the desired result.

3.3 Destructuring

In many places within iterate clauses where a variable is expected, a list can be written instead. In these cases, the value to be assigned is *destructured* according to the pattern described by the list. As a simple example, the clause

```
(for (key . item) in alist)
```

will result in key being set to the car of each element in alist, and item being set to the cdr. The pattern list may be nested to arbitrary depth, and (as the example shows) need not be terminated with nil; the only requirement is that each leaf be a bindable symbol (or nil, in which case no binding is generated for that piece of the structure).

Sometimes, you might like to do the equivalent of a multiple-value-setq in a clause. This "multiple-value destructuring" can be expressed by writing (values $pat_1 \ pat_2 \dots$) for a destructuring pattern, as in

```
(for (values (a . b) c d) = (three-valued-function ...))
```

Note that the pat_i can themselves be destructuring patterns (though not multiple-value destructuring patterns). You can't do multiple-value destructuring in a with clause; instead wrap the whole iterate form in a multiple-value-bind.

Rationale: There are subtle interactions between variable declarations and evaluation order that make the correct implementation of multiple-value destructuring in a with somewhat tricky.

The destructuring feature of iterate is available as a separate mechanism, using the dsetq macro:

 ${\tt dsetq} \ \textit{template} \ \textit{expr} \\ [\textit{Macro}]$

Performs destructuring of expr using template. May be used outside of an iterate form. Yields the primary value of expr.

3.4 On-line Help

There is a limited facility for on-line help, in the form of the display-iterate-clauses function.

 ${\tt display-iterate-clauses~\&optional~\it clause-spec} \qquad \qquad [Function]$

Displays a list of iterate clauses. If *clause-spec* is not provided, all clauses are shown; if it is a symbol, all clauses beginning with that symbol are shown; and if it is a list of symbols, all clauses for which *clause-spec* is a prefix are shown.

3.5 Parallel Binding and Stepping

The parallel binding and stepping of variables is a feature that iterate does *not* have. This section attempts to provide a rationale.

We say that two variables are bound in parallel if neither binding shadows the other. This is the usual semantics of let (as opposed to let*). Similarly, we can say that iteration variables are stepped in parallel if neither variable is updated before the other, conceptually speaking; in other words, if the code to update each variable can reference the old values of both variables.

loop allows parallel binding of variables and parallel stepping of driver variables. My view is that if you are depending on the serial/parallel distinction, you are doing something obscure. If you need to bind variables in parallel using with, then you must be using a variable name that shadows a name in the existing lexical environment. Don't do that. The most common use for parallel stepping is to track the values of variables on the previous iteration, but in fact this does not require parallel stepping at all; the following will work:

```
(iter (for current in list)
      (for prev previous current)
      ...)
```

4 Types and Declarations

4.1 Discussion

Sometimes efficiency dictates that the types of variables be declared. This type information needs to be communicated to iterate so it can bind variables to appropriate values. Furthermore, iterate must often generate internal variables invisible to the user; there needs to be a way for these to be declared.

As an example, consider this code, which will return the number of odd elements in number-list:

```
(iter (for el in number-list)
      (count (oddp el)))
```

In processing this form, iterate will create an internal variable, let us call it list17, to hold the successive cdrs of number-list, and will bind the variable to number-list. It will also generate a default binding for el; only inside the body of the loop will el be set to the car of list17. Finally, iterate will generate a variable, call it result, to hold the result of the count, and will bind it to zero.

When dealing with type declarations, iterate observes one simple rule: it will never generate a declaration unless requested to do so. The reason is that such declarations might mask errors in compiled code by avoiding error-checks; the resulting problems would be doubly hard to track down because the declarations would be

hidden from the programmer. Of course, a compiler might omit error-checks even in the absence of declarations, though this behavior can usually be avoided, e.g. by saying (proclaim '(optimize (safety 3))).

So, the above iterate form will generate code with no declarations. But say we wish to declare the types of el and the internal variables list17 and result. How is this done?

Declaring the type of el is easy, since the programmer knows the variable's name:

```
(iter (for el in number-list)
      (declare (fixnum el))
      (counting (oddp el)))
```

iterate can read variable type declarations like this one. Before processing any clauses, it scans the entire top-level form for type declarations and records the types, so that variable bindings can be performed correctly. In this case, el will be bound to zero instead of nil. Also, iterate collects all the top-level declarations and puts them at the beginning of the generated code, so it is not necessary to place all declarations at the beginning of an iterate form; instead, they can be written near the variables whose types they declare.

Since iterate is not part of the compiler, it will not know about declarations that occur outside an iterate form; these declarations must be repeated inside the form. Here is another way we could have declared the type of el:

iterate extends the Common Lisp the form to apply to variables as well as value-producing forms; anywhere a variable is allowed—in a with clause, as the iteration variable in a driver clause, as the into argument of an accumulation clause, even inside a destructuring template—you can write (the type symbol) instead.

There is one crucial difference between using a the form and actually declaring the variable: explicit declarations are always placed in the generated code, but type information from a the form is not turned into an actual declaration unless you tell iterate to do so using iterate:declare-variables. See below.

Declaring the types of internal variables is harder than declaring the types of explicitly mentioned variables, since their names are unknown. You do it by declaring iterate:declare-variables somewhere inside the top level of the iterate form. (This will also generate declarations for variables declared using the.) iterate does not provide much selectivity here: it's all or none. And unfortunately, since iterate is not privy to compiler information but instead reads declarations itself, it will not hear if you (declaim (iterate:declare-variables)). Instead, set the variable iterate::*always-declare-variables* to t at compile-time, using eval-when.

To determine the appropriate types for internal variables, iterate uses three sources of information:

• Often, the particular clause dictates a certain type for a variable; iterate will use this information when available. In the current example, the variable list17 will be given the type list, since that is the only type that makes sense; and the variable result will be given the type fixnum, on the assumption that you will not be counting high enough to need bignums. You can override this assumption only by using and explicitly declaring a variable:

```
(iter (declare (iterate:declare-variables))
      (for el in number-list)
      (count (oddp el) into my-result)
      (declare (integer my-result))
      (finally (return my-result)))
```

Other examples of the type assumptions that iterate makes are: type list for into variables of collection clauses; type list for expressions that are to be destructured; type vector for the variable holding the vector in a for...in-vector clause, and similarly for string and the for...in-string clause; and the implementation-dependent type (type-of array-dimension-limit) for the index and limit variables generated by sequence iteration drivers like for...in-vector and for...in-string (but not for...in-sequence, because it may be used to iterate over a list).

- Sometimes, iterate will examine expressions and try to determine their types in a simple-minded way. If the expression is self-evaluating (like a number, for instance), iterate knows that the expression's type is the same as the type of the value it denotes, so it can use that type. If the expression is of the form (the type expr), iterate is smart enough to extract type and use it. However, the current version of iterate does not examine declarations of function result types or do any type inference. It will not determine, for example, that the type of (+ 3 4) is fixnum, or even number.
- In some cases, the type of an internal variable should match the type of some other variable. For instance, iterate generates an internal variable for (f x) in the clause (for i from 1 to (f x)), and in the absence of other information will give it the same type as i. If, however, the expression had been written (the fixnum (f x)), then iterate would have given the internal variable the type fixnum regardless of i's type. The type incompatibility errors that could arise in this situation are not checked for.

Note that if you do declare iterate:declare-variables, then iterate may declare user variables as well as internal ones if they do not already have declarations, though only for variables that it binds. For instance, in this code:

```
(iter (declare (iterate:declare-variables))
```

```
(for i from 1 to 10)
(collect i into var))
```

the variable var will be declared to be of type list.

4.2 Summary

iterate understands standard Common Lisp variable type declarations that occur within an iterate form and will pass them through to the generated code. If the declaration (iterate:declare-variables) appears at the top level of an iterate form, or if iterate::*always-declare-variables* is non-nil, then iterate will use the type information gleaned from user declarations, self-evaluating expressions and the expressions, combined with reasonable assumptions, to determine variable types and declare them.

5 Problems with Code Movement

Some iterate clauses, or parts of clauses, result in code being moved from the location of the clause to other parts of the loop. Drivers behave this way, as do code-placement clauses like initially and finally. When using these clauses, there is a danger of writing an expression that makes sense in its apparent location but will be invalid or have a different meaning in another location. For example:

While it may appear that the x of (initially (setq x 4)) is the same as the x of (let ((x 3)) ..., in fact they are not: initially moves its code outside the loop body, so x would refer to a global variable. Here is another example of the same problem:

If this code were executed, collect would create a binding for its x at the top level of the iterate form that the let will shadow.

Happily, iterate is smart enough to catch these errors; it walks all problematical code to ensure that free variables are not bound inside the loop body, and checks all variables it binds for the same problem.

However, some errors cannot be caught:

```
(iter (with x = 3)
          (for el in list)
          (setq x 1)
```

(reducing el by #'+ initial-value x))

reducing moves its initial-value argument to the initialization part of the loop in order to produce more efficient code. Since iterate does not perform data-flow analysis, it cannot determine that \mathbf{x} is changed inside the loop; all it can establish is that \mathbf{x} is not bound internally. Hence this code will not signal an error and will use 3 as the initial value of the reduction.

The following list summarizes all cases that are subject to these code motion and variable-shadowing problems.

- Any variable for which iterate creates a binding, including those used in with and the into keyword of many clauses.
- The special clauses which place code: initially, after-each, else, finally and finally-protected.
- The variable of a next or do-next form.
- The initially arguments of for...initially...then and for...previous.
- The then argument of for...initially...then.
- The initial-value arguments of reducing and accumulate.
- The on-failure argument of finding...such-that.

6 Differences Between Iterate and Loop

loop contains a great deal of complexity which iterate tries to avoid. Hence many esoteric features of loop don't exist in iterate. Other features have been carried over, but in a cleaned-up form. And of course, many new features have been added; they are not mentioned in this list.

- iterate's syntax is more Lisp-like than loop's, having a higher density of parens.
- The current implementation of iterate, unlike the current version of loop (as documented in *Common Lisp*, 2nd Ed.), is extensible (see section 7).
- loop puts the updates of all driver variables at the top of the loop; iterate leaves them where the driver clauses appear.
- While for the most part iterate clauses that resemble loop clauses behave similarly, there are some differences. For instance, there is no for...=...then in iterate; instead use for...initially...then.

- loop binds the variable it at certain times to allow pseudo-English expressions like when *expr* return it. In iterate, you must bind *expr* to a variable yourself.
- loop has a special return clause, illustrated in the previous item. iterate doesn't need one, since an ordinary Lisp return has the same effect.
- loop allows for parallel binding and stepping of iteration variables. iterate does not. (See section 3.5.)
- loop and iterate handle variable type declarations very differently. loop provides a special syntax for declaring variable types, and does not examine declarations. Moreover, the standard implementation of loop will generate declarations when none are requested. iterate parses standard Common Lisp type declarations, and will never declare a variable itself unless declarations are specifically requested.

7 Rolling Your Own

7.1 Introduction

iterate is extensible—you can write new clauses that embody new iteration patterns. You might want to write a new driver clause for a data structure of your own, or you might want to write a clause that collects or manipulates elements in a way not provided by iterate.

This section describes how to write clauses for iterate. Writing a clause is like writing a macro. In fact, writing a clause is writing a macro: since iterate codewalks its body and macroexpands, you can add new abstractions to iterate with good old defmacro.

Actually, there are two extensions you can make to iterate that are even easier than writing a macro. They are adding a synonym for an existing clause and defining a driver clause for an indexable sequence. These can be done with defsynonym and defclause-sequence, respectively. See section 7.3, below.

The rest of this section explains how to write macros that expand into iterate clauses. Here's how you could add a simplified version of iterate's multiply clause, if iterate didn't already have one:

```
(defmacro multiply (expr)
     '(reducing ,expr by #'* initial-value 1))
```

If you found yourself summing the square of an expression often, you might want to write a macro for that. A first cut might be

but if you are an experienced macro writer, you will realize that this code will evaluate *expr* twice, which is probably a bad idea. A better version would use a temporary:

Although this may seem complex, it is just the sort of thing you'd have to go through to write any macro, which illustrates the point of this section: if you can write macros, you can extend iterate.

Our macros don't use iterate's keyword-argument syntax. We could just use keywords with defmacro, but we would still not be using iterate's clause indexing mechanism. Unlike Lisp, which uses just the first symbol of a form to determine what function to call, iterate individuates clauses by the list of required keywords. For instance, for...in and for...in-vector are different clauses implemented by distinct Lisp functions.

To buy into this indexing scheme, as well as the keyword-argument syntax, use defmacro-clause:

```
defmacro-clause arglist &body body
```

[Macro]

Defines a new iterate clause. arglist is a list of symbols which are alternating keywords and arguments. &optional may be used, and the list may be terminated by &sequence. body is an ordinary macro body, as with defmacro. If the first form of body is a string, it is considered a documentation string and will be shown by display-iterate-clauses. defmacro-clause will signal an error if defining the clause would result in an ambiguity. E.g. you cannot define the clause for...from because there would be no way to distinguish it from a use of the for clause with optional keyword from.

Here is multiply using defmacro-clause. The keywords are capitalized for readability.

You don't have to worry about the case when var is not supplied; for any clause with an into keyword, saying into nil is equivalent to omitting the into entirely.

As another, more extended example, consider the fairly common iteration pattern that involves finding the sequence element that maximizes (or minimizes) some function. iterate provides this as finding...maximizing, but it's instructive to see how to write it. Here, in pseudocode, is how you might write such a loop for maximizing a function F:

```
set variable MAX-VAL to NIL;
 set variable WINNER to NIL;
  for each element EL in the sequence
    if MAX-VAL is NIL or F(EL) > MAX-VAL then
     set MAX-VAL to F(EL);
     set WINNER to EL;
    end if;
 end for:
 return WINNER.
Here is the macro:
(defmacro-clause (FINDING expr MAXIMIZING func &optional INTO var)
  (let ((max-val (gensym))
        (temp1 (gensym))
        (temp2 (gensym))
        (winner (or var iterate::*result-var*)))
    '(progn
       (with ,max-val = nil)
       (with ,winner = nil)
       (cond
        ((null ,max-val)
         (setq ,winner ,expr)
         (setq ,max-val (funcall ,func ,winner))
        (t
         (let* ((,temp1 ,expr)
                 (,temp2 (funcall ,func ,temp1)))
           (when (> ,temp2 ,max-val)
             (setq ,max-val ,temp2)
             (setq ,winner ,temp1))))))
       (finally (leave ,winner)))))
```

Note that if no into variable is supplied, we use iterate::*result-var*, which contains the internal variable into which all clauses place their results. If this variable is bound by some clause, then iterate will return its value automatically; otherwise, nil will be returned.

7.2 Writing Drivers

In principle, drivers can be implemented just as easily as other **iterate** clauses. In practice, they are a little harder to get right. As an example, consider writing a driver that iterates over all the elements of a vector, ignoring its fill-pointer.

for...in-vector won't work for this, because it observes the fill-pointer. It's necessary to use array-dimension instead of length to obtain the size of the vector. Here is one approach:

Note that we immediately put v in a variable, in case it is an expression. Again, this is just good Lisp macrology. It also has a subtle effect on the semantics of the driver: v is evaluated only once, at the beginning of the loop, so changes to v in the loop have no effect on the driver. This is how all of iterate's drivers work.

There is an important point concerning the progn in this code. We need the progn, of course, because we are returning several forms, one of which is a driver. But iterate drivers must occur at top-level. Is this code in error? No, because top-level is defined in iterate to include forms inside a progn. This is just the definition of top-level that Common Lisp uses, and for the same reason: to allow macros to return multiple forms at top-level.

While our for...in-whole-vector clause will work, it is not ideal. In particular, it does not support generating. Do do so, we need to use for...next or for...do-next. The job is simplified by the defmacro-driver macro.

```
defmacro-driver arglist &body body
```

[Macro]

Defines a driver clause in both the for and generate forms, and provides a parameter generate which *body* can examine to determine how it was invoked. *arglist* is as in defmacro-clause, and should begin with the symbol for.

With defmacro-driver, our driver looks like this:

We are still missing one thing: the &sequence keywords. We can get them easily enough, by writing

```
(defmacro-driver (FOR var IN-WHOLE-VECTOR v &sequence)
   ...)
```

We can now refer to parameters from, to, by, etc. which contain either the values for the corresponding keyword, or nil if the keyword was not supplied. Implementing the right code for these keywords is cumbersome but not difficult; it is left as an exercise. But before you begin, see defclause-sequence below for an easier way.

7.3 Extensibility Aids

This section documents assorted features that may be of use in extending iterate.

iterate::*result-var*

[Variable]

Holds the variable that is used to return a value as a result of the iterate form. You may examine this and use it in a with clause, but you should not change it.

defsynonym syn word

[Macro]

Makes syn a synonym for the existing iterate keyword word. Only the first word in each clause can have synonyms.

```
defclause-sequence element-name index-name
```

[Macro]

```
&key access-fn size-fn sequence-type element-type element-doc-string index-doc-string
```

Provides a simple way to define sequence clauses. Generates two clauses, one for iterating over the sequence's elements, the other for iterating over its indices. The first symbol of both clauses will have print-name for. element-name and index-name should be symbols. element-name is the second keyword of the element iterator (typically of the form in-sequence-type), and index-name is the second keyword of the index-iterator (typically of the form index-of-sequence-type). Either name may be nil, in which case the corresponding clause is not defined. If both symbols are supplied, they should be in the same package. The for that begins the clauses will be in this package.

access-fn is the function to be used to access elements of the sequence in the element iterator. The function should take two arguments, a sequence and an index, and return the appropriate element. size-fn should denote a function

of one argument, a sequence, that returns its size. Both access-fn and size-fn are required for the element iterator, but only size-fn is needed for the index iterator.

The sequence-type and element-type keywords are used to suggest types for the variables used to hold the sequence and the sequence elements, respectively. The usual rules about iterate's treatment of variable type declarations apply (see section 4).

element-doc-string and *index-doc-string* are the documentation strings, for use with display-iterate-clauses.

The generated element-iterator performs destructuring on the element variable.

As an example, the above for...in-whole-vector example could have been written:

```
(defclause-sequence IN-WHOLE-VECTOR INDEX-OF-WHOLE-VECTOR
    :access-fn 'aref
    :size-fn #'(lambda (v) (array-dimension v 0))
    :sequence-type 'vector
    :element-type t
    :element-doc-string
        "Elements of a vector, disregarding fill-pointer"
    :index-doc-string
        "Indices of vector, disregarding fill-pointer")
```

7.4 Subtleties

There are some subtleties to be aware of when writing iterate clauses. First, the code returned by your macros may be nconc'ed into a list, so you should always returned freshly consed lists, rather than constants. Second, iterate matches clauses by using eq on the first symbol and string= on the subsequent ones, so the package of the first symbol of a clause is relevant. All of the clauses in this manual have their first word in the iterate package. You can use the package system in the usual way to shadow iterate clauses without replacing them.

8 Non-portable Extensions to Iterate (Contribs)

Currently, there is only one non-portable extension to iterate in the distribution: iterate-pg. If you have made an extension that depends on non-portable features, feel free to send them to asf@boinkor.net for inclusion in the iterate distribution.

8.1 An SQL query driver for iterate

The pg package by Eric Marsden (see http://cliki.net/pg) provides an interface to the PostgreSQL database. Using the iterate-pg extension, it is possible to handle the results of SQL queries using iterate.

This usage example should give you an idea of how to use it:

To use the extension via ASDF, simply make your system depend on the iterate-pg system instead of the iterate system. To load it manually, use:

```
(asdf:oos 'asdf:load-op :iterate-pg)
```

9 Obtaining Iterate

The information in this chapter is obsolete but included for completeness's sake; Currently, the most up-to-date information on iterate can be found at http://boinkor.net/iterate.html.

iterate currently runs on Lisp Machines, and on HP's, Sun3's and Sparcstations under Lucid. iterate source and binaries are available at the MIT AI Lab in the subdirectories of /src/local/lisplib/. The source file, iterate.lisp, is also available for anonymous FTP in the directory /com/fpt/pub/ on the machine TRIX.AI.MIT.EDU (Internet number 128.52.32.6). If you are unable to obtain iterate in one of these ways, send mail to jba@ai.mit.edu and I will send you the source file.

iterate resides in the iterate package (nickname iter). Just say (use-package "ITERATE") to make all the necessary symbols available. If a symbol is not exported, it appears in this manual with an "iterate::" prefix.

Send bug reports to bug-iterate@ai.mit.edu. The info-iterate mailing list will have notices of changes and problems; to have yourself added, send mail to info-iterate-request@ai.mit.edu.

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