# Programming Language—Common Lisp

12. Numbers

# 12.1 Number Concepts

# 12.1.1 Numeric Operations

Common Lisp provides a large variety of operations related to *numbers*. This section provides an overview of those operations by grouping them into categories that emphasize some of the relationships among them.

Figure 12-1 shows operators relating to arithmetic operations.

*	1+	gcd incf	
-	conjugate decf	lcm	
/	$\operatorname{\mathbf{decf}}$		

Figure 12-1. Operators relating to Arithmetic.

Figure 12–2 shows defined names relating to exponential, logarithmic, and trigonometric operations.

abs	cos	signum	
acos	$\cosh$	${f sin}$	
acosh	$\mathbf{exp}$	${f sinh}$	
asin	$\mathbf{expt}$	$\mathbf{sqrt}$	
asinh	$\mathbf{isqrt}$	an	
atan	$\log$	anh	
atanh	phase		
cis	pi		

Figure 12-2. Defined names relating to Exponentials, Logarithms, and Trigonometry.

Figure 12–3 shows operators relating to numeric comparison and predication.

/=	>=	oddp	
<	$\mathbf{evenp}$	oddp plusp	
<=	max	zerop	
=	$\mathbf{min}$		
>	minusp		

Figure 12–3. Operators for numeric comparison and predication.

Figure 12–4 shows defined names relating to numeric type manipulation and coercion.

ceiling	float-radix	rational
complex	${f float} ext{-}{f sign}$	rationalize
decode-float	floor	$\operatorname{realpart}$
denominator	${f fround}$	$\mathbf{rem}$
fceiling	ftruncate	round
ffloor	${f imagpart}$	scale-float
float	integer-decode-float	truncate
float-digits	f mod	
float-precision	numerator	

Figure 12-4. Defined names relating to numeric type manipulation and coercion.

#### 12.1.1.1 Associativity and Commutativity in Numeric Operations

For functions that are mathematically associative (and possibly commutative), a conforming implementation may process the arguments in any manner consistent with associative (and possibly commutative) rearrangement. This does not affect the order in which the argument forms are evaluated; for a discussion of evaluation order, see Section 3.1.2.1.2.3 (Function Forms). What is unspecified is only the order in which the parameter values are processed. This implies that implementations may differ in which automatic coercions are applied; see Section 12.1.1.2 (Contagion in Numeric Operations).

A conforming program can control the order of processing explicitly by separating the operations into separate (possibly nested)  $function\ forms$ , or by writing explicit calls to functions that perform coercions.

#### 12.1.1.1.1 Examples of Associativity and Commutativity in Numeric Operations

Consider the following expression, in which we assume that  $1.0\,\mathrm{and}\ 1.0\mathrm{e-}15$  both denote  $single\ floats$ :

```
(+ 1/3 2/3 1.0d0 1.0 1.0e-15)
```

One conforming implementation might process the arguments from left to right, first adding 1/3 and 2/3 to get 1, then converting that to a double float for combination with 1.0d0, then successively converting and adding 1.0 and 1.0e-15.

Another conforming implementation might process the arguments from right to left, first performing a single float addition of 1.0 and 1.0e-15 (perhaps losing accuracy in the process), then converting the sum to a double float and adding 1.0d0, then converting 2/3 to a double float and adding it, and then converting 1/3 and adding that.

A third conforming implementation might first scan all the arguments, process all the rationals first to keep that part of the computation exact, then find an argument of the largest floating-point

format among all the *arguments* and add that, and then add in all other *arguments*, converting each in turn (all in a perhaps misguided attempt to make the computation as accurate as possible).

In any case, all three strategies are legitimate.

A conforming program could control the order by writing, for example,

```
(+ (+ 1/3 2/3) (+ 1.0d0 1.0e-15) 1.0)
```

#### 12.1.1.2 Contagion in Numeric Operations

For information about the contagion rules for implicit coercions of *arguments* in numeric operations, see Section 12.1.4.4 (Rule of Float Precision Contagion), Section 12.1.4.1 (Rule of Float and Rational Contagion), and Section 12.1.5.2 (Rule of Complex Contagion).

#### 12.1.1.3 Viewing Integers as Bits and Bytes

#### 12.1.1.3.1 Logical Operations on Integers

Logical operations require *integers* as arguments; an error of *type* **type-error** should be signaled if an argument is supplied that is not an *integer*. *Integer* arguments to logical operations are treated as if they were represented in two's-complement notation.

Figure 12–5 shows defined names relating to logical operations on numbers.

ash	boole-ior	logbitp	
boole	boole-nand	$\log count$	
boole-1	boole-nor	logeqv	
boole-2	boole-orc1	logior	
boole-and	${f boole ext{-}orc2}$	lognand	
boole-andc1	$\mathbf{boole} ext{-}\mathbf{set}$	lognor	
boole-andc2	boole-xor	$\mathbf{lognot}$	
boole-c1	integer-length	logorc1	
boole-c2	logand	logorc2	
boole-clr	logandc1	logtest	
boole-eqv	$\log andc2$	$\log x$ or	

Figure 12-5. Defined names relating to logical operations on numbers.

#### 12.1.1.3.2 Byte Operations on Integers

The byte-manipulation functions use objects called byte specifiers to designate the size and position of a specific byte within an integer. The representation of a byte specifier is implementation-dependent; it might or might not be a number. The function byte will construct a byte specifier, which various other byte-manipulation functions will accept.

Figure 12–6 shows defined names relating to manipulating bytes of numbers.

byte	deposit-field	ldb-test	
byte-position	dpb	mask-field	
byte-size	ldb		

Figure 12-6. Defined names relating to byte manipulation.

# 12.1.2 Implementation-Dependent Numeric Constants

Figure 12–7 shows defined names relating to implementation-dependent details about numbers.

double-float-epsilon	most-negative-fixnum
double-float-negative-epsilon	${f most-negative-long-float}$
least-negative-double-float	most-negative-short-float
least-negative-long-float	most-negative-single-float
least-negative-short-float	most-positive-double-float
least-negative-single-float	most-positive-fixnum
least-positive-double-float	most-positive-long-float
least-positive-long-float	most-positive-short-float
least-positive-short-float	most-positive-single-float
least-positive-single-float	short-float-epsilon
long-float-epsilon	short-float-negative-epsilon
long-float-negative-epsilon	single-float-epsilon
most-negative-double-float	single-float-negative-epsilon

Figure 12-7. Defined names relating to implementation-dependent details about numbers.

# 12.1.3 Rational Computations

The rules in this section apply to rational computations.

#### 12.1.3.1 Rule of Unbounded Rational Precision

Rational computations cannot overflow in the usual sense (though there may not be enough storage to represent a result), since *integers* and *ratios* may in principle be of any magnitude.

#### 12.1.3.2 Rule of Canonical Representation for Rationals

If any computation produces a result that is a mathematical ratio of two integers such that the denominator evenly divides the numerator, then the result is converted to the equivalent *integer*.

If the denominator does not evenly divide the numerator, the canonical representation of a *rational* number is as the *ratio* that numerator and that denominator, where the greatest common divisor of the numerator and denominator is one, and where the denominator is positive and greater than one.

When used as input (in the default syntax), the notation -0 always denotes the *integer* 0. A conforming implementation must not have a representation of "minus zero" for integers that is distinct from its representation of zero for integers. However, such a distinction is possible for floats; see the type float.

# 12.1.3.3 Rule of Float Substitutability

When the arguments to an irrational mathematical function are all rational and the true mathematical result is also (mathematically) rational, then unless otherwise noted an implementation is free to return either an accurate rational result or a single float approximation. If the arguments are all rational but the result cannot be expressed as a rational number, then a single float approximation is always returned.

If the arguments to an irrational mathematical function are all of type (or rational (complex rational)) and the true mathematical result is (mathematically) a complex number with rational real and imaginary parts, then unless otherwise noted an implementation is free to return either an accurate result of type (or rational (complex rational)) or a single float (permissible only if the imaginary part of the true mathematical result is zero) or (complex single-float). If the arguments are all of type (or rational (complex rational)) but the result cannot be expressed as a rational or complex rational, then the returned value will be of type single-float (permissible only if the imaginary part of the true mathematical result is zero) or (complex single-float).

Float substitutability applies neither to the rational functions +, -, \*, and / nor to the related operators 1+, 1-, incf, decf, and conjugate. For rational functions, if all arguments are rational, then the result is rational; if all arguments are of type (or rational (complex rational)), then the result is of type (or rational (complex rational)).

Function	Sample Results
abs	(abs #c(3 4)) $ ightarrow$ 5 $or$ 5.0
acos	(acos 1) $ ightarrow$ 0 or 0.0
acosh	(acosh 1) $ ightarrow$ 0 $or$ 0.0
asin	(asin 0) $ ightarrow$ 0 $or$ 0.0
asinh	(asinh 0) $ ightarrow$ 0 $or$ 0.0
atan	(atan 0) $ ightarrow$ 0 $or$ 0.0
atanh	(atanh 0) $ ightarrow$ 0 $or$ 0.0
cis	(cis 0) $ ightarrow$ 1 $or$ #c(1.0 0.0)
cos	(cos 0) $ ightarrow$ 1 or 1.0
cosh	(cosh 0) $ ightarrow$ 1 $or$ 1.0
exp	(exp 0) $ ightarrow$ 1 or 1.0
expt	(expt 8 1/3) $ ightarrow$ 2 $or$ 2.0
log	(log 1) $ ightarrow$ 0 or 0.0
	(log 8 2) $ ightarrow$ 3 $or$ 3.0
phase	(phase 7) $ ightarrow$ 0 $or$ 0.0
signum	(signum #c(3 4)) $ ightarrow$ #c(3/5 4/5) $or$ #c(0.6 0.8)
sin	(sin 0) $ ightarrow$ 0 or 0.0
sinh	(sinh 0) $ ightarrow$ 0 or 0.0
$\operatorname{\mathbf{sqrt}}$	(sqrt 4) $ ightarrow$ 2 $or$ 2.0
	(sqrt 9/16) $ ightarrow$ 3/4 $or$ 0.75
tan	(tan 0) $ ightarrow$ 0 $or$ 0.0
tanh	(tanh 0) $ ightarrow$ 0 or 0.0

Figure 12-8. Functions Affected by Rule of Float Substitutability

# 12.1.4 Floating-point Computations

The following rules apply to floating point computations.

# 12.1.4.1 Rule of Float and Rational Contagion

When rationals and floats are combined by a numerical function, the rational is first converted to a float of the same format. For functions such as + that take more than two arguments, it is permitted that part of the operation be carried out exactly using rationals and the rest be done using floating-point arithmetic.

When rationals and floats are compared by a numerical function, the function rational is effectively called to convert the float to a rational and then an exact comparison is performed. In the case of complex numbers, the real and imaginary parts are effectively handled individually.

# 12.1.4.1.1 Examples of Rule of Float and Rational Contagion

```
;;;; Combining rationals with floats.
;;; This example assumes an implementation in which
;;; (float-radix 0.5) is 2 (as in IEEE) or 16 (as in IBM/360),
;;; or else some other implementation in which 1/2 has an exact
;;; representation in floating point.
(+\ 1/2\ 0.5) \rightarrow 1.0
(-\ 1/2\ 0.5d0) \rightarrow 0.0d0
(+\ 0.5\ -0.5\ 1/2) \rightarrow 0.5
;;;; Comparing rationals with floats.
;;; This example assumes an implementation in which the default float
;;; format is IEEE single-float, IEEE double-float, or some other format
;;; in which 5/7 is rounded upwards by FLOAT.
(<\ 5/7\ (float\ 5/7)) \rightarrow true
(<\ 5/7\ (rational\ (float\ 5/7))) \rightarrow true
(<\ (float\ 5/7)\ (float\ 5/7)) \rightarrow false
```

# 12.1.4.2 Rule of Float Approximation

Computations with floats are only approximate, although they are described as if the results were mathematically accurate. Two mathematically identical expressions may be computationally different because of errors inherent in the floating-point approximation process. The precision of a float is not necessarily correlated with the accuracy of that number. For instance, 3.142857142857142857 is a more precise approximation to  $\pi$  than 3.14159, but the latter is more accurate. The precision refers to the number of bits retained in the representation. When an operation combines a short float with a long float, the result will be a long float. Common Lisp functions assume that the accuracy of arguments to them does not exceed their precision. Therefore when two small floats are combined, the result is a small float. Common Lisp functions never convert automatically from a larger size to a smaller one.

#### 12.1.4.3 Rule of Float Underflow and Overflow

An error of *type* **floating-point-overflow** or **floating-point-underflow** should be signaled if a floating-point computation causes exponent overflow or underflow, respectively.

#### 12.1.4.4 Rule of Float Precision Contagion

The result of a numerical function is a *float* of the largest format among all the floating-point arguments to the *function*.

# 12.1.5 Complex Computations

The following rules apply to *complex* computations:

# 12.1.5.1 Rule of Complex Substitutability

Except during the execution of irrational and transcendental functions, no numerical function ever yields a complex unless one or more of its arguments is a complex.

# 12.1.5.2 Rule of Complex Contagion

When a real and a complex are both part of a computation, the real is first converted to a complex by providing an imaginary part of 0.

# 12.1.5.3 Rule of Canonical Representation for Complex Rationals

If the result of any computation would be a *complex* number whose real part is of *type* rational and whose imaginary part is zero, the result is converted to the *rational* which is the real part. This rule does not apply to *complex* numbers whose parts are *floats*. For example, #C(5 0) and 5 are not *different objects* in Common Lisp(they are always the *same* under eql); #C(5.0 0.0) and 5.0 are always *different objects* in Common Lisp (they are never the *same* under eql, although they are the *same* under equalp and =).

#### 12.1.5.3.1 Examples of Rule of Canonical Representation for Complex Rationals

```
#c(1.0 1.0) \rightarrow #C(1.0 1.0)

#c(0.0 0.0) \rightarrow #C(0.0 0.0)

#c(1.0 1) \rightarrow #C(1.0 1.0)

#c(0.0 0) \rightarrow #C(0.0 0.0)

#c(1 1) \rightarrow #C(1 1)

#c(0 0) \rightarrow 0

(typep #c(1 1) '(complex (eql 1))) \rightarrow true

(typep #c(0 0) '(complex (eql 0))) \rightarrow false
```

# 12.1.5.4 Principal Values and Branch Cuts

Many of the irrational and transcendental functions are multiply defined in the complex domain; for example, there are in general an infinite number of complex values for the logarithm function. In each such case, a *principal value* must be chosen for the function to return. In general, such values cannot be chosen so as to make the range continuous; lines in the domain called branch cuts must be defined, which in turn define the discontinuities in the range. Common Lisp defines the branch cuts, *principal values*, and boundary conditions for the complex functions following "Principal Values and Branch Cuts in Complex APL." The branch cut rules that apply to each function are located with the description of that function.

Figure 12–9 lists the identities that are obeyed throughout the applicable portion of the complex domain, even on the branch cuts:

$\sin i z = i \sinh z$	$\sinh i z = i \sin z$	$\arctan i z = i \operatorname{arctanh} z$
$\cos i z = \cosh z$	$\cosh i z = \cos z$	$\arcsin z = i \arcsin z$
$\tan i z = i \tanh z$	$\arcsin i z = i \arcsin z$	$\operatorname{arctanh} i z = i \arctan z$

Figure 12–9. Trigonometric Identities for Complex Domain

The quadrant numbers referred to in the discussions of branch cuts are as illustrated in Figure 12–10.

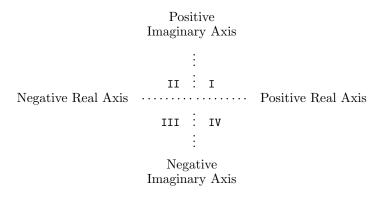


Figure 12-10. Quadrant Numbering for Branch Cuts

# 12.1.6 Interval Designators

The compound type specifier form of the numeric type specifiers permit the user to specify an interval on the real number line which describe a subtype of the type which would be described by

the corresponding atomic type specifier. A subtype of some type T is specified using an ordered pair of objects called interval designators for type T.

The first of the two interval designators for type T can be any of the following:

a number N of type T

This denotes a lower inclusive bound of N. That is, *elements* of the *subtype* of T will be greater than or equal to N.

a singleton list whose element is a number M of type T

This denotes a lower exclusive bound of M. That is, elements of the subtype of T will be greater than M.

the symbol \*

This denotes the absence of a lower bound on the interval.

The second of the two *interval designators* for type T can be any of the following:

a number N of type T

This denotes an upper inclusive bound of N. That is, *elements* of the *subtype* of T will be less than or equal to N.

a singleton list whose element is a number M of type T

This denotes an upper exclusive bound of M. That is, elements of the subtype of T will be less than M.

the symbol \*

This denotes the absence of an upper bound on the interval.

# 12.1.7 Random-State Operations

Figure 12–11 lists some defined names that are applicable to random states.

*random-state*	random
make-random-state	random-state-p

Figure 12-11. Random-state defined names

number System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

number, t

#### **Description:**

The type number contains objects which represent mathematical numbers. The types real and complex are disjoint subtypes of number.

The function = tests for numerical equality. The function eql, when its arguments are both numbers, tests that they have both the same type and numerical value. Two numbers that are the same under eql or = are not necessarily the same under eq.

#### Notes:

Common Lisp differs from mathematics on some naming issues. In mathematics, the set of real numbers is traditionally described as a subset of the complex numbers, but in Common Lisp, the *type* real and the *type* complex are disjoint. The Common Lisp type which includes all mathematical complex numbers is called **number**. The reasons for these differences include historical precedent, compatibility with most other popular computer languages, and various issues of time and space efficiency.

complex System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

complex, number, t

#### **Description:**

The type complex includes all mathematical complex numbers other than those included in the type rational. Complexes are expressed in Cartesian form with a real part and an imaginary part, each of which is a real. The real part and imaginary part are either both rational or both of the same float type. The imaginary part can be a float zero, but can never be a rational zero, for such a number is always represented by Common Lisp as a rational rather than a complex.

#### Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Specializing.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(complex [typespec | \*])

# Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

typespec—a type specifier that denotes a subtype of type real.

# Compound Type Specifier Description:

Every element of this *type* is a *complex* whose real part and imaginary part are each of type (upgraded-complex-part-type *typespec*). This *type* encompasses those *complexes* that can result by giving numbers of *type typespec* to **complex**.

(complex type-specifier) refers to all complexes that can result from giving numbers of type type-specifier to the function complex, plus all other complexes of the same specialized representation.

#### See Also:

Section 12.1.5.3 (Rule of Canonical Representation for Complex Rationals), Section 2.3.2 (Constructing Numbers from Tokens), Section 22.1.3.1.4 (Printing Complexes)

#### Notes:

The input syntax for a *complex* with real part r and imaginary part i is #C(r i). For further details, see Section 2.4 (Standard Macro Characters).

For every float, n, there is a complex which represents the same mathematical number and which can be obtained by (COERCE n 'COMPLEX).

real System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

real, number, t

#### **Description:**

The type real includes all numbers that represent mathematical real numbers, though there are mathematical real numbers (e.g., irrational numbers) that do not have an exact representation in Common Lisp. Only reals can be ordered using the <, >, <=, and >= functions.

The types rational and float are disjoint subtypes of type real.

#### Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

# Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(real [lower-limit [upper-limit]])

# Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

lower-limit, upper-limit—interval designators for type real. The defaults for each of lower-limit and upper-limit is the symbol \*.

# Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the reals on the interval described by lower-limit and upper-limit.

float System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

float, real, number, t

# Description:

A float is a mathematical rational (but not a Common Lisp rational) of the form  $s \cdot f \cdot b^{e-p}$ , where s is +1 or -1, the sign; b is an integer greater than 1, the base or radix of the representation; p is a positive integer, the precision (in base-b digits) of the float; f is a positive integer between  $b^{p-1}$  and  $b^p - 1$  (inclusive), the significand; and e is an integer, the exponent. The value of p and the range of e depends on the implementation and on the type of float within that implementation. In addition, there is a floating-point zero; depending on the implementation, there can also be a "minus zero". If there is no minus zero, then 0.0 and -0.0 are both interpreted as simply a floating-point zero. (= 0.0 -0.0) is always true. If there is a minus zero, (eq1 -0.0 0.0) is false, otherwise it is true.

The types short-float, single-float, double-float, and long-float are subtypes of type float. Any two of them must be either disjoint types or the same type; if the same type, then any other types between them in the above ordering must also be the same type. For example, if the type single-float and the type long-float are the same type, then the type double-float must be the same type also.

# Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(float [lower-limit [upper-limit]])

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

lower-limit, upper-limit—interval designators for type float. The defaults for each of lower-limit and upper-limit is the symbol \*.

#### Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the *floats* on the interval described by *lower-limit* and *upper-limit*.

#### See Also:

Figure 2–9, Section 2.3.2 (Constructing Numbers from Tokens), Section 22.1.3.1.3 (Printing Floats)

#### Notes:

Note that all mathematical integers are representable not only as Common Lisp reals, but also as  $complex\ floats$ . For example, possible representations of the mathematical number 1 include the  $integer\ 1$ , the  $float\ 1.0$ , or the  $complex\ \#C(1.0\ 0.0)$ .

# ${f short\text{-float}}, {f single\text{-float}}, {f double\text{-float}}, {f long\text{-float}}$

#### **Supertypes:**

short-float: short-float, float, real, number, t single-float: single-float, float, real, number, t double-float: double-float, float, real, number, t long-float: long-float, float, real, number, t

# **Description:**

For the four defined subtypes of type float, it is true that intermediate between the type short-float and the type long-float are the type single-float and the type double-float. The precise definition of these categories is implementation-defined. The precision (measured in "bits", computed as  $p \log_2 b$ ) and the exponent size (also measured in "bits," computed as  $\log_2(n+1)$ , where n is the maximum exponent value) is recommended to be at least as great as the values in Figure 12–12. Each of the defined subtypes of type float might or might not have a minus zero.

Format	Minimum Precision	Minimum Exponent Size
Short	13 bits	5 bits
Single	24 bits	8 bits
Double	50 bits	8 bits
Long	50 bits	8 bits

Figure 12-12. Recommended Minimum Floating-Point Precision and Exponent Size

There can be fewer than four internal representations for *floats*. If there are fewer distinct representations, the following rules apply:

- If there is only one, it is the *type* single-float. In this representation, an *object* is simultaneously of *types* single-float, double-float, short-float, and long-float.
- Two internal representations can be arranged in either of the following ways:

- Two types are provided: single-float and short-float. An object is simultaneously of types single-float, double-float, and long-float.
- Two types are provided: single-float and double-float. An object is simultaneously of types single-float and short-float, or double-float and long-float.
- Three internal representations can be arranged in either of the following ways:
  - Three types are provided: **short-float**, **single-float**, and **double-float**. An object can simultaneously be of type **double-float** and **long-float**.
  - Three types are provided: single-float, double-float, and long-float. An object can simultaneously be of types single-float and short-float.

# Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

# Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

```
(short-float [short-lower-limit [short-upper-limit]])
(single-float [single-lower-limit [single-upper-limit]])
(double-float [double-lower-limit [double-upper-limit]])
(long-float [long-lower-limit [long-upper-limit]])
```

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

short-lower-limit, short-upper-limit—interval designators for type short-float. The defaults for each of lower-limit and upper-limit is the symbol \*.

single-lower-limit, single-upper-limit—interval designators for type single-float. The defaults for each of lower-limit and upper-limit is the symbol \*.

double-lower-limit, double-upper-limit—interval designators for type double-float. The defaults for each of lower-limit and upper-limit is the symbol \*.

long-lower-limit, long-upper-limit—interval designators for type long-float. The defaults for each of lower-limit and upper-limit is the symbol \*.

#### Compound Type Specifier Description:

Each of these denotes the set of *floats* of the indicated *type* that are on the interval specified by the *interval designators*.

rational System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

rational, real, number, t

#### Description:

The canonical representation of a rational is as an integer if its value is integral, and otherwise as a ratio.

The types integer and ratio are disjoint subtypes of type rational.

# Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(rational [lower-limit [upper-limit]])

# Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

lower-limit, upper-limit—interval designators for type rational. The defaults for each of lower-limit and upper-limit is the symbol \*.

# Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the rationals on the interval described by lower-limit and upper-limit.

ratio System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

ratio, rational, real, number, t

#### **Description:**

A *ratio* is a *number* representing the mathematical ratio of two non-zero integers, the numerator and denominator, whose greatest common divisor is one, and of which the denominator is positive and greater than one.

#### See Also:

Figure 2–9, Section 2.3.2 (Constructing Numbers from Tokens), Section 22.1.3.1.2 (Printing Ratios)

integer System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

integer, rational, real, number, t

#### **Description:**

An *integer* is a mathematical integer. There is no limit on the magnitude of an *integer*.

The types fixnum and bignum form an exhaustive partition of type integer.

# Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(integer [lower-limit [upper-limit]])

# Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

lower-limit, upper-limit—interval designators for type integer. The defaults for each of lower-limit and upper-limit is the symbol \*.

# Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the *integers* on the interval described by *lower-limit* and *upper-limit*.

#### See Also:

Figure 2–9, Section 2.3.2 (Constructing Numbers from Tokens), Section 22.1.3.1.1 (Printing Integers)

#### Notes:

The type (integer lower upper), where lower and upper are most-negative-fixnum and most-positive-fixnum, respectively, is also called fixnum.

The type (integer 0 1) is also called bit. The type (integer 0 \*) is also called unsigned-byte.

# signed-byte

Type

# **Supertypes:**

signed-byte, integer, rational, real, number, t

#### **Description:**

The atomic type specifier signed-byte denotes the same type as is denoted by the type specifier integer; however, the list forms of these two type specifiers have different semantics.

# Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

# Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(signed-byte  $[s \mid *]$ )

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

s—a positive integer.

# Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the set of *integers* that can be represented in two's-complement form in a *byte* of s bits. This is equivalent to (integer  $-2^{s-1} 2^{s-1} - 1$ ). The type signed-byte or the type (signed-byte \*) is the same as the *type* integer.

# unsigned-byte

Type

# **Supertypes:**

unsigned-byte, signed-byte, integer, rational, real, number, t

#### **Description:**

The atomic type specifier unsigned-byte denotes the same type as is denoted by the type specifier (integer 0 \*).

#### Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(unsigned-byte  $[s \mid *]$ )

# Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

s—a positive integer.

#### Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the set of non-negative *integers* that can be represented in a byte of size s (bits). This is equivalent to (mod m) for  $m = 2^s$ , or to (integer 0 n) for  $n = 2^s - 1$ . The type unsigned-byte or the type (unsigned-byte \*) is the same as the type (integer 0 \*), the set of non-negative *integers*.

### Notes:

The type (unsigned-byte 1) is also called bit.

mod Type Specifier

# Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

# Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(mod n)

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

*n*—a positive *integer*.

# Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the set of non-negative *integers* less than n. This is equivalent to (integer 0 (n)) or to (integer 0 m), where m = n - 1.

The argument is required, and cannot be \*.

The symbol **mod** is not valid as a *type specifier*.

**bit** 

### **Supertypes:**

bit, unsigned-byte, signed-byte, integer, rational, real, number, t

#### **Description:**

The type bit is equivalent to the type (integer 0 1) and (unsigned-byte 1).

**fixnum** Type

#### **Supertypes:**

fixnum, integer, rational, real, number, t

#### Description:

A fixnum is an integer whose value is between most-negative-fixnum and most-positive-fixnum inclusive. Exactly which integers are fixnums is implementation-defined. The type fixnum is required to be a supertype of (signed-byte 16).

**bignum** Type

# **Supertypes:**

bignum, integer, rational, real, number, t

#### **Description:**

The type bignum is defined to be exactly (and integer (not fixnum)).

Function

# Syntax:

= &rest numbers $^+$   $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

/= &rest numbers $^+$   $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

< &rest numbers $^+$  o generalized-boolean

> &rest numbers $^+$   $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

 $\leq$  &rest numbers $^+$   $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

>= &rest numbers $^+$   $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

#### **Arguments and Values:**

*number*—for <, >, <=, >=: a real; for =, /=: a number.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### **Description:**

=, /=, <, >, <=, and >= perform arithmetic comparisons on their arguments as follows:

=

The value of = is *true* if all *numbers* are the same in value; otherwise it is *false*. Two *complexes* are considered equal by = if their real and imaginary parts are equal according to =.

/=

The value of /= is true if no two numbers are the same in value; otherwise it is false.

# =, /=, <, >, <=, >=

<

The value of < is true if the numbers are in monotonically increasing order; otherwise it is false.

>

The value of > is true if the numbers are in monotonically decreasing order; otherwise it is false.

<=

The value of  $\leq$  is *true* if the *numbers* are in monotonically nondecreasing order; otherwise it is *false*.

>=

The value of  $\geq$  is *true* if the *numbers* are in monotonically nonincreasing order; otherwise it is *false*.

=, /=, <, >, <=, and >= perform necessary type conversions.

# **Examples:**

The uses of these functions are illustrated in Figure 12–13.

```
(/= 3 3) is false.
(= 3 3) is true.
(= 3 5) is false.
                                             (/= 3 5) is true.
(= 3 3 3 3) is true.
                                             (/= 3 \ 3 \ 3 \ 3) is false.
(= 3 3 5 3) is false.
                                             (/= 3 \ 3 \ 5 \ 3) is false.
(= 3 6 5 2) is false.
                                             (/= 3 6 5 2) is true.
(= 3 2 3) is false.
                                             (/= 3 \ 2 \ 3) \text{ is } false.
(< 3 5) is true.
                                             (<= 3 5) is true.
(< 3 -5) is false.
                                             (<= 3 -5) is false.
(< 3 3) is false.
                                             (<= 3 3) is true.
(< 0 3 4 6 7) is true.
                                             (<= 0 3 4 6 7) is true.
(< 0 3 4 4 6) is false.
                                             (<= 0 3 4 4 6) is true.
(> 4 3) is true.
                                             (>= 4 3) is true.
(> 4 3 2 1 0) is true.
                                             (>= 4 3 2 1 0) is true.
(> 4 3 3 2 0) is false.
                                             (>= 4 3 3 2 0) is true.
(> 4 3 1 2 0) is false.
                                             (>= 4 \ 3 \ 1 \ 2 \ 0) is false.
(= 3) is true.
                                             (/= 3) is true.
(< 3) is true.
                                             (<= 3) is true.
(= 3.0 \#c(3.0 0.0)) is true.
                                             (/= 3.0 \ \#c(3.0 \ 1.0)) is true.
(= 3 3.0) is true.
                                             (= 3.0s0 3.0d0) is true.
(= 0.0 -0.0) is true.
                                             (= 5/2 2.5) is true.
(> 0.0 -0.0) is false.
                                             (= 0 -0.0) is true.
(<= 0 \times 9) is true if x is between 0 and 9, inclusive
(< 0.0 x 1.0) is true if x is between 0.0 and 1.0, exclusive
(< -1 j (length v)) is true if j is a valid array index for a vector v
```

Figure 12–13. Uses of /=, =, <, >, <=, and >=

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Might signal **type-error** if some *argument* is not a *real*. Might signal **arithmetic-error** if otherwise unable to fulfill its contract.

#### **Notes:**

= differs from eql in that (= 0.0 -0.0) is always true, because = compares the mathematical values of its operands, whereas eql compares the representational values, so to speak.

max, min Function

#### Syntax:

 $\max \& rest reals^+ \rightarrow max$ -real

 $\min \& rest reals^+ \rightarrow min-real$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

real—a real.

max-real, min-real—a real.

# **Description:**

max returns the *real* that is greatest (closest to positive infinity). min returns the *real* that is least (closest to negative infinity).

For max, the implementation has the choice of returning the largest argument as is or applying the rules of floating-point *contagion*, taking all the arguments into consideration for *contagion* purposes. Also, if one or more of the arguments are =, then any one of them may be chosen as the value to return. For example, if the *reals* are a mixture of *rationals* and *floats*, and the largest argument is a *rational*, then the implementation is free to produce either that *rational* or its *float* approximation; if the largest argument is a *float* of a smaller format than the largest format of any *float* argument, then the implementation is free to return the argument in its given format or expanded to the larger format. Similar remarks apply to min (replacing "largest argument" by "smallest argument").

# **Examples:**

```
(max 3) \rightarrow 3
 (min 3) \rightarrow 3
 (max 6 12) \rightarrow 12
 (min 6 12) \rightarrow 6
 (max -6 -12) \rightarrow -6
 (min -6 -12) \rightarrow -12
 (max 1 3 2 -7) \rightarrow 3
 (min 1 3 2 -7) \rightarrow -7
 (max -2 3 0 7) \rightarrow 7
 (min -2 3 0 7) \rightarrow -2
 (max 5.0 2) \rightarrow 5.0
 (min 5.0 2)
\stackrel{
ightarrow}{\stackrel{or}{
ightarrow}} 2.0
 (max 3.0 7 1)
\begin{array}{c} 
ightarrow 7 \\ \stackrel{or}{
ightarrow} 7.0 \end{array}
 (min 3.0 7 1)
\stackrel{
ightarrow}{\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow}} 1.0
 (\texttt{max 1.0s0 7.0d0}) \rightarrow \texttt{7.0d0}
```

```
\begin{array}{c} (\min \ 1.0 \text{so} \ 7.0 \text{d0}) \\ \rightarrow \ 1.0 \text{so} \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \ 1.0 \text{d0} \\ (\max \ 3 \ 1 \ 1.0 \text{so} \ 1.0 \text{d0}) \\ \rightarrow \ 3 \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \ 3.0 \text{d0} \\ (\min \ 3 \ 1 \ 1.0 \text{so} \ 1.0 \text{d0}) \\ \rightarrow \ 1 \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \ 1.0 \text{so} \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \ 1.0 \text{d0} \end{array}
```

# **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if any number is not a real.

# minusp, plusp

Function

# **Syntax:**

```
egin{array}{ll} egi
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
real—a real.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### Description:

minusp returns true if real is less than zero; otherwise, returns false.

**plusp** returns *true* if *real* is greater than zero; otherwise, returns *false*.

Regardless of whether an *implementation* provides distinct representations for positive and negative *float* zeros, (minusp -0.0) always returns *false*.

#### **Examples:**

```
(minusp -1) \to true (plusp 0) \to false (plusp least-positive-single-float) \to true
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if real is not a real.

zerop

# **Syntax:**

 ${f zerop}$  number ightarrow generalized-boolean

#### **Pronunciation:**

```
[ | ze(_1)ro(_1)pe |
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

number—a number.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### **Description:**

Returns true if number is zero (integer, float, or complex); otherwise, returns false.

Regardless of whether an *implementation* provides distinct representations for positive and negative floating-point zeros, (zerop -0.0) always returns *true*.

# **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\texttt{zerop 0}) \to true \\ (\texttt{zerop 1}) \to false \\ (\texttt{zerop -0.0}) \to true \\ (\texttt{zerop 0/100}) \to true \\ (\texttt{zerop \#c(0 0.0)}) \to true \end{array}
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if number is not a number.

#### Notes:

```
(zerop number) \equiv (= number 0)
```

# floor, ffloor, ceiling, fceiling, truncate, ftruncate, round, fround Function

# Syntax:

```
\begin{array}{lll} {\rm floor} \ number \ \& {\rm optional} \ divisor & \to \ quotient, \ remainder \\ {\rm ffloor} \ number \ \& {\rm optional} \ divisor & \to \ quotient, \ remainder \\ {\rm ceiling} \ number \ \& {\rm optional} \ divisor & \to \ quotient, \ remainder \\ \end{array}
```

# floor, ffloor, ceiling, fceiling, truncate, ftruncate, ...

fceiling number & optional divisor  $\rightarrow$  quotient, remainder truncate number & optional divisor  $\rightarrow$  quotient, remainder fruncate number & optional divisor  $\rightarrow$  quotient, remainder round number & optional divisor  $\rightarrow$  quotient, remainder  $\rightarrow$  quotient, remainder  $\rightarrow$  quotient, remainder

# **Arguments and Values:**

number—a real.

divisor—a non-zero real. The default is the integer 1.

quotient—for floor, ceiling, truncate, and round: an integer; for ffloor, fceiling, ftruncate, and fround: a float.

remainder—a real.

# **Description:**

These functions divide *number* by *divisor*, returning a *quotient* and *remainder*, such that

quotient · divisor + remainder = number

The *quotient* always represents a mathematical integer. When more than one mathematical integer might be possible (i.e., when the remainder is not zero), the kind of rounding or truncation depends on the *operator*:

#### floor, ffloor

**floor** and **ffloor** produce a *quotient* that has been truncated toward negative infinity; that is, the *quotient* represents the largest mathematical integer that is not larger than the mathematical quotient.

#### ceiling, fceiling

**ceiling** and **fceiling** produce a *quotient* that has been truncated toward positive infinity; that is, the *quotient* represents the smallest mathematical integer that is not smaller than the mathematical result.

#### truncate, ftruncate

truncate and ftruncate produce a *quotient* that has been truncated towards zero; that is, the *quotient* represents the mathematical integer of the same sign as the mathematical quotient, and that has the greatest integral magnitude not greater than that of the mathematical quotient.

#### round, fround

**round** and **fround** produce a *quotient* that has been rounded to the nearest mathematical integer; if the mathematical quotient is exactly halfway between two integers, (that is, it

# floor, ffloor, ceiling, fceiling, truncate, ftruncate, ...

has the form  $integer + \frac{1}{2}$ ), then the *quotient* has been rounded to the even (divisible by two) integer.

All of these functions perform type conversion operations on *numbers*.

The remainder is an integer if both x and y are integers, is a rational if both x and y are rationals, and is a float if either x or y is a float.

ffloor, fceiling, ftruncate, and fround handle arguments of different types in the following way: If number is a float, and divisor is not a float of longer format, then the first result is a float of the same type as number. Otherwise, the first result is of the type determined by contagion rules; see Section 12.1.1.2 (Contagion in Numeric Operations).

# **Examples:**

```
(floor 3/2) \rightarrow 1, 1/2
 (ceiling 3 2) \rightarrow 2, -1
 (ffloor 3 2) \rightarrow 1.0, 1
 (ffloor -4.7) \rightarrow -5.0, 0.3
 (ffloor 3.5d0) \rightarrow 3.0d0, 0.5d0
 (fceiling 3/2) \rightarrow 2.0, -1/2
 (truncate 1) 
ightarrow 1, 0
 (truncate .5) \rightarrow 0, 0.5
 (round .5) \rightarrow 0, 0.5
 (ftruncate -7 2) \rightarrow -3.0, -1
 (fround -7 2) \rightarrow -4.0, 1
 (dolist (n '(2.6 2.5 2.4 0.7 0.3 -0.3 -0.7 -2.4 -2.5 -2.6))
   (format t "~&~4,1@F ~2,' D ~2,' D ~2,' D ~2,' D"
           n (floor n) (ceiling n) (truncate n) (round n)))
> +2.4 2 3 2
> +0.7
        0 1 0
> +0.3 0 1 0
> -0.3 -1 0 0 0
▷ -2.4 -3 -2 -2 -2
▷ -2.5 -3 -2 -2 -2
▷ -2.6 -3 -2 -2 -3

ightarrow NIL
```

#### Notes:

When only *number* is given, the two results are exact; the mathematical sum of the two results is always equal to the mathematical value of *number*.

(function number divisor) and (function (/ number divisor)) (where function is any of one of floor, ceiling, ffloor, feeiling, truncate, round, ftruncate, and fround) return the same first value,

but they return different remainders as the second value. For example:

```
(floor 5 2) \rightarrow 2, 1 (floor (/ 5 2)) \rightarrow 2, 1/2
```

If an effect is desired that is similar to **round**, but that always rounds up or down (rather than toward the nearest even integer) if the mathematical quotient is exactly halfway between two integers, the programmer should consider a construction such as (floor (+ x 1/2)) or (ceiling (- x 1/2)).

# sin, cos, tan

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

```
\sin radians \rightarrow number
\cos radians \rightarrow number
\tan radians \rightarrow number
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

radians—a number given in radians.

number—a number.

#### **Description:**

sin, cos, and tan return the sine, cosine, and tangent, respectively, of radians.

#### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\sin \ 0) \ \rightarrow \ 0.0 \\ (\cos \ 0.7853982) \ \rightarrow \ 0.707107 \\ (\tan \ \#c(0 \ 1)) \ \rightarrow \ \#C(0.0 \ 0.761594) \end{array}
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *radians* is not a *number*. Might signal **arithmetic-error**.

# See Also:

asin, acos, atan, Section 12.1.3.3 (Rule of Float Substitutability)

# asin, acos, atan

# asin, acos, atan

*Function* 

# Syntax:

```
asin number 	o radians acos number 	o radians atan number1 & optional number2 	o radians
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
number—a number.
number1—a number if number2 is not supplied, or a real if number2 is supplied.
number2—a real.
radians—a number (of radians).
```

# **Description:**

asin, acos, and atan compute the arc sine, arc cosine, and arc tangent respectively.

The arc sine, arc cosine, and arc tangent (with only number1 supplied) functions can be defined mathematically for number1 specified as x as in Figure 12–14.

Function	Definition
Arc sine	$-i \log (ix + \sqrt{1-x^2})$
Arc cosine	$(\pi/2)$ - arcsin $x$
Arc tangent	$-i \log \left( (1+ix) \ \sqrt{1/(1+x^2)}  ight)$

Figure 12-14. Mathematical definition of arc sine, arc cosine, and arc tangent

These formulae are mathematically correct, assuming completely accurate computation. They are not necessarily the simplest ones for real-valued computations.

If both number1 and number2 are supplied for atan, the result is the arc tangent of number1/number2. The value of atan is always between  $-\pi$  (exclusive) and  $\pi$  (inclusive) when minus zero is not supported. The range of the two-argument arc tangent when minus zero is supported includes  $-\pi$ .

For a real number1, the result is a real and lies between  $-\pi/2$  and  $\pi/2$  (both exclusive). number1 can be a complex if number2 is not supplied. If both are supplied, number2 can be zero provided number1 is not zero.

The following definition for arc sine determines the range and branch cuts:

# asin, acos, atan

$$\arcsin\,z = -i\,\log\,\left(iz + \sqrt{1-z^2}\right)$$

The branch cut for the arc sine function is in two pieces: one along the negative real axis to the left of -1 (inclusive), continuous with quadrant II, and one along the positive real axis to the right of 1 (inclusive), continuous with quadrant IV. The range is that strip of the complex plane containing numbers whose real part is between  $-\pi/2$  and  $\pi/2$ . A number with real part equal to  $-\pi/2$  is in the range if and only if its imaginary part is non-negative; a number with real part equal to  $\pi/2$  is in the range if and only if its imaginary part is non-positive.

The following definition for arc cosine determines the range and branch cuts:

$$\arccos\,z = \frac{\pi}{2} - \arcsin\,z$$

or, which are equivalent,

$$\arccos\,z = -i\,\log\,\left(z + i\,\sqrt{1-z^2}\right)$$

$$\arccos\,z = \frac{2\,\log\,\left(\sqrt{(1+z)/2} + i\,\sqrt{(1-z)/2}\right)}{i}$$

The branch cut for the arc cosine function is in two pieces: one along the negative real axis to the left of -1 (inclusive), continuous with quadrant II, and one along the positive real axis to the right of 1 (inclusive), continuous with quadrant IV. This is the same branch cut as for arc sine. The range is that strip of the complex plane containing numbers whose real part is between 0 and  $\pi$ . A number with real part equal to 0 is in the range if and only if its imaginary part is non-negative; a number with real part equal to  $\pi$  is in the range if and only if its imaginary part is non-positive.

The following definition for (one-argument) arc tangent determines the range and branch cuts:

$$\arctan\,z = \frac{\log\,\left(1+iz\right) - \log\,\left(1-iz\right)}{2i}$$

Beware of simplifying this formula; "obvious" simplifications are likely to alter the branch cuts or the values on the branch cuts incorrectly. The branch cut for the arc tangent function is in two pieces: one along the positive imaginary axis above i (exclusive), continuous with quadrant II, and one along the negative imaginary axis below -i (exclusive), continuous with quadrant IV. The points i and -i are excluded from the domain. The range is that strip of the complex plane containing numbers whose real part is between  $-\pi/2$  and  $\pi/2$ . A number with real part equal to  $-\pi/2$  is in the range if and only if its imaginary part is strictly positive; a number with real part equal to  $\pi/2$  is in the range if and only if its imaginary part is strictly negative. Thus the range of arc tangent is identical to that of arc sine with the points  $-\pi/2$  and  $\pi/2$  excluded.

For atan, the signs of number1 (indicated as x) and number2 (indicated as y) are used to derive quadrant information. Figure 12–15 details various special cases. The asterisk (\*) indicates that the entry in the figure applies to implementations that support minus zero.

	y Condition	x Condition	Cartesian locus	Range of result
	y = 0	x > 0	Positive x-axis	0
*	y = +0	x > 0	Positive x-axis	+0
*	y = -0	x > 0	Positive x-axis	-0
	y > 0	x > 0	Quadrant I	$0 < \text{result} < \pi/2$
	y > 0	x = 0	Positive y-axis	$\pi/2$
	y > 0	x < 0	Quadrant II	$\pi/2 < \text{result} < \pi$
	y = 0	x < 0	Negative x-axis	$\pi^{'}$
*	y = +0	x < 0	Negative x-axis	$+\pi$
*	y = -0	x < 0	Negative x-axis	$-\pi$
	$\dot{y} < 0$	x < 0	Quadrant III	$-\pi < \text{result} < -\pi/2$
	y < 0	x = 0	Negative y-axis	$-\pi/2$
	y < 0	x > 0	Quadrant IV	$-\pi/2 < \text{result} < 0$
	y = 0	x = 0	Origin	undefined consequences
*	y = +0	x = +0	Origin	+0
*		x = +0	Origin	-0
*	y = +0	x = -0	Origin	$+\pi$
*	y = -0	x = -0	Origin	$-\pi$

Figure 12-15. Quadrant information for arc tangent

#### **Examples:**

```
(asin 0) \to 0.0 (acos #c(0 1)) \to #C(1.5707963267948966 -0.8813735870195432) (/ (atan 1 (sqrt 3)) 6) \to 0.087266 (atan #c(0 2)) \to #C(-1.5707964 0.54930615)
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

**acos** and **asin** should signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *number* is not a *number*. **atan** should signal **type-error** if one argument is supplied and that argument is not a *number*, or if two arguments are supplied and both of those arguments are not *reals*.

acos, asin, and atan might signal arithmetic-error.

#### See Also:

log, sqrt, Section 12.1.3.3 (Rule of Float Substitutability)

#### Notes:

The result of either **asin** or **acos** can be a *complex* even if *number* is not a *complex*; this occurs when the absolute value of *number* is greater than one.

pi Constant Variable

#### Value:

an implementation-dependent long float.

# **Description:**

The best long float approximation to the mathematical constant  $\pi$ .

# **Examples:**

```
;; In each of the following computations, the precision depends ;; on the implementation. Also, if 'long float' is treated by ;; the implementation as equivalent to some other float format ;; (e.g., 'double float') the exponent marker might be the marker ;; for that equivalent (e.g., 'D' instead of 'L'). pi \rightarrow 3.141592653589793L0 (cos pi) \rightarrow -1.0L0 (defun sin-of-degrees (degrees) (let ((x (if (floatp degrees) degrees (float degrees pi)))) (sin (* x (/ (float pi x) 180)))))
```

#### Notes:

An approximation to  $\pi$  in some other precision can be obtained by writing (float pi x), where x is a *float* of the desired precision, or by writing (coerce pi type), where type is the desired type, such as **short-float**.

# sinh, cosh, tanh, asinh, acosh, atanh

# sinh, cosh, tanh, asinh, acosh, atanh

**Function** 

# **Syntax:**

 $sinh \ number \rightarrow result$   $cosh \ number \rightarrow result$   $tanh \ number \rightarrow result$   $asinh \ number \rightarrow result$   $acosh \ number \rightarrow result$   $atanh \ number \rightarrow result$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

number—a number.

result—a number.

#### **Description:**

These functions compute the hyperbolic sine, cosine, tangent, arc sine, arc cosine, and arc tangent functions, which are mathematically defined for an argument x as given in Figure 12–16.

Function	Definition
Hyperbolic sine	$(e^x - e^{-x})/2$
Hyperbolic cosine	$(e^x + e^{-x})/2$
Hyperbolic tangent	$(e^x - e^{-x})/(e^x + e^{-x})$
Hyperbolic arc sine	$\log (x + \sqrt{1 + x^2})$
Hyperbolic arc cosine	$2 \log (\sqrt{(x+1)/2} + \sqrt{(x-1)/2})$
Hyperbolic arc tangent	$(\log (1+x) - \log (1-x))/2$

Figure 12–16. Mathematical definitions for hyperbolic functions

The following definition for the inverse hyperbolic cosine determines the range and branch cuts:

$$\mathrm{arccosh}\; z=2\; \log\, \Big(\sqrt{(z+1)/2}+\sqrt{(z-1)/2}\Big).$$

The branch cut for the inverse hyperbolic cosine function lies along the real axis to the left of 1 (inclusive), extending indefinitely along the negative real axis, continuous with quadrant II and (between 0 and 1) with quadrant I. The range is that half-strip of the complex plane containing numbers whose real part is non-negative and whose imaginary part is between  $-\pi$  (exclusive) and  $\pi$  (inclusive). A number with real part zero is in the range if its imaginary part is between zero (inclusive) and  $\pi$  (inclusive).

# sinh, cosh, tanh, asinh, acosh, atanh

The following definition for the inverse hyperbolic sine determines the range and branch cuts:

$$\mathrm{arcsinh}\; z = \log\, \Big(z + \sqrt{1+z^2}\Big).$$

The branch cut for the inverse hyperbolic sine function is in two pieces: one along the positive imaginary axis above i (inclusive), continuous with quadrant I, and one along the negative imaginary axis below -i (inclusive), continuous with quadrant III. The range is that strip of the complex plane containing numbers whose imaginary part is between  $-\pi/2$  and  $\pi/2$ . A number with imaginary part equal to  $-\pi/2$  is in the range if and only if its real part is non-positive; a number with imaginary part equal to  $\pi/2$  is in the range if and only if its imaginary part is non-negative.

The following definition for the inverse hyperbolic tangent determines the range and branch cuts:

$$\mathrm{arctanh}\ z = \frac{\log \left(1+z\right) - \log \left(1-z\right)}{2}.$$

Note that:

i arctan  $z = \operatorname{arctanh} iz$ .

The branch cut for the inverse hyperbolic tangent function is in two pieces: one along the negative real axis to the left of -1 (inclusive), continuous with quadrant III, and one along the positive real axis to the right of 1 (inclusive), continuous with quadrant I. The points -1 and 1 are excluded from the domain. The range is that strip of the complex plane containing numbers whose imaginary part is between  $-\pi/2$  and  $\pi/2$ . A number with imaginary part equal to  $-\pi/2$  is in the range if and only if its real part is strictly negative; a number with imaginary part equal to  $\pi/2$  is in the range if and only if its imaginary part is strictly positive. Thus the range of the inverse hyperbolic tangent function is identical to that of the inverse hyperbolic sine function with the points  $-\pi i/2$  and  $\pi i/2$  excluded.

#### **Examples:**

$$(\sinh 0) \rightarrow 0.0$$
  $(\cosh (complex 0 -1)) \rightarrow \#C(0.540302 -0.0)$ 

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if number is not a number. Might signal arithmetic-error.

#### See Also:

log, sqrt, Section 12.1.3.3 (Rule of Float Substitutability)

#### **Notes:**

The result of **acosh** may be a *complex* even if *number* is not a *complex*; this occurs when *number* is less than one. Also, the result of **atanh** may be a *complex* even if *number* is not a *complex*; this occurs when the absolute value of *number* is greater than one.

The branch cut formulae are mathematically correct, assuming completely accurate computation. Implementors should consult a good text on numerical analysis. The formulae given above are not necessarily the simplest ones for real-valued computations; they are chosen to define the branch cuts in desirable ways for the complex case.

\* Function

### Syntax:

\* %rest numbers ightarrow product

## **Arguments and Values:**

number—a number.
product—a number.

## **Description:**

Returns the product of numbers, performing any necessary type conversions in the process. If no numbers are supplied, 1 is returned.

## **Examples:**

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Might signal type-error if some argument is not a number. Might signal arithmetic-error.

#### See Also:

Section 12.1.1 (Numeric Operations), Section 12.1.3 (Rational Computations), Section 12.1.4 (Floating-point Computations), Section 12.1.5 (Complex Computations)

+

Function

## **Syntax:**

+ &rest numbers  $\rightarrow$  sum

# **Arguments and Values:**

number—a number.

sum—a number.

## Description:

Returns the sum of *numbers*, performing any necessary type conversions in the process. If no *numbers* are supplied, 0 is returned.

## **Examples:**

$$\begin{array}{l} (+) \ \to \ 0 \\ (+\ 1) \ \to \ 1 \\ (+\ 31/100\ 69/100) \ \to \ 1 \\ (+\ 1/5\ 0.8) \ \to \ 1.0 \end{array}$$

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Might signal type-error if some argument is not a number. Might signal arithmetic-error.

#### See Also:

Section 12.1.1 (Numeric Operations), Section 12.1.3 (Rational Computations), Section 12.1.4 (Floating-point Computations), Section 12.1.5 (Complex Computations)

*Function* 

## Syntax:

- number ightarrow negation

— minuend &rest subtrahends<sup>+</sup> → difference

#### **Arguments and Values:**

number, minuend, subtrahend—a number.

negation, difference—a number.

## **Description:**

The function - performs arithmetic subtraction and negation.

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If only one *number* is supplied, the negation of that *number* is returned.

If more than one *argument* is given, it subtracts all of the *subtrahends* from the *minuend* and returns the result.

The function - performs necessary type conversions.

## **Examples:**

```
(- 55.55) \rightarrow -55.55

(- #c(3 -5)) \rightarrow #C(-3 5)

(- 0) \rightarrow 0

(eql (- 0.0) -0.0) \rightarrow true

(- #c(100 45) #c(0 45)) \rightarrow 100

(- 10 1 2 3 4) \rightarrow 0
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Might signal type-error if some argument is not a number. Might signal arithmetic-error.

#### See Also:

Section 12.1.1 (Numeric Operations), Section 12.1.3 (Rational Computations), Section 12.1.4 (Floating-point Computations), Section 12.1.5 (Complex Computations)

/ Function

## Syntax:

```
/ number 
ightarrow reciprocal
/ numerator &rest denominators^+ 
ightarrow quotient
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

number, denominator—a non-zero number. numerator, quotient, reciprocal—a number.

### **Description:**

The function / performs division or reciprocation.

If no *denominators* are supplied, the *function* / returns the reciprocal of *number*.

If at least one *denominator* is supplied, the *function* / divides the *numerator* by all of the *denominators* and returns the resulting *quotient*.

If each argument is either an integer or a ratio, and the result is not an integer, then it is a ratio.

The function / performs necessary type conversions.

If any *argument* is a *float* then the rules of floating-point contagion apply; see Section 12.1.4 (Floating-point Computations).

## **Examples:**

```
 \begin{array}{l} (/\ 12\ 4) \ \rightarrow \ 3 \\ (/\ 13\ 4) \ \rightarrow \ 13/4 \\ (/\ -8) \ \rightarrow \ -1/8 \\ (/\ 3\ 4\ 5) \ \rightarrow \ 3/20 \\ (/\ 0.5) \ \rightarrow \ 2.0 \\ (/\ 20\ 5) \ \rightarrow \ 4 \\ (/\ 5\ 20) \ \rightarrow \ 1/4 \\ (/\ 60\ -2\ 3\ 5.0) \ \rightarrow \ -2.0 \\ (/\ 2\ \#c(2\ 2)) \ \rightarrow \ \#c(1/2\ -1/2) \\ \end{array}
```

# **Exceptional Situations:**

The consequences are unspecified if any argument other than the first is zero. If there is only one argument, the consequences are unspecified if it is zero.

Might signal **type-error** if some *argument* is not a *number*. Might signal **division-by-zero** if division by zero is attempted. Might signal **arithmetic-error**.

#### See Also:

floor, ceiling, truncate, round

1+,1-

## **Syntax:**

```
1+ number \rightarrow successor 1- number \rightarrow predecessor
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

number—a number.

successor, predecessor—a number.

## **Description:**

1+ returns a *number* that is one more than its argument *number*. 1- returns a *number* that is one less than its argument *number*.

## **Examples:**

```
(1+ 99) \rightarrow 100

(1- 100) \rightarrow 99

(1+ (complex 0.0)) \rightarrow \#C(1.0 0.0)

(1- 5/3) \rightarrow 2/3
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Might signal type-error if its argument is not a number. Might signal arithmetic-error.

#### See Also:

incf, decf

#### **Notes:**

```
(1+ number) \equiv (+ number 1)
(1- number) \equiv (- number 1)
```

Implementors are encouraged to make the performance of both the previous expressions be the same.

**abs** Function

## Syntax:

abs number  $\rightarrow$  absolute-value

## **Arguments and Values:**

number—a number.

 ${\it absolute-value} {\it --} a \ {\rm non-negative} \ {\it real}.$ 

#### Description:

**abs** returns the absolute value of *number*.

If *number* is a *real*, the result is of the same *type* as *number*.

If number is a complex, the result is a positive real with the same magnitude as number. The result can be a float even if number's components are rationals and an exact rational result would have been possible. Thus the result of (abs  $\#c(3\ 4)$ ) can be either 5 or 5.0, depending on the implementation.

```
(abs 0) \rightarrow 0
```

```
(abs 12/13) \rightarrow 12/13

(abs -1.09) \rightarrow 1.09

(abs #c(5.0 -5.0)) \rightarrow 7.071068

(abs #c(5 5)) \rightarrow 7.071068

(abs #c(3/5 4/5)) \rightarrow 1 or approximately 1.0

(eql (abs -0.0) -0.0) \rightarrow true
```

Section 12.1.3.3 (Rule of Float Substitutability)

#### Notes:

If *number* is a *complex*, the result is equivalent to the following:

```
(sqrt (+ (expt (realpart number) 2) (expt (imagpart number) 2)))
```

An implementation should not use this formula directly for all *complexes* but should handle very large or very small components specially to avoid intermediate overflow or underflow.

# evenp, oddp

**Function** 

## Syntax:

```
evenp integer \rightarrow generalized-boolean oddp integer \rightarrow generalized-boolean
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
integer—an integer.
generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

### Description:

```
evenp returns true if integer is even (divisible by two); otherwise, returns false.

oddp returns true if integer is odd (not divisible by two); otherwise, returns false.
```

## **Examples:**

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if integer is not an integer.

```
(evenp integer) ≡ (not (oddp integer))
(oddp integer) ≡ (not (evenp integer))
```

 $\exp, \exp t$ 

## Syntax:

```
\operatorname{exp} number 	o result \operatorname{expt} base-number power-number 	o result
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
number—a number.

base-number—a number.

power-number—a number.

result—a number.
```

## **Description:**

**exp** and **expt** perform exponentiation.

exp returns e raised to the power number, where e is the base of the natural logarithms. exp has no branch cut.

expt returns base-number raised to the power power-number. If the base-number is a rational and power-number is an integer, the calculation is exact and the result will be of type rational; otherwise a floating-point approximation might result. For expt of a complex rational to an integer power, the calculation must be exact and the result is of type (or rational (complex rational)).

The result of **expt** can be a *complex*, even when neither argument is a *complex*, if *base-number* is negative and *power-number* is not an *integer*. The result is always the *principal complex value*. For example, (expt -8 1/3) is not permitted to return -2, even though -2 is one of the cube roots of -8. The *principal* cube root is a *complex* approximately equal to #C(1.0 1.73205), not -2.

**expt** is defined as  $b^x = e^{x log b}$ . This defines the *principal values* precisely. The range of **expt** is the entire complex plane. Regarded as a function of x, with b fixed, there is no branch cut. Regarded as a function of b, with x fixed, there is in general a branch cut along the negative real axis, continuous with quadrant II. The domain excludes the origin. By definition,  $0^0=1$ . If b=0 and the real part of x is strictly positive, then  $b^x=0$ . For all other values of x,  $0^x$  is an error.

When power-number is an integer 0, then the result is always the value one in the type of base-number, even if the base-number is zero (of any type). That is:

```
(expt x 0) \equiv (coerce 1 (type-of x))
```

If power-number is a zero of any other type, then the result is also the value one, in the type of the arguments after the application of the contagion rules in Section 12.1.1.2 (Contagion in Numeric Operations), with one exception: the consequences are undefined if base-number is zero when power-number is zero and not of type integer.

## **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\exp~0) \rightarrow 1.0 \\ (\exp~1) \rightarrow 2.718282 \\ (\exp~(\log~5)) \rightarrow 5.0 \\ (\exp~t~2~8) \rightarrow 256 \\ (\exp~t~4~.5) \rightarrow 2.0 \\ (\exp~t~\#c(0~1)~2) \rightarrow -1 \\ (\exp~t~\#c(2~2)~3) \rightarrow \#C(-16~16) \\ (expt~\#c(2~2)~4) \rightarrow -64 \end{array}
```

### See Also:

log, Section 12.1.3.3 (Rule of Float Substitutability)

#### Notes:

Implementations of **expt** are permitted to use different algorithms for the cases of a *power-number* of *type* rational and a *power-number* of *type* float.

Note that by the following logic, (sqrt (expt x 3)) is not equivalent to (expt x 3/2).

```
(setq x (exp (/ (* 2 pi #c(0 1)) 3))) ; exp(2.pi.i/3) (expt x 3) \rightarrow 1 ; except for round-off error (sqrt (expt x 3)) \rightarrow 1 ; except for round-off error (expt x 3/2) \rightarrow -1 ; except for round-off error
```

gcd

## **Syntax:**

 $\gcd$  &rest integers  $\rightarrow$  greatest-common-denominator

#### **Arguments and Values:**

integer—an integer.

greatest-common-denominator—a non-negative integer.

## **Description:**

Returns the greatest common divisor of *integers*. If only one *integer* is supplied, its absolute value is returned. If no *integers* are given, **gcd** returns 0, which is an identity for this operation.

## **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\gcd) \ \to \ 0 \\ (\gcd \ 60 \ 42) \ \to \ 6 \\ (\gcd \ 3333 \ -33 \ 101) \ \to \ 1 \\ (\gcd \ 3333 \ -33 \ 1002001) \ \to \ 11 \\ (\gcd \ 91 \ -49) \ \to \ 7 \\ (\gcd \ 63 \ -42 \ 35) \ \to \ 7 \\ (\gcd \ 5) \ \to \ 5 \\ (\gcd \ -4) \ \to \ 4 \\ \end{array}
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if any integer is not an integer.

#### See Also:

lcm

#### **Notes:**

For three or more arguments,

```
(gcd b c ... z) \equiv (gcd (gcd a b) c ... z)
```

 $\operatorname{incf},\operatorname{decf}$ 

## Syntax:

```
egin{aligned} & \operatorname{incf} \ \mathit{place} \ [\mathit{delta-form}] & \to \ \mathit{new-value} \ \\ & \operatorname{decf} \ \mathit{place} \ [\mathit{delta-form}] & \to \ \mathit{new-value} \ \end{aligned}
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
place—a place.
delta-form—a form; evaluated to produce a delta. The default is 1.
delta—a number.
new-value—a number.
```

## **Description:**

incf and decf are used for incrementing and decrementing the value of place, respectively.

The delta is added to (in the case of incf) or subtracted from (in the case of decf) the number in place and the result is stored in place.

Any necessary type conversions are performed automatically.

For information about the *evaluation* of *subforms* of *places*, see Section 5.1.1.1 (Evaluation of Subforms to Places).

## **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\mathtt{setq}\ \mathtt{n}\ \mathtt{0}) \\ (\mathtt{incf}\ \mathtt{n}) \ \to \ \mathtt{1} \\ \mathtt{n} \ \to \ \mathtt{1} \\ (\mathtt{decf}\ \mathtt{n}\ \mathtt{3}) \ \to \ \mathtt{-2} \\ \mathtt{n} \ \to \ \mathtt{-2} \\ (\mathtt{decf}\ \mathtt{n}\ \mathtt{-5}) \ \to \ \mathtt{3} \\ (\mathtt{decf}\ \mathtt{n}) \ \to \ \mathtt{2} \\ (\mathtt{incf}\ \mathtt{n}\ \mathtt{0.5}) \ \to \ \mathtt{2.5} \\ (\mathtt{decf}\ \mathtt{n}) \ \to \ \mathtt{1.5} \\ \mathtt{n} \ \to \ \mathtt{1.5} \end{array}
```

#### Side Effects:

Place is modified.

#### See Also:

+, -, 1+, 1-, setf

**lcm** 

## Syntax:

 $lcm \ \&rest \ integers \ o \ least-common-multiple$ 

#### **Arguments and Values:**

integer—an integer.

least-common-multiple—a non-negative integer.

#### Description:

**lcm** returns the least common multiple of the *integers*.

If no integer is supplied, the integer 1 is returned.

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If only one *integer* is supplied, the absolute value of that *integer* is returned.

For two arguments that are not both zero,

```
(lcm \ a \ b) \equiv (/ \ (abs \ (* \ a \ b)) \ (gcd \ a \ b))
```

If one or both arguments are zero,

$$(lcm \ a \ 0) \equiv (lcm \ 0 \ a) \equiv 0$$

For three or more arguments,

$$(lcm \ a \ b \ c \ \dots \ z) \equiv (lcm \ (lcm \ a \ b) \ c \ \dots \ z)$$

# **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{c} (1\text{cm 10}) \to 10 \\ (1\text{cm 25 30}) \to 150 \\ (1\text{cm -24 18 10}) \to 360 \\ (1\text{cm 14 35}) \to 70 \\ (1\text{cm 0 5}) \to 0 \\ (1\text{cm 1 2 3 4 5 6}) \to 60 \end{array}
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal type-error if any argument is not an integer.

#### See Also:

gcd

log

## Syntax:

 $\log$  number &optional base ightarrow logarithm

## **Arguments and Values:**

number—a non-zero number.

base—a number.

logarithm—a number.

## **Description:**

 $\log$  returns the logarithm of *number* in base *base*. If *base* is not supplied its value is e, the base of the natural logarithms.

# log

log may return a *complex* when given a *real* negative *number*.

```
(log -1.0) \equiv (complex 0.0 (float pi 0.0))
```

If base is zero, log returns zero.

The result of (log 8 2) may be either 3 or 3.0, depending on the implementation. An implementation can use floating-point calculations even if an exact integer result is possible.

The branch cut for the logarithm function of one argument (natural logarithm) lies along the negative real axis, continuous with quadrant II. The domain excludes the origin.

The mathematical definition of a complex logarithm is as follows, whether or not minus zero is supported by the implementation:

```
(\log x) \equiv (\text{complex } (\log (\text{abs } x)) \text{ (phase } x))
```

Therefore the range of the one-argument logarithm function is that strip of the complex plane containing numbers with imaginary parts between  $-\pi$  (exclusive) and  $\pi$  (inclusive) if minus zero is not supported, or  $-\pi$  (inclusive) and  $\pi$  (inclusive) if minus zero is supported.

The two-argument logarithm function is defined as

This defines the *principal values* precisely. The range of the two-argument logarithm function is the entire complex plane.

### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{c} (\log 100\ 10) \\ \to \ 2.0 \\ \to \ 2 \\ (\log 100.0\ 10) \to \ 2.0 \\ (\log \ \text{fc}(0\ 1)\ \ \text{#c}(0\ -1)) \\ \to \ \ \text{\#C}(-1.0\ 0.0) \\ \to \ \ \text{\#C}(-1\ 0) \\ (\log \ 8.0\ 2) \to \ 3.0 \\ \\ (\log \ \text{#c}(-16\ 16)\ \ \text{\#c}(2\ 2)) \to \ 3 \ \text{or approximately \#c}(3.0\ 0.0) \\ & \text{or approximately } \ 3.0 \ (\text{unlikely}) \end{array}
```

#### Affected By:

The implementation.

exp, expt, Section 12.1.3.3 (Rule of Float Substitutability)

mod, rem Function

# Syntax:

```
oxdot{mod number divisor} 
ightarrow modulus
oxdot{rem number divisor} 
ightarrow remainder
```

# Arguments and Values:

```
number—a real.
divisor—a real.
modulus, remainder—a real.
```

## **Description:**

mod and rem are generalizations of the modulus and remainder functions respectively.

**mod** performs the operation **floor** on *number* and *divisor* and returns the remainder of the **floor** operation.

**rem** performs the operation **truncate** on *number* and *divisor* and returns the remainder of the **truncate** operation.

mod and rem are the modulus and remainder functions when number and divisor are integers.

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{rem }-1\ 5)\ \to\ -1 \\ (\text{mod }-1\ 5)\ \to\ 4 \\ (\text{mod }13\ 4)\ \to\ 1 \\ (\text{rem }13\ 4)\ \to\ 1 \\ (\text{rem }13\ 4)\ \to\ 1 \\ (\text{mod }-13\ 4)\ \to\ -1 \\ (\text{mod }13\ -4)\ \to\ -3 \\ (\text{rem }13\ -4)\ \to\ 1 \\ (\text{mod }-13\ -4)\ \to\ -1 \\ (\text{rem }-13\ -4)\ \to\ -1 \\ (\text{rem }-13\ -4)\ \to\ -1 \\ (\text{mod }13.4\ 1)\ \to\ 0.4 \\ (\text{rem }13.4\ 1)\ \to\ 0.6 \\ (\text{rem }-13.4\ 1)\ \to\ -0.4 \end{array}
```

floor, truncate

#### Notes:

The result of **mod** is either zero or a *real* with the same sign as *divisor*.

**signum** Function

## Syntax:

 $signum\ number\ o signed-prototype$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

number—a number.

signed-prototype—a number.

## **Description:**

signum determines a numerical value that indicates whether number is negative, zero, or positive.

For a *rational*, **signum** returns one of -1, 0, or 1 according to whether *number* is negative, zero, or positive. For a *float*, the result is a *float* of the same format whose value is minus one, zero, or one. For a *complex* number **z**, (**signum** z) is a complex number of the same phase but with unit magnitude, unless **z** is a complex zero, in which case the result is **z**.

For rational arguments, signum is a rational function, but it may be irrational for complex arguments.

If number is a float, the result is a float. If number is a rational, the result is a rational. If number is a complex float, the result is a complex float. If number is a complex rational, the result is a complex, but it is implementation-dependent whether that result is a complex rational or a complex float.

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{signum 0}) \to 0 \\ (\text{signum 99}) \to 1 \\ (\text{signum 4/5}) \to 1 \\ (\text{signum -99/100}) \to -1 \\ (\text{signum 0.0}) \to 0.0 \\ (\text{signum #c(0 33)}) \to \text{\#C(0.0 1.0)} \\ (\text{signum #c(7.5 10.0)}) \to \text{\#C(0.6 0.8)} \\ (\text{signum #c(0.0 -14.7)}) \to \text{\#C(0.0 -1.0)} \\ (\text{eql (signum -0.0)} -0.0) \to true \\ \end{array}
```

Section 12.1.3.3 (Rule of Float Substitutability)

## Notes:

```
(signum x) \equiv (if (zerop x) x (/ x (abs x)))
```

# sqrt, isqrt

**Function** 

## Syntax:

```
sqrt \ number \rightarrow root

isqrt \ natural \rightarrow natural-root
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

number, root—a number.

natural, natural-root—a non-negative integer.

# **Description:**

sqrt and isqrt compute square roots.

sqrt returns the *principal* square root of *number*. If the *number* is not a *complex* but is negative, then the result is a *complex*.

is grt returns the greatest integer less than or equal to the exact positive square root of natural.

If number is a positive rational, it is implementation-dependent whether root is a rational or a float. If number is a negative rational, it is implementation-dependent whether root is a complex rational or a complex float.

The mathematical definition of complex square root (whether or not minus zero is supported) follows:

```
(\operatorname{sqrt} x) = (\exp (/(\log x) 2))
```

The branch cut for square root lies along the negative real axis, continuous with quadrant II. The range consists of the right half-plane, including the non-negative imaginary axis and excluding the negative imaginary axis.

```
(\text{sqrt 9.0}) \rightarrow 3.0
(\text{sqrt -9.0}) \rightarrow \#C(0.0 3.0)
```

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{isqrt 9}) \to 3 \\ (\text{sqrt 12}) \to 3.4641016 \\ (\text{isqrt 12}) \to 3 \\ (\text{isqrt 300}) \to 17 \\ (\text{isqrt 325}) \to 18 \\ (\text{sqrt 25}) \\ \to 5 \\ \to 7 \\
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

The function sqrt should signal type-error if its argument is not a number.

The function isqrt should signal type-error if its argument is not a non-negative integer.

The functions sqrt and isqrt might signal arithmetic-error.

### See Also:

```
exp, log, Section 12.1.3.3 (Rule of Float Substitutability)
```

#### Notes:

```
(\text{isqrt x}) \equiv (\text{values (floor (sqrt x))})
```

but it is potentially more efficient.

# random-state

System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

random-state, t

#### Description:

A random state object contains state information used by the pseudo-random number generator. The nature of a random state object is implementation-dependent. It can be printed out and successfully read back in by the same implementation, but might not function correctly as a random state in another implementation.

*Implementations* are required to provide a read syntax for *objects* of *type* random-state, but the specific nature of that syntax is *implementation-dependent*.

#### See Also:

\*random-state\*, random, Section 22.1.3.10 (Printing Random States)

# make-random-state

*Function* 

### Syntax:

make-random-state &optional  $\textit{state} \rightarrow \textit{new-state}$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

state—a random state, or nil, or t. The default is nil.

new-state—a random state object.

## **Description:**

Creates a fresh object of type random-state suitable for use as the value of \*random-state\*.

If state is a random state object, the new-state is a  $copy_5$  of that object. If state is nil, the new-state is a  $copy_5$  of the current random state. If state is t, the new-state is a fresh random state object that has been randomly initialized by some means.

## **Examples:**

```
(let* ((rs1 (make-random-state nil))
        (rs2 (make-random-state t))
        (rs3 (make-random-state rs2))
        (rs4 nil))
   (list (loop for i from 1 to 10
               collect (random 100)
               when (= i 5)
                do (setq rs4 (make-random-state)))
         (loop for i from 1 to 10 collect (random 100 rs1))
         (loop for i from 1 to 10 collect (random 100 rs2))
         (loop for i from 1 to 10 collect (random 100 rs3))
         (loop for i from 1 to 10 collect (random 100 rs4))))
\rightarrow ((29 25 72 57 55 68 24 35 54 65)
    (29 25 72 57 55 68 24 35 54 65)
    (93 85 53 99 58 62 2 23 23 59)
    (93 85 53 99 58 62 2 23 23 59)
    (68 24 35 54 65 54 55 50 59 49))
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if state is not a random state, or nil, or t.

#### See Also:

 ${\bf random,\ *random\text{-}state*}$ 

One important use of **make-random-state** is to allow the same series of pseudo-random *numbers* to be generated many times within a single program.

random Function

## **Syntax:**

 $\mathbf{random} \ \textit{limit} \ \texttt{\&optional} \ \textit{random-state} \quad \rightarrow \textit{random-number}$ 

# Arguments and Values:

*limit*—a positive *integer*, or a positive *float*.

random-state—a random state. The default is the current random state.

random-number—a non-negative number less than limit and of the same type as limit.

## **Description:**

Returns a pseudo-random number that is a non-negative number less than limit and of the same type as limit.

The *random-state*, which is modified by this function, encodes the internal state maintained by the random number generator.

An approximately uniform choice distribution is used. If *limit* is an *integer*, each of the possible results occurs with (approximate) probability 1/*limit*.

#### **Examples:**

## Side Effects:

The random-state is modified.

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if limit is not a positive integer or a positive real.

#### See Also:

make-random-state, \*random-state\*

#### Notes:

See Common Lisp: The Language for information about generating random numbers.

# random-state-p

*Function* 

## **Syntax:**

random-state-p object  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type random-state; otherwise, returns false.

## **Examples:**

```
(random-state-p *random-state*) \rightarrow true (random-state-p (make-random-state)) \rightarrow true (random-state-p 'test-function) \rightarrow false
```

## See Also:

make-random-state, \*random-state\*

#### **Notes:**

(random-state-p object) ≡ (typep object 'random-state)

# \*random-state\*

Variable

## Value Type:

a random state.

## **Initial Value:**

 $implementation\hbox{-} dependent.$ 

## **Description:**

The *current random state*, which is used, for example, by the *function* random when a *random state* is not explicitly supplied.

## **Examples:**

## Affected By:

The implementation.

random.

#### See Also:

make-random-state, random, random-state

### Notes:

Binding \*random-state\* to a different random state object correctly saves and restores the old random state object.

numberp Function

### Syntax:

 $\mathbf{numberp}$  object  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type number; otherwise, returns false.

## **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{ll} \text{(numberp 12)} \to true \\ \text{(numberp (expt 2 130))} \to true \\ \text{(numberp \#c(5/3 7.2))} \to true \\ \text{(numberp nil)} \to false \\ \text{(numberp (cons 1 2))} \to false \end{array}
```

## Notes:

```
(number pobject) \equiv (typep object 'number)
```

**cis** Function

## Syntax:

 $cis\ radians \rightarrow number$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

radians—a real.
number—a complex.

# **Description:**

cis returns the value of  $e^{i \cdot radians}$ , which is a *complex* in which the real part is equal to the cosine of *radians*, and the imaginary part is equal to the sine of *radians*.

## **Examples:**

```
(cis 0) \rightarrow #C(1.0 0.0)
```

### See Also:

Section 12.1.3.3 (Rule of Float Substitutability)

complex

## **Syntax:**

 $complex realpart & optional imagpart \rightarrow complex$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
realpart—a real.

imagpart—a real.

complex—a rational or a complex.
```

## **Description:**

complex returns a number whose real part is realpart and whose imaginary part is imagpart.

If *realpart* is a *rational* and *imagpart* is the *rational* number zero, the result of **complex** is *realpart*, a *rational*. Otherwise, the result is a *complex*.

If either realpart or imagpart is a float, the non-float is converted to a float before the complex is created. If imagpart is not supplied, the imaginary part is a zero of the same type as realpart; i.e., (coerce 0 (type-of realpart)) is effectively used.

Type upgrading implies a movement upwards in the type hierarchy lattice. In the case of complexes, the type-specifier must be a subtype of (upgraded-complex-part-type type-specifier). If type-specifier1 is a subtype of type-specifier2, then (upgraded-complex-element-type 'type-specifier1) must also be a subtype of (upgraded-complex-element-type 'type-specifier2). Two disjoint types can be upgraded into the same thing.

## **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{complex 0}) \to 0 \\ (\text{complex 0.0}) \to \#\text{C(0.0 0.0)} \\ (\text{complex 1 1/2}) \to \#\text{C(1 1/2)} \\ (\text{complex 1 .99}) \to \#\text{C(1.0 0.99)} \\ (\text{complex 3/2 0.0}) \to \#\text{C(1.5 0.0)} \end{array}
```

### See Also:

realpart, imagpart, Section 2.4.8.11 (Sharpsign C)

complexp

# Syntax:

 $\mathbf{complexp}$  object  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

## **Arguments and Values:**

object—an object.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

# **Description:**

Returns *true* if *object* is of *type* **complex**; otherwise, returns *false*.

# **Examples:**

```
(complexp 1.2d2) \rightarrow false (complexp #c(5/3 7.2)) \rightarrow true
```

### See Also:

 $\mathbf{complex}\ (function\ \mathrm{and}\ type),\ \mathbf{typep}$ 

#### **Notes:**

(complexp object) \equiv (typep object 'complex)

# conjugate

Function

## **Syntax:**

 $conjugate number \rightarrow conjugate$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

number—a number.

 ${\it conjugate} {\it --} a \ {\it number}.$ 

## **Description:**

Returns the complex conjugate of *number*. The conjugate of a *real* number is itself.

## **Examples:**

```
(conjugate #c(0 -1)) \rightarrow #C(0 1)
(conjugate #c(1 1)) \rightarrow #C(1 -1)
(conjugate 1.5) \rightarrow 1.5
(conjugate #C(3/5 4/5)) \rightarrow #C(3/5 -4/5)
(conjugate #C(0.0D0 -1.0D0)) \rightarrow #C(0.0D0 1.0D0)
(conjugate 3.7) \rightarrow 3.7
```

#### Notes:

For a complex number z,

```
(conjugate z) \equiv (complex (realpart z) (- (imagpart z)))
```

phase

## Syntax:

phase number  $\rightarrow$  phase

## **Arguments and Values:**

number—a number.

phase—a number.

#### **Description:**

phase returns the phase of *number* (the angle part of its polar representation) in radians, in the range  $-\pi$  (exclusive) if minus zero is not supported, or  $-\pi$  (inclusive) if minus zero is supported, to  $\pi$  (inclusive). The phase of a positive *real* number is zero; that of a negative *real* number is  $\pi$ . The phase of zero is defined to be zero.

If number is a complex float, the result is a float of the same type as the components of number. If number is a float, the result is a float of the same type. If number is a rational or a complex rational, the result is a single float.

The branch cut for **phase** lies along the negative real axis, continuous with quadrant II. The range consists of that portion of the real axis between  $-\pi$  (exclusive) and  $\pi$  (inclusive).

The mathematical definition of **phase** is as follows:

```
(phase x) = (atan (imagpart x) (realpart x))
```

```
(phase 1) 
ightarrow 0.0s0
```

```
(phase 0) \to 0.0s0 (phase (cis 30)) \to -1.4159266 (phase #c(0 1)) \to 1.5707964
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal type-error if its argument is not a *number*. Might signal arithmetic-error.

### See Also:

Section 12.1.3.3 (Rule of Float Substitutability)

# realpart, imagpart

**Function** 

## Syntax:

```
realpart number \rightarrow real
imagpart number \rightarrow real
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
number—a number.
real—a real.
```

## **Description:**

realpart and imagpart return the real and imaginary parts of number respectively. If number is real, then realpart returns number and imagpart returns (\* 0 number), which has the effect that the imaginary part of a rational is 0 and that of a float is a floating-point zero of the same format.

## **Examples:**

```
(realpart #c(23 41)) \to 23 (imagpart #c(23 41.0)) \to 41.0 (realpart #c(23 41.0)) \to 23.0 (imagpart 23.0) \to 0.0
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if number is not a number.

## See Also:

complex

# upgraded-complex-part-type

Function

## Syntax:

upgraded-complex-part-type typespec &optional environment ightarrow upgraded-typespec

## **Arguments and Values:**

typespec—a type specifier.

<code>environment</code>—an <code>environment</code> object. The default is <code>nil</code>, denoting the <code>null</code> lexical environment and the and current <code>global</code> environment.

upgraded-typespec—a type specifier.

## **Description:**

**upgraded-complex-part-type** returns the part type of the most specialized *complex* number representation that can hold parts of *type typespec*.

The typespec is a subtype of (and possibly type equivalent to) the upgraded-typespec.

The purpose of upgraded-complex-part-type is to reveal how an implementation does its upgrading.

#### See Also:

**complex** (function and type)

## Notes:

realp

## **Syntax:**

 $\mathbf{realp}\ object\ o generalized\text{-boolean}$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

object—an object.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## Description:

Returns true if object is of type real; otherwise, returns false.

#### **Examples:**

(realp 12)  $\rightarrow true$ 

```
(\text{realp \#c(5/3 7.2)}) \rightarrow false

(\text{realp nil}) \rightarrow false

(\text{realp (cons 1 2)}) \rightarrow false
```

(realp object) ≡ (typep object 'real)

# numerator, denominator

Function

## Syntax:

```
{f numerator} \ rational \ 
ightarrow numerator denominator rational \ 
ightarrow denominator
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
rational—a rational.

numerator—an integer.

denominator—a positive integer.
```

## **Description:**

**numerator** and **denominator** reduce *rational* to canonical form and compute the numerator or denominator of that number.

**numerator** and **denominator** return the numerator or denominator of the canonical form of rational.

If rational is an integer, numerator returns rational and denominator returns 1.

## **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} \mbox{(numerator 1/2)} \rightarrow 1 \\ \mbox{(denominator 12/36)} \rightarrow 3 \\ \mbox{(numerator -1)} \rightarrow -1 \\ \mbox{(denominator (/ -33))} \rightarrow 33 \\ \mbox{(numerator (/ 8 -6))} \rightarrow -4 \\ \mbox{(denominator (/ 8 -6))} \rightarrow 3 \end{array}
```

### See Also:

/

```
(gcd (numerator x) (denominator x)) \rightarrow 1
```

# rational, rationalize

Function

## Syntax:

```
rational number \rightarrow rational rationalize number \rightarrow rational
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
number—a real.
rational—a rational.
```

## **Description:**

rational and rationalize convert reals to rationals.

If *number* is already *rational*, it is returned.

If *number* is a *float*, **rational** returns a *rational* that is mathematically equal in value to the *float*. **rationalize** returns a *rational* that approximates the *float* to the accuracy of the underlying floating-point representation.

rational assumes that the *float* is completely accurate.

rationalize assumes that the *float* is accurate only to the precision of the floating-point representation.

## **Examples:**

```
(rational 0) \to 0 (rationalize -11/100) \to -11/100 (rational .1) \to 13421773/134217728 ;implementation-dependent (rationalize .1) \to 1/10
```

## Affected By:

The implementation.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if number is not a real. Might signal arithmetic-error.

```
It is always the case that  (\mbox{float (rational } x) \ x) \ \equiv \ x  and  (\mbox{float (rationalize } x) \ x) \ \equiv \ x
```

That is, rationalizing a *float* by either method and then converting it back to a *float* of the same format produces the original *number*.

rationalp

## **Syntax:**

```
\mathbf{rationalp}\ \mathit{object}\ \rightarrow \mathit{generalized-boolean}
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type rational; otherwise, returns false.

## **Examples:**

```
 \begin{array}{ll} \mbox{(rationalp 12)} \ \to \ true \\ \mbox{(rationalp 6/5)} \ \to \ true \\ \mbox{(rationalp 1.212)} \ \to \ false \end{array}
```

#### See Also:

rational

### **Notes:**

```
(rationalp object) ≡ (typep object 'rational)
```

ash

## Syntax:

 $ash\ integer\ count\ o shifted-integer$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
integer—an integer.
count—an integer.
shifted-integer—an integer.
```

## **Description:**

ash performs the arithmetic shift operation on the binary representation of *integer*, which is treated as if it were binary.

**ash** shifts *integer* arithmetically left by *count* bit positions if *count* is positive, or right *count* bit positions if *count* is negative. The shifted value of the same sign as *integer* is returned.

Mathematically speaking, ash performs the computation  $floor(integer \cdot 2^{count})$ . Logically, ash moves all of the bits in *integer* to the left, adding zero-bits at the right, or moves them to the right, discarding bits.

**ash** is defined to behave as if *integer* were represented in two's complement form, regardless of how *integers* are represented internally.

## **Examples:**

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *integer* is not an *integer*. Should signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *count* is not an *integer*. Might signal **arithmetic-error**.

#### Notes:

```
(logbitp j (ash n \ k))
\equiv (and (>= j \ k) (logbitp (- j \ k) n))
```

# integer-length

# integer-length

Function

## Syntax:

integer-length integer  $\rightarrow$  number-of-bits

## **Arguments and Values:**

integer—an integer.

number-of-bits—a non-negative integer.

## Description:

Returns the number of bits needed to represent *integer* in binary two's-complement format.

## **Examples:**

```
(integer-length 0) \rightarrow 0

(integer-length 1) \rightarrow 1

(integer-length 3) \rightarrow 2

(integer-length 4) \rightarrow 3

(integer-length 7) \rightarrow 3

(integer-length -1) \rightarrow 0

(integer-length -4) \rightarrow 2

(integer-length -7) \rightarrow 3

(integer-length -8) \rightarrow 3

(integer-length (expt 2 9)) \rightarrow 10

(integer-length (- (expt 2 9))) \rightarrow 9

(integer-length (- (expt 2 9))) \rightarrow 9

(integer-length (- (1+ (expt 2 9)))) \rightarrow 10
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type **type-error** if integer is not an integer.

#### Notes:

This function could have been defined by:

If *integer* is non-negative, then its value can be represented in unsigned binary form in a field whose width in bits is no smaller than (integer-length *integer*). Regardless of the sign of *integer*, its value can be represented in signed binary two's-complement form in a field whose width in bits is no smaller than (+ (integer-length *integer*) 1).

integerp

### Syntax:

integerp  $object \rightarrow generalized-boolean$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type integer; otherwise, returns false.

# **Examples:**

```
(integerp 1) \rightarrow true
(integerp (expt 2 130)) \rightarrow true
(integerp 6/5) \rightarrow false
(integerp nil) \rightarrow false
```

## Notes:

```
(integerp \ object) \equiv (typep \ object \ 'integer)
```

# parse-integer

**Function** 

## **Syntax:**

parse-integer string &key start end radix junk-allowed  $\rightarrow$  integer, pos

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
string—a string.
```

start, end—bounding index designators of string. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

```
radix—a radix. The default is 10.
```

junk-allowed—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

```
integer—an integer or false.
```

pos—a bounding index of string.

## **Description:**

parse-integer parses an *integer* in the specified *radix* from the substring of *string* delimited by *start* and *end*.

parse-integer expects an optional sign (+ or -) followed by a a non-empty sequence of digits to be interpreted in the specified radix. Optional leading and trailing  $whitespace_1$  is ignored.

parse-integer does not recognize the syntactic radix-specifier prefixes #0, #B, #X, and #nR, nor does it recognize a trailing decimal point.

If junk-allowed is false, an error of type parse-error is signaled if substring does not consist entirely of the representation of a signed integer, possibly surrounded on either side by  $whitespace_1$  characters.

The first value returned is either the *integer* that was parsed, or else **nil** if no syntactically correct integer was seen but junk-allowed was true.

The second *value* is either the index into the *string* of the delimiter that terminated the parse, or the upper *bounding index* of the substring if the parse terminated at the end of the substring (as is always the case if *junk-allowed* is *false*).

# **Examples:**

```
(parse-integer "123") \to 123, 3 (parse-integer "123" :start 1 :radix 5) \to 13, 3 (parse-integer "no-integer" :junk-allowed t) \to NIL, 0
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

If *junk-allowed* is *false*, an error is signaled if substring does not consist entirely of the representation of an *integer*, possibly surrounded on either side by  $whitespace_1$  characters.

boole

### Syntax:

boole op integer-1 integer-2  $\rightarrow$  result-integer

#### **Arguments and Values:**

Op—a bit-wise logical operation specifier.

integer-1—an integer.

# boole

```
integer-2—an integer.
result-integer—an integer.
```

## **Description:**

**boole** performs bit-wise logical operations on *integer-1* and *integer-2*, which are treated as if they were binary and in two's complement representation.

The operation to be performed and the return value are determined by op.

**boole** returns the values specified for any *op* in Figure 12–17.

Op	Result
boole-1	integer-1
boole-2	integer-2
boole-andc1	and complement of integer-1 with integer-2
boole-andc2	and integer-1 with complement of integer-2
boole-and	and
boole-c1	complement of integer-1
boole-c2	complement of integer-2
$\operatorname{boole-clr}$	always 0 (all zero bits)
boole-eqv	equivalence (exclusive nor)
boole-ior	inclusive or
boole-nand	not-and
boole-nor	not-or
boole-orc1	or complement of integer-1 with integer-2
boole-orc2	or integer-1 with complement of integer-2
boole-set	always -1 (all one bits)
boole-xor	exclusive or

Figure 12-17. Bit-Wise Logical Operations

```
(boole boole-ior 1 16) \rightarrow 17

(boole boole-and -2 5) \rightarrow 4

(boole boole-eqv 17 15) \rightarrow -31

;;; These examples illustrate the result of applying BOOLE and each ;;; of the possible values of OP to each possible combination of bits. (progn (format t "~&Results of (BOOLE <op> #b0011 #b0101) ...~ ~%--Op----Decimal---Binary--Bits---%") (dolist (symbol '(boole-1 boole-2 boole-and boole-andc1 boole-andc2 boole-c1 boole-c2 boole-clr boole-eqv boole-ior boole-nand boole-nor
```

```
boole-orc1 boole-orc2 boole-set boole-xor))
     (let ((result (boole (symbol-value symbol) #b0011 #b0101)))
       (format t "~& ~A~13T~3,' D~23T~:*~5,' B~31T ...~4,'0B~%"
               symbol result (logand result #b1111)))))
\triangleright Results of (BOOLE <op> #b0011 #b0101) ...

▷ BOOLE-1

                 3
                            11
                                   ...0011
⊳ BOOLE-2
                           101
                 5
                                   ...0101

▷ BOOLE-AND

                 1
                            1
                                  ...0001

▷ BOOLE-ANDC1

                           100
                                   ...0100

▷ BOOLE-ANDC2 2

                           10
                                   ...0010
                          -100

▷ BOOLE-C1

                -4
                                   ...1100

▷ BOOLE-C2

                -6
                          -110
                                   ...1010
\triangleright
  BOOLE-CLR
                 0
                            0
                                   ...0000
\triangleright
  BOOLE-EQV
                -7
                          -111
                                   ...1001
  BOOLE-IOR
                 7
                           111
                                   ...0111
  BOOLE-NAND
                -2
                           -10
                                   ...1110
\triangleright
  BOOLE-NOR
                -8
                         -1000
                                   ...1000

▷ BOOLE-ORC1

                -3
                           -11
                                   ...1101

▷ BOOLE-ORC2

               -5
                          -101
                                   ...1011

▷ BOOLE-SET

                -1
                            -1
                                   ...1111

▷ BOOLE-XOR

                           110
                                   ...0110

ightarrow NIL
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal **type-error** if its first argument is not a *bit-wise logical operation specifier* or if any subsequent argument is not an *integer*.

#### See Also:

logand

# Notes:

In general,

```
(boole boole-and x y) \equiv (logand x y)
```

Programmers who would prefer to use numeric indices rather than bit-wise logical operation specifiers can get an equivalent effect by a technique such as the following:

```
boole-c2 boole-orc2 boole-nand boole-set)) 

\rightarrow B00LE-N-VECTOR (proclaim '(inline boole-n)) 

\rightarrow implementation-dependent (defun boole-n (n integer &rest more-integers) (apply #'boole (elt boole-n-vector n) integer more-integers)) 

\rightarrow B00LE-N (boole-n #b0111 5 3) \rightarrow 7 (boole-n #b0001 5 3) \rightarrow 1 (boole-n #b1101 5 3) \rightarrow -3 (loop for n from #b0000 to #b1111 collect (boole-n n 5 3)) 

\rightarrow (0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 -8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1)
```

boole-1, boole-2, boole-and, boole-andc1, boole-andc2, boole-c1, boole-c2, boole-clr, boole-eqv, boole-ior, boole-nand, boole-nor, boole-orc1, boole-orc2, boole-set, boole-xor

\*\*Constant Variable\*\*

#### **Constant Value:**

The identity and nature of the *values* of each of these *variables* is *implementation-dependent*, except that it must be *distinct* from each of the *values* of the others, and it must be a valid first argument to the *function* boole.

### **Description:**

Each of these *constants* has a value which is one of the sixteen possible bit-wise logical operation specifiers.

#### **Examples:**

```
(boole boole-ior 1 16) 
ightarrow 17 (boole boole-and -2 5) 
ightarrow 4 (boole boole-eqv 17 15) 
ightarrow -31
```

## See Also:

boole

### logand, logandc1, logandc2, logeqv, logior, lognand, ...

# logand, logandc1, logandc2, logeqv, logior, lognand, lognor, logorc1, logorc2, logxor Function

### **Syntax:**

```
logand &rest integers \rightarrow result-integer logandc1 integer-1 integer-2 \rightarrow result-integer logandc2 integer-1 integer-2 \rightarrow result-integer logeqv &rest integers \rightarrow result-integer logior &rest integers \rightarrow result-integer lognand integer-1 integer-2 \rightarrow result-integer lognor integer-1 integer-2 \rightarrow result-integer lognot integer \rightarrow result-integer logorc1 integer-1 integer-2 \rightarrow result-integer logorc2 integer-1 integer-2 \rightarrow result-integer logorc2 integer-1 integer-2 \rightarrow result-integer logorc2 integer-1 integer-2 \rightarrow result-integer
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
integers—integers.
integer—an integer.
integer-1—an integer.
integer-2—an integer.
result-integer—an integer.
```

### Description:

The functions logandc1, logandc2, logand, logeqv, logior, lognand, lognor, lognot, logorc1, logorc2, and logxor perform bit-wise logical operations on their arguments, that are treated as if they were binary.

Figure 12–18 lists the meaning of each of the *functions*. Where an 'identity' is shown, it indicates the *value yielded* by the *function* when no *arguments* are supplied.

### logand, logandc1, logandc2, logeqv, logior, lognand, ...

Function	Identity	Operation performed
logandc1	_	and complement of integer-1 with integer-2
logandc2	_	and integer-1 with complement of integer-2
logand	-1	and
logeqv	-1	equivalence (exclusive nor)
logior	0	inclusive or
lognand		complement of integer-1 and integer-2
lognor	_	complement of integer-1 or integer-2
lognot	_	complement
logorc1		or complement of integer-1 with integer-2
logorc2	_	or integer-1 with complement of integer-2
logxor	0	exclusive or

Figure 12-18. Bit-wise Logical Operations on Integers

Negative integers are treated as if they were in two's-complement notation.

### **Examples:**

```
(logior 1 2 4 8) 
ightarrow 15
 (logxor 1 3 7 15) \rightarrow 10
 (logeqv) 
ightarrow -1
 (logand 16 31) \rightarrow 16
 (lognot 0) \rightarrow -1
 (lognot 1) \rightarrow -2
 (lognot -1) \rightarrow 0
 (lognot (1+ (lognot 1000))) 
ightarrow 999
;;; In the following example, m is a mask. For each bit in
;;; the mask that is a 1, the corresponding bits in x and y are
;;; exchanged. For each bit in the mask that is a 0, the
;;; corresponding bits of \boldsymbol{x} and \boldsymbol{y} are left unchanged.
 (flet ((show (m x y)
            (format t "-%m = #o-6,'00-%x = #o-6,'00-%y = #o-6,'00-%"
   (let ((m #o007750)
          (x #o452576)
          (y #o317407))
      (show m x y)
      (let ((z (logand (logxor x y) m)))
        (setq x (logxor z x))
        (setq y (logxor z y))
        (show m x y))))
\triangleright m = #o007750
```

```
\triangleright x = #o452576

\triangleright y = #o317407

\triangleright

\triangleright m = #o007750

\triangleright x = #o457426

\triangleright y = #o312557

\rightarrow NIL
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal **type-error** if any argument is not an *integer*.

### See Also:

boole

### Notes:

(logbitp k -1) returns true for all values of k.

Because the following functions are not associative, they take exactly two arguments rather than any number of arguments.

```
(lognand n1 n2) \equiv (lognot (logand n1 n2))
(lognor n1 n2) \equiv (lognot (logior n1 n2))
(logandc1 n1 n2) \equiv (logand (lognot n1) n2)
(logandc2 n1 n2) \equiv (logand n1 (lognot n2))
(logiorc1 n1 n2) \equiv (logior (lognot n1) n2)
(logiorc2 n1 n2) \equiv (logior n1 (lognot n2))
(logbitp j (lognot x)) \equiv (not (logbitp j x))
```

logbitp

### Syntax:

 $\mathbf{logbitp} \ \textit{index integer} \ \rightarrow \textit{generalized-boolean}$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
index—a non-negative integer.
```

integer—an integer.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

### **Description:**

**logbitp** is used to test the value of a particular bit in *integer*, that is treated as if it were binary. The value of **logbitp** is *true* if the bit in *integer* whose index is *index* (that is, its weight is  $2^{index}$ ) is a one-bit; otherwise it is *false*.

Negative *integers* are treated as if they were in two's-complement notation.

### **Examples:**

```
(logbitp 1 1) \rightarrow false
(logbitp 0 1) \rightarrow true
(logbitp 3 10) \rightarrow true
(logbitp 1000000 -1) \rightarrow true
(logbitp 2 6) \rightarrow true
(logbitp 0 6) \rightarrow false
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *index* is not a non-negative *integer*. Should signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *integer* is not an *integer*.

### Notes:

```
(logbitp k n) \equiv (ldb-test (byte 1 k) n)
```

logcount

Function

### Syntax:

```
logcount integer \rightarrow number-of-on-bits
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
integer—an integer.
```

number-of-on-bits—a non-negative integer.

### **Description:**

Computes and returns the number of bits in the two's-complement binary representation of *integer* that are 'on' or 'set'. If *integer* is negative, the 0 bits are counted; otherwise, the 1 bits are counted.

### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{logcount 0}) \, \to \, 0 \\ (\text{logcount -1}) \, \to \, 0 \\ (\text{logcount 7}) \, \to \, 3 \end{array}
```

```
(logcount 13) \rightarrow 3 ;Two's-complement binary: ...0001101 (logcount -13) \rightarrow 2 ;Two's-complement binary: ...1110011 (logcount 30) \rightarrow 4 ;Two's-complement binary: ...0011110 (logcount -30) \rightarrow 4 ;Two's-complement binary: ...1100010 (logcount (expt 2 100)) \rightarrow 1 (logcount (- (expt 2 100))) \rightarrow 100 (logcount (- (1+ (expt 2 100)))) \rightarrow 1
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal **type-error** if its argument is not an *integer*.

### Notes:

Even if the *implementation* does not represent *integers* internally in two's complement binary, **logcount** behaves as if it did.

The following identity always holds:

```
(logcount x)

\equiv (logcount (- (+ x 1)))

\equiv (logcount (lognot x))
```

logtest

### Syntax:

logtest integer-1 integer-2  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
integer-1—an integer.
integer-2—an integer.
generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

### **Description:**

Returns *true* if any of the bits designated by the 1's in *integer-1* is 1 in *integer-2*; otherwise it is *false*. *integer-1* and *integer-2* are treated as if they were binary.

Negative *integer-1* and *integer-2* are treated as if they were represented in two's-complement binary.

### **Examples:**

```
(logtest 1 7) \rightarrow true (logtest 1 2) \rightarrow false
```

```
(logtest -2 -1) \rightarrow true (logtest 0 -1) \rightarrow false
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if integer-1 is not an integer. Should signal an error of type type-error if integer-2 is not an integer.

### Notes:

```
(logtest x y) \equiv (not (zerop (logand x y)))
```

### byte, byte-size, byte-position

**Function** 

### Syntax:

```
byte size position \rightarrow bytespec
byte-size bytespec \rightarrow size
byte-position bytespec \rightarrow position
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
size, position—a non-negative integer.
bytespec—a byte specifier.
```

### Description:

byte returns a byte specifier that indicates a byte of width size and whose bits have weights  $2^{position+size-1}$  through  $2^{position}$ , and whose representation is implementation-dependent.

byte-size returns the number of bits specified by bytespec.

byte-position returns the position specified by bytespec.

### **Examples:**

```
(setq b (byte 100 200)) \to #<BYTE-SPECIFIER size 100 position 200> (byte-size b) \to 100 (byte-position b) \to 200
```

### See Also:

ldb, dpb

### Notes:

```
(byte-size (byte j k)) \equiv j (byte-position (byte j k)) \equiv k

A byte of size of 0 is permissible; it refers to a byte of width zero. For example, (ldb (byte 0 3) #o7777) \rightarrow 0 (dpb #o7777 (byte 0 3) 0) \rightarrow 0
```

### deposit-field

Function

### **Syntax:**

 $\mathbf{deposit\text{-}field} \ \textit{newbyte bytespec integer} \ \rightarrow \textit{result-integer}$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
newbyte—an integer.
bytespec—a byte specifier.
integer—an integer.
result-integer—an integer.
```

### **Description:**

Replaces a field of bits within *integer*; specifically, returns an *integer* that contains the bits of *newbyte* within the *byte* specified by *bytespec*, and elsewhere contains the bits of *integer*.

### **Examples:**

```
(deposit-field 7 (byte 2 1) 0) \rightarrow 6 (deposit-field -1 (byte 4 0) 0) \rightarrow 15 (deposit-field 0 (byte 2 1) -3) \rightarrow -7
```

### See Also:

byte, dpb

### Notes:

```
(logbitp j (deposit-field m (byte s p) n))
\equiv (\text{if (and (>= } j p) (< j (+ p s))) \\ (\text{logbitp } j m) \\ (\text{logbitp } j n))
```

deposit-field is to mask-field as dpb is to ldb.

**dpb** 

### Syntax:

 $\mathbf{dpb}$  newbyte bytespec integer  $\rightarrow$  result-integer

### **Pronunciation:**

$$[ {}_{1}\mathbf{d}\epsilon^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{p}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{b} ] \text{ or } [ {}_{1}\mathbf{d}\epsilon^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{p}\epsilon\mathbf{b} ] \text{ or } [ {}_{1}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{e}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{p}\mathbf{e}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{b}\mathbf{e} ]$$

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
newbyte—an integer.

bytespec—a byte specifier.

integer—an integer.

result-integer—an integer.
```

### **Description:**

**dpb** (deposit byte) is used to replace a field of bits within *integer*. **dpb** returns an *integer* that is the same as *integer* except in the bits specified by *bytespec*.

Let s be the size specified by *bytespec*; then the low s bits of *newbyte* appear in the result in the byte specified by *bytespec*. *Newbyte* is interpreted as being right-justified, as if it were the result of ldb.

### **Examples:**

```
(dpb 1 (byte 1 10) 0) \to 1024 (dpb -2 (byte 2 10) 0) \to 2048 (dpb 1 (byte 2 10) 2048) \to 1024
```

#### See Also:

byte, deposit-field, ldb

### **Notes:**

```
(logbitp j (dpb m (byte s p) n))
\equiv (if (and (>= j p) (< j (+ p s)))
(logbitp (-j p) m)
(logbitp j n))
```

In general,

```
(dpb x (byte 0 y) z) \rightarrow z
```

for all valid values of x, y, and z.

Historically, the name "dpb" comes from a DEC PDP-10 assembly language instruction meaning "deposit byte."

ldb Accessor

### Syntax:

```
ldb bytespec integer \rightarrow byte (setf (ldb bytespec place) new-byte)
```

### Pronunciation:

$$[\ ^{1}$$
lidib $]$  or  $[\ ^{1}$ lid $\epsilon$ b $]$  or  $[\ ^{1}$ el $\ ^{1}$ de $\ ^{1}$ be $]$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
bytespec—a byte specifier.

integer—an integer.

byte, new-byte—a non-negative integer.
```

### **Description:**

ldb extracts and returns the byte of integer specified by bytespec.

ldb returns an integer in which the bits with weights  $2^{(s-1)}$  through  $2^0$  are the same as those in integer with weights  $2^{(p+s-1)}$  through  $2^p$ , and all other bits zero; s is (byte-size bytespec) and p is (byte-position bytespec).

setf may be used with ldb to modify a byte within the *integer* that is stored in a given *place*. The order of evaluation, when an ldb form is supplied to setf, is exactly left-to-right. The effect is to perform a dpb operation and then store the result back into the *place*.

### **Examples:**

```
(ldb (byte 2 1) 10) \rightarrow 1 (setq a (list 8)) \rightarrow (8) (setf (ldb (byte 2 1) (car a)) 1) \rightarrow 1 a \rightarrow (10)
```

### See Also:

byte, byte-position, byte-size, dpb

### Notes:

```
(logbitp j (ldb (byte s p) n))
\equiv (\text{and } (\langle j s) \text{ (logbitp } (+ j p) n))
In general,
(\text{ldb (byte 0 } x) y) \rightarrow 0
for all valid values of x and y.
```

Historically, the name "ldb" comes from a DEC PDP-10 assembly language instruction meaning "load byte."

ldb-test Function

### Syntax:

ldb-test bytespec integer  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
bytespec—a byte specifier.

integer—an integer.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

### Description:

Returns *true* if any of the bits of the byte in *integer* specified by *bytespec* is non-zero; otherwise returns *false*.

### **Examples:**

```
(ldb-test (byte 4 1) 16) \rightarrow true (ldb-test (byte 3 1) 16) \rightarrow false (ldb-test (byte 3 2) 16) \rightarrow true
```

### See Also:

byte, ldb, zerop

### **Notes:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\mbox{ldb-test bytespec n}) \equiv \\ (\mbox{not (zerop (ldb bytespec n))}) \equiv \\ (\mbox{logtest (ldb bytespec -1) n}) \end{array}
```

mask-field Accessor

### Syntax:

```
mask-field bytespec integer \rightarrow masked-integer (setf (mask-field bytespec place) new-masked-integer)
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
bytespec—a byte specifier.

integer—an integer.

masked-integer, new-masked-integer—a non-negative integer.
```

### **Description:**

mask-field performs a "mask" operation on *integer*. It returns an *integer* that has the same bits as *integer* in the *byte* specified by *bytespec*, but that has zero-bits everywhere else.

setf may be used with mask-field to modify a byte within the *integer* that is stored in a given place. The effect is to perform a deposit-field operation and then store the result back into the place.

### **Examples:**

```
(mask-field (byte 1 5) -1) \rightarrow 32 (setq a 15) \rightarrow 15 (mask-field (byte 2 0) a) \rightarrow 3 a \rightarrow 15 (setf (mask-field (byte 2 0) a) 1) \rightarrow 1 a \rightarrow 13
```

### See Also:

byte, ldb

#### Notes:

```
(ldb bs (mask-field bs n)) \equiv (ldb bs n)
(logbitp j (mask-field (byte s p) n))
\equiv (and (>= j p) (< j s) (logbitp j n))
(mask-field bs n) \equiv (logand n (dpb -1 bs 0))
```

## most-positive-fixnum, most-negative-fixnum Constant

### Constant Value:

implementation-dependent.

### **Description:**

 ${f most-positive-fixnum}$  is that  ${\it fixnum}$  closest in value to positive infinity provided by the implementation, and greater than or equal to both  $2^{15}$  - 1 and  ${f array-dimension-limit}$ .

most-negative-fixnum is that fixnum closest in value to negative infinity provided by the implementation, and less than or equal to  $-2^{15}$ .

# decode-float, scale-float, float-radix, float-sign, float-digits, float-precision, integer-decode-float

**Function** 

### **Syntax:**

```
decode-float float 	op significand, exponent, sign scale-float float integer 	op scaled-float float float 	op float-radix float-radix float-sign float-1 & optional float-2 	op signed-float float-digits float 	op digits1 float-precision float 	op digits2 integer-decode-float float 	op significand, exponent, integer-sign
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
digits1—a non-negative integer.
digits2—a non-negative integer.
exponent—an integer.
float—a float.
float-1—a float.
float-2—a float.
```

### decode-float, scale-float, float-radix, float-sign, ...

```
float-radix—an integer.

integer—a non-negative integer.

integer-sign—the integer -1, or the integer 1.

scaled-float—a float.

sign—A float of the same type as float but numerically equal to 1.0 or -1.0.

signed-float—a float.

significand—a float.
```

### Description:

**decode-float** computes three values that characterize *float*. The first value is of the same type as float and represents the significand. The second value represents the exponent to which the radix (notated in this description by b) must be raised to obtain the value that, when multiplied with the first result, produces the absolute value of float. If float is zero, any integer value may be returned, provided that the identity shown for **scale-float** holds. The third value is of the same type as float and is 1.0 if float is greater than or equal to zero or -1.0 otherwise.

**decode-float** divides *float* by an integral power of b so as to bring its value between 1/b (inclusive) and 1 (exclusive), and returns the quotient as the first value. If *float* is zero, however, the result equals the absolute value of *float* (that is, if there is a negative zero, its significand is considered to be a positive zero).

scale-float returns (\* float (expt (float b float) integer)), where b is the radix of the floating-point representation. float is not necessarily between 1/b and 1.

float-radix returns the radix of float.

float-sign returns a number z such that z and float-1 have the same sign and also such that z and float-2 have the same absolute value. If float-2 is not supplied, its value is (float 1 float-1). If an implementation has distinct representations for negative zero and positive zero, then (float-sign -0.0)  $\rightarrow -1.0$ .

**float-digits** returns the number of radix b digits used in the representation of *float* (including any implicit digits, such as a "hidden bit").

float-precision returns the number of significant radix b digits present in float; if float is a float zero, then the result is an integer zero.

For normalized floats, the results of **float-digits** and **float-precision** are the same, but the precision is less than the number of representation digits for a denormalized or zero number.

integer-decode-float computes three values that characterize *float* - the significand scaled so as to be an *integer*, and the same last two values that are returned by **decode-float**. If *float* is zero, integer-decode-float returns zero as the first value. The second value bears the same relationship

### decode-float, scale-float, float-radix, float-sign, ...

to the first value as for **decode-float**:

### **Examples:**

```
;; Note that since the purpose of this functionality is to expose
;; details of the implementation, all of these examples are necessarily
;; very implementation-dependent. Results may vary widely.
;; Values shown here are chosen consistently from one particular implementation.
(decode-float .5) \rightarrow 0.5, 0, 1.0
(decode-float 1.0) \rightarrow 0.5, 1, 1.0
(scale-float 1.0 1) 
ightarrow 2.0
(scale-float 10.01 -2) \rightarrow 2.5025
(scale-float 23.0 0) \rightarrow 23.0
(float-radix 1.0) 
ightarrow 2
(float-sign 5.0) 
ightarrow 1.0
(float-sign -5.0) 
ightarrow -1.0
(float-sign 0.0) 
ightarrow 1.0
(float-sign 1.0 0.0) \rightarrow 0.0
(float-sign 1.0 -10.0) \rightarrow 10.0
(float-sign -1.0 10.0) \rightarrow -10.0
(float-digits 1.0) 
ightarrow 24
(float-precision 1.0) 
ightarrow 24
(float-precision least-positive-single-float) 
ightarrow 1
(integer-decode-float 1.0) 
ightarrow 8388608, -23, 1
```

### Affected By:

The implementation's representation for *floats*.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

The functions decode-float, float-radix, float-digits, float-precision, and integer-decode-float should signal an error if their only argument is not a *float*.

The function scale-float should signal an error if its first argument is not a float or if its second argument is not an integer.

The function float-sign should signal an error if its first argument is not a float or if its second argument is supplied but is not a float.

#### Notes:

The product of the first result of **decode-float** or **integer-decode-float**, of the radix raised to the power of the second result, and of the third result is exactly equal to the value of *float*.

```
(multiple-value-bind (signif expon sign)
```

float

### Syntax:

float number &optional prototype  $\rightarrow$  float

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
number—a real.

prototype—a float.

float—a float.
```

### **Description:**

float converts a real number to a float.

If a prototype is supplied, a float is returned that is mathematically equal to number but has the same format as prototype.

If *prototype* is not supplied, then if the *number* is already a *float*, it is returned; otherwise, a *float* is returned that is mathematically equal to *number* but is a *single float*.

### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} ({\tt float}\ 0)\ \to\ 0.0 \\ ({\tt float}\ 1.5)\ \to\ 1.0 \\ ({\tt float}\ 1.0)\ \to\ 1.0 \\ ({\tt float}\ 1/2)\ \to\ 0.5 \\ \to\ 1.0{\tt d0} \\ \stackrel{or}{\to}\ 1.0 \\ ({\tt eql}\ ({\tt float}\ 1.0\ 1.0{\tt d0})\ 1.0{\tt d0})\ \to\ true \end{array}
```

### See Also:

coerce

floatp

### Syntax:

floatp object

 ${\it generalized-boolean}$ 

### Arguments and Values:

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

### **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type float; otherwise, returns false.

### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{ll} ({\tt floatp~1.2d2}) \, \to \, true \\ ({\tt floatp~1.212}) \, \to \, true \\ ({\tt floatp~1.2s2}) \, \to \, true \\ ({\tt floatp~(expt~2~130)}) \, \to \, false \end{array}
```

### Notes:

```
(floatp object) \equiv (typep object 'float)
```

### most-positive-short-float, least-positive-short-float, ...

most-positive-short-float, least-positive-shortfloat, least-positive-normalized-short-float, mostpositive-double-float, least-positive-double-float, least-positive-normalized-double-float, mostpositive-long-float, least-positive-long-float, leastpositive-normalized-long-float, most-positivesingle-float, least-positive-single-float, leastpositive-normalized-single-float, most-negativeshort-float, least-negative-short-float, leastnegative-normalized-short-float, most-negativesingle-float, least-negative-single-float, leastnegative-normalized-single-float, most-negativedouble-float, least-negative-double-float, leastnegative-normalized-double-float, most-negativelong-float, least-negative-long-float, least-negativenormalized-long-float ConstantVariable

### Constant Value:

implementation-dependent.

### **Description:**

These constant variables provide a way for programs to examine the implementation-defined limits for the various float formats.

Of these variables, each which has "-normalized" in its name must have a value which is a normalized float, and each which does not have "-normalized" in its name may have a value which is either a normalized float or a denormalized float, as appropriate.

Of these variables, each which has "short-float" in its name must have a value which is a short float, each which has "single-float" in its name must have a value which is a single float, each which has "double-float" in its name must have a value which is a double float, and each which has "long-float" in its name must have a value which is a long float.

 most-positive-short-float, most-positive-single-float, most-positive-double-float, most-positive-long-float

Each of these constant variables has as its value the positive float of the largest magnitude

(closest in value to, but not equal to, positive infinity) for the float format implied by its name.

• least-positive-short-float, least-positive-normalized-short-float, least-positive-single-float, least-positive-normalized-single-float, least-positive-double-float, least-positive-normalized-double-float, least-positive-long-float, least-positive-normalized-long-float

Each of these *constant variables* has as its *value* the smallest positive (nonzero) *float* for the float format implied by its name.

• least-negative-short-float, least-negative-normalized-short-float, least-negative-single-float, least-negative-normalized-single-float, least-negative-normalized-double-float, least-negative-normalized-long-float, least-negative-normalized-long-float

Each of these constant variables has as its value the negative (nonzero) float of the smallest magnitude for the float format implied by its name. (If an implementation supports minus zero as a different object from positive zero, this value must not be minus zero.)

 most-negative-short-float, most-negative-single-float, most-negative-double-float, most-negative-long-float

Each of these *constant variables* has as its *value* the negative *float* of the largest magnitude (closest in value to, but not equal to, negative infinity) for the float format implied by its name.

### Notes:

short-float-epsilon, short-float-negative-epsilon, single-float-epsilon, single-float-negative-epsilon, double-float-epsilon, double-float-negative-epsilon, long-float-epsilon, long-float-negative-epsilon Constant Variable

### Constant Value:

implementation-dependent.

### **Description:**

The value of each of the constants short-float-epsilon, single-float-epsilon, double-float-epsilon, and long-float-epsilon is the smallest positive float  $\epsilon$  of the given format, such that the following expression is true when evaluated:

```
(not (= (float 1 \epsilon) (+ (float 1 \epsilon) \epsilon)))
```

The value of each of the constants short-float-negative-epsilon, single-float-negative-epsilon, double-float-negative-epsilon, and long-float-negative-epsilon is the smallest positive float  $\epsilon$  of the given format, such that the following expression is true when evaluated:

```
(not (= (float 1 \epsilon) (- (float 1 \epsilon) \epsilon)))
```

### arithmetic-error

Condition Type

### Class Precedence List:

arithmetic-error, error, serious-condition, condition, t

### **Description:**

The type arithmetic-error consists of error conditions that occur during arithmetic operations. The operation and operands are initialized with the initialization arguments named :operation and :operands to make-condition, and are accessed by the functions arithmetic-error-operation and arithmetic-error-operands.

### See Also:

arithmetic-error-operation, arithmetic-error-operands

### arithmetic-error-operands, arithmetic-erroroperation Function

### Syntax:

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
condition—a condition of type arithmetic-error. operands—a list. operation—a function designator.
```

### Description:

**arithmetic-error-operands** returns a *list* of the operands which were used in the offending call to the operation that signaled the *condition*.

**arithmetic-error-operation** returns a list of the offending operation in the offending call that signaled the condition.

### See Also:

arithmetic-error, Chapter 9 (Conditions)

Notes:

### division-by-zero

Condition Type

### Class Precedence List:

division-by-zero, arithmetic-error, error, serious-condition, condition, t

### **Description:**

The type division-by-zero consists of error conditions that occur because of division by zero.

### floating-point-invalid-operation

Condition Type

### Class Precedence List:

floating-point-invalid-operation, arithmetic-error, error, serious-condition, condition, t

### **Description:**

The type floating-point-invalid-operation consists of error conditions that occur because of certain floating point traps.

It is *implementation-dependent* whether floating point traps occur, and whether or how they may be enabled or disabled. Therefore, conforming code may establish handlers for this condition, but must not depend on its being *signaled*.

### floating-point-inexact

Condition Type

### Class Precedence List:

 $floating-point-inexact,\ arithmetic-error,\ error,\ serious-condition,\ condition,\ t$ 

### **Description:**

The *type* floating-point-inexact consists of error conditions that occur because of certain floating point traps.

It is *implementation-dependent* whether floating point traps occur, and whether or how they may be enabled or disabled. Therefore, conforming code may establish handlers for this condition, but must not depend on its being *signaled*.

### floating-point-overflow

Condition Type

### Class Precedence List:

floating-point-overflow, arithmetic-error, error, serious-condition, condition, t

### Description:

The type floating-point-overflow consists of error conditions that occur because of floating-point overflow.

### floating-point-underflow

Condition Type

### Class Precedence List:

floating-point-underflow, arithmetic-error, error, serious-condition, condition, t

### **Description:**

The type floating-point-underflow consists of error conditions that occur because of floating-point underflow.

## Programming Language—Common Lisp

13. Characters

### 13.1 Character Concepts

### 13.1.1 Introduction to Characters

A **character** is an *object* that represents a unitary token (e.g., a letter, a special symbol, or a "control character") in an aggregate quantity of text (e.g., a *string* or a text *stream*).

Common Lisp allows an implementation to provide support for international language *characters* as well as *characters* used in specialized arenas (e.g., mathematics).

The following figures contain lists of defined names applicable to characters.

Figure 13–1 lists some defined names relating to character attributes and character predicates.

alpha-char-p alphanumericp both-case-p char-code-limit char-equal	char-not-equal char-not-greaterp char-not-lessp char/= char<	char> char>= digit-char-p graphic-char-p lower-case-p
char-equal	char<	lower-case-p
char-greaterp	char<=	standard-char-p
char-lessp	char=	upper-case-p

Figure 13-1. Character defined names - 1

Figure 13–2 lists some *character* construction and conversion *defined names*.

char-code	char-name	code-char	
char-downcase	char-upcase	digit-char	
char-int	${ m character}$	name-char	

Figure 13-2. Character defined names - 2

### 13.1.2 Introduction to Scripts and Repertoires

### 13.1.2.1 Character Scripts

A script is one of possibly several sets that form an exhaustive partition of the type character.

The number of such sets and boundaries between them is *implementation-defined*. Common Lisp does not require these sets to be *types*, but an *implementation* is permitted to define such *types* as an extension. Since no *character* from one *script* can ever be a member of another *script*, it is generally more useful to speak about *character repertoires*.

Although the term "script" is chosen for definitional compatibility with ISO terminology, no conforming implementation is required to use any particular scripts standardized by ISO or by any other standards organization.

Whether and how the *script* or *scripts* used by any given *implementation* are named is *implementation-dependent*.

### 13.1.2.2 Character Repertoires

A **repertoire** is a *type specifier* for a *subtype* of *type* **character**. This term is generally used when describing a collection of *characters* independent of their coding. *Characters* in *repertoires* are only identified by name, by *glyph*, or by character description.

A repertoire can contain characters from several scripts, and a character can appear in more than one repertoire.

For some examples of repertoires, see the coded character standards ISO 8859/1, ISO 8859/2, and ISO 6937/2. Note, however, that although the term "repertoire" is chosen for definitional compatibility with ISO terminology, no conforming implementation is required to use repertoires standardized by ISO or any other standards organization.

### 13.1.3 Character Attributes

Characters have only one standardized attribute: a code. A character's code is a non-negative integer. This code is composed from a character script and a character label in an implementation-dependent way. See the functions char-code and code-char.

Additional, *implementation-defined attributes* of *characters* are also permitted so that, for example, two *characters* with the same *code* may differ in some other, *implementation-defined* way.

For any implementation-defined attribute there is a distinguished value called the **null** value for that attribute. A character for which each implementation-defined attribute has the null value for that attribute is called a simple character. If the implementation has no implementation-defined attributes, then all characters are simple characters.

### 13.1.4 Character Categories

There are several (overlapping) categories of characters that have no formally associated type but that are nevertheless useful to name. They include graphic characters, alphabetic<sub>1</sub> characters, characters with case (uppercase and lowercase characters), numeric characters, alphanumeric characters, and digits (in a given radix).

For each *implementation-defined attribute* of a *character*, the documentation for that *implementation* must specify whether *characters* that differ only in that *attribute* are permitted to differ in whether are not they are members of one of the aforementioned categories.

Note that these terms are defined independently of any special syntax which might have been enabled in the *current readtable*.

### 13.1.4.1 Graphic Characters

Characters that are classified as **graphic**, or displayable, are each associated with a glyph, a visual representation of the character.

A graphic character is one that has a standard textual representation as a single glyph, such as A or \* or =. Space, which effectively has a blank glyph, is defined to be a graphic.

Of the standard characters, newline is non-graphic and all others are graphic; see Section 2.1.3 (Standard Characters).

Characters that are not graphic are called **non-graphic**. Non-graphic characters are sometimes informally called "formatting characters" or "control characters."

#\Backspace, #\Tab, #\Rubout, #\Linefeed, #\Return, and #\Page, if they are supported by the implementation, are non-graphic.

### 13.1.4.2 Alphabetic Characters

The  $alphabetic_1$  characters are a subset of the graphic characters. Of the standard characters, only these are the  $alphabetic_1$  characters:

```
A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z
```

Any implementation-defined character that has case must be alphabetic<sub>1</sub>. For each implementation-defined graphic character that has no case, it is implementation-defined whether that character is  $alphabetic_1$ .

### 13.1.4.3 Characters With Case

The characters with case are a subset of the alphabetic<sub>1</sub> characters. A character with case has the property of being either uppercase or lowercase. Every character with case is in one-to-one correspondence with some other character with the opposite case.

### 13.1.4.3.1 Uppercase Characters

An uppercase *character* is one that has a corresponding *lowercase character* that is *different* (and can be obtained using **char-downcase**).

Of the standard characters, only these are uppercase characters:

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z

#### 13.1.4.3.2 Lowercase Characters

A lowercase *character* is one that has a corresponding *uppercase character* that is *different* (and can be obtained using **char-upcase**).

Of the standard characters, only these are lowercase characters:

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

### 13.1.4.3.3 Corresponding Characters in the Other Case

The uppercase standard characters A through Z mentioned above respectively correspond to the lowercase standard characters a through z mentioned above. For example, the uppercase character E corresponds to the lowercase character e, and vice versa.

### 13.1.4.3.4 Case of Implementation-Defined Characters

An implementation may define that other implementation-defined graphic characters have case. Such definitions must always be done in pairs—one uppercase character in one-to-one correspondence with one lowercase character.

### 13.1.4.4 Numeric Characters

The numeric characters are a subset of the graphic characters. Of the standard characters, only these are numeric characters:

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

For each implementation-defined graphic character that has no case, the implementation must define whether or not it is a numeric character.

### 13.1.4.5 Alphanumeric Characters

The set of  $alphanumeric\ characters$  is the union of the set of  $alphabetic_1\ characters$  and the set of  $numeric\ characters$ .

### 13.1.4.6 Digits in a Radix

What qualifies as a digit depends on the radix (an integer between 2 and 36, inclusive). The potential digits are:

```
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z
```

Their respective weights are  $0, 1, 2, \ldots 35$ . In any given radix n, only the first n potential digits are considered to be digits. For example, the digits in radix 2 are 0 and 1, the digits in radix 10 are 0 through 9, and the digits in radix 16 are 0 through F.

Case is not significant in digits; for example, in radix 16, both F and f are digits with weight 15.

### 13.1.5 Identity of Characters

Two characters that are eql, char=, or char-equal are not necessarily eq.

### 13.1.6 Ordering of Characters

The total ordering on *characters* is guaranteed to have the following properties:

- If two characters have the same implementation-defined attributes, then their ordering by char< is consistent with the numerical ordering by the predicate < on their code attributes.
- If two *characters* differ in any *attribute*, then they are not **char**=.
- The total ordering is not necessarily the same as the total ordering on the *integers* produced by applying **char-int** to the *characters*.
- While  $alphabetic_1$  standard characters of a given case must obey a partial ordering, they need not be contiguous; it is permissible for uppercase and lowercase characters to be interleaved. Thus (char<= #\a x #\z) is not a valid way of determining whether or not x is a lowercase character.

Of the standard characters, those which are alphanumeric obey the following partial ordering:

```
 A < B < C < D < E < F < G < H < I < J < K < L < M < N < O < P < Q < R < S < T < U < V < W < X < Y < Z \\ a < b < c < d < e < f < g < h < i < j < k < 1 < m < n < o < p < q < r < s < t < u < v < w < x < y < z \\ 0 < 1 < 2 < 3 < 4 < 5 < 6 < 7 < 8 < 9 \\ either 9 < A or Z < 0 \\ either 9 < a or z < 0
```

This implies that, for  $standard\ characters$ ,  $alphabetic_1$  ordering holds within each  $case\ (uppercase\ and\ lowercase)$ , and that the  $numeric\ characters$  as a group are not interleaved with  $alphabetic\ characters$ . However, the ordering or possible interleaving of  $uppercase\ characters$  and  $lowercase\ characters$  is implementation-defined.

### 13.1.7 Character Names

The following character names must be present in all conforming implementations:

#### Newline

The character that represents the division between lines. An implementation must translate between #\Newline, a single-character representation, and whatever external representation(s) may be used.

### ${\tt Space}$

The space or blank character.

The following names are *semi-standard*; if an *implementation* supports them, they should be used for the described *characters* and no others.

#### Rubout

The rubout or delete character.

### Page

The form-feed or page-separator character.

#### Tab

The tabulate character.

### Backspace

The backspace character.

#### Return

The carriage return character.

#### Linefeed

The line-feed character.

In some *implementations*, one or more of these *character names* might denote a *standard character*; for example, #\Linefeed and #\Newline might be the *same character* in some *implementations*.

### 13.1.8 Treatment of Newline during Input and Output

When the character #\Newline is written to an output file, the implementation must take the appropriate action to produce a line division. This might involve writing out a record or translating #\Newline to a CR/LF sequence. When reading, a corresponding reverse transformation must take place.

### 13.1.9 Character Encodings

A character is sometimes represented merely by its code, and sometimes by another integer value which is composed from the code and all implementation-defined attributes (in an implementation-defined way that might vary between Lisp images even in the same implementation). This integer, returned by the function char-int, is called the character's "encoding." There is no corresponding function from a character's encoding back to the character, since its primary intended uses include things like hashing where an inverse operation is not really called for.

### 13.1.10 Documentation of Implementation-Defined Scripts

An *implementation* must document the *character scripts* it supports. For each *character script* supported, the documentation must describe at least the following:

- Character labels, glyphs, and descriptions. Character labels must be uniquely named using only Latin capital letters A–Z, hyphen (-), and digits 0–9.
- Reader canonicalization. Any mechanisms by which **read** treats *different* characters as equivalent must be documented.
- The impact on **char-upcase**, **char-downcase**, and the case-sensitive *format directives*. In particular, for each *character* with *case*, whether it is *uppercase* or *lowercase*, and which *character* is its equivalent in the opposite case.
- The behavior of the case-insensitive functions char-equal, char-not-equal, char-lessp, char-greaterp, char-not-greaterp, and char-not-lessp.
- The behavior of any *character predicates*; in particular, the effects of alpha-char-p, lower-case-p, upper-case-p, both-case-p, graphic-char-p, and alphanumericp.
- The interaction with file I/O, in particular, the supported coded character sets (for example, ISO8859/1-1987) and external encoding schemes supported are documented.

**character** System Class

### Class Precedence List:

character, t

### Description:

A character is an object that represents a unitary token in an aggregate quantity of text; see Section 13.1 (Character Concepts).

The types base-char and extended-char form an exhaustive partition of the type character.

### See Also:

Section 13.1 (Character Concepts), Section 2.4.8.1 (Sharpsign Backslash), Section 22.1.3.2 (Printing Characters)

base-char Type

### **Supertypes:**

base-char, character, t

### **Description:**

The type base-char is defined as the upgraded array element type of standard-char. An implementation can support additional subtypes of type character (besides the ones listed in this standard) that might or might not be supertypes of type base-char. In addition, an implementation can define base-char to be the same type as character.

Base characters are distinguished in the following respects:

- 1. The type standard-char is a subrepertoire of the type base-char.
- 2. The selection of base characters that are not standard characters is implementation defined.
- 3. Only objects of the type base-char can be elements of a base string.
- 4. No upper bound is specified for the number of characters in the **base-char** repertoire; the size of that repertoire is implementation-defined. The lower bound is 96, the number of standard characters.

Whether a character is a base character depends on the way that an implementation represents strings, and not any other properties of the implementation or the host operating system. For example, one implementation might encode all strings as characters having 16-bit encodings, and another might have two kinds of strings: those with characters having 8-bit encodings and those with characters having 16-bit encodings. In the first implementation, the type base-char is

equivalent to the type **character**: there is only one kind of string. In the second implementation, the base characters might be those characters that could be stored in a string of characters having 8-bit encodings. In such an implementation, the type **base-char** is a proper subtype of the type **character**.

The type standard-char is a subtype of type base-char.

### standard-char

Type

### **Supertypes:**

standard-char, base-char, character, t

### **Description:**

A fixed set of 96 characters required to be present in all conforming implementations. Standard characters are defined in Section 2.1.3 (Standard Characters).

Any character that is not simple is not a standard character.

### See Also:

Section 2.1.3 (Standard Characters)

### extended-char

Type

### **Supertypes:**

 $\mathbf{extended\text{-}char},\,\mathbf{character},\,\mathbf{t}$ 

### Description:

The type extended-char is equivalent to the type (and character (not base-char)).

### Notes:

The type extended-char might have no elements<sub>4</sub> in implementations in which all characters are of type base-char.

### char=, char/=, char<, char>=, char>=, ...

char=, char/=, char<, char>, char<=, char>=, char-equal, char-not-equal, char-lessp, char-greaterp, char-not-lessp Function

### Syntax:

char= &rest characters<sup>+</sup> → generalized-boolean char/= &rest characters $^+$  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean char< &rest characters<sup>+</sup>  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean char> &rest characters<sup>+</sup>  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean char<= &rest characters<sup>+</sup> → generalized-boolean char>= &rest characters<sup>+</sup> ightarrow generalized-boolean char-equal &rest characters<sup>+</sup>  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean char-not-equal &rest characters+ → generalized-boolean char-lessp &rest characters<sup>+</sup> → generalized-boolean char-greaterp &rest characters<sup>+</sup>  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean char-not-greaterp &rest characters+  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean char-not-lessp &rest characters+ → generalized-boolean

### **Arguments and Values:**

character—a character.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### Description:

These predicates compare *characters*.

**char=** returns *true* if all *characters* are the *same*; otherwise, it returns *false*. If two *characters* differ in any *implementation-defined attributes*, then they are not **char=**.

**char**/= returns true if all characters are different; otherwise, it returns false.

**char<** returns *true* if the *characters* are monotonically increasing; otherwise, it returns *false*. If two *characters* have *identical implementation-defined attributes*, then their ordering by **char<** is consistent with the numerical ordering by the predicate < on their *codes*.

**char>** returns *true* if the *characters* are monotonically decreasing; otherwise, it returns *false*. If two *characters* have *identical implementation-defined attributes*, then their ordering by **char>** is consistent with the numerical ordering by the predicate > on their *codes*.

**char<=** returns *true* if the *characters* are monotonically nondecreasing; otherwise, it returns *false*. If two *characters* have *identical implementation-defined attributes*, then their ordering by **char<=** is consistent with the numerical ordering by the predicate **<=** on their *codes*.

char>= returns true if the characters are monotonically nonincreasing; otherwise, it returns false.

### char=, char/=, char<, char>=, char>=, ...

If two characters have identical implementation-defined attributes, then their ordering by char>= is consistent with the numerical ordering by the predicate >= on their codes.

char-equal, char-not-equal, char-lessp, char-greaterp, char-not-greaterp, and char-not-lessp are similar to char=, char/=, char<, char>, char>=, char>=, respectively, except that they ignore differences in case and might have an implementation-defined behavior for non-simple characters. For example, an implementation might define that char-equal, etc. ignore certain implementation-defined attributes. The effect, if any, of each implementation-defined attribute upon these functions must be specified as part of the definition of that attribute.

### Examples:

```
(char= \#\d \#\d) \rightarrow true
(char= #\A #\a) 
ightarrow false
(char= \#\d \#\x) \rightarrow false
(char= #\d #\D) 
ightarrow false
(char/= \#\d \#\d) \rightarrow false
(char/= \#\d \#\x) \rightarrow true
(char/= \#\d \#\D) \to true
(char= \#\d \#\d \#\d) \rightarrow true
(char/= \#\d \#\d \#\d \#\d) \rightarrow false
(char= \#\d \#\d \#\x \#\d) \rightarrow false
(char/= \#\d \#\d \#\x \#\d) \rightarrow false
(char= \#\d \#\y \#\x \#\c) \rightarrow false
(char/= \#\d \#\y \#\x \#\c) \rightarrow true
(char= \#\d \#\c \#\d) \rightarrow false
(char/= \#\d \#\c \#\d) \rightarrow false
(char< \#\d \#\x) \rightarrow true
(char<= #\d #\x) 
ightarrow true
(char< \#\d \#\d) \rightarrow false
(char<= \#\d \#\d) \rightarrow true
(char< \#\ #\e \#\ y \#\z) \rightarrow true
(char<= #\a #\e #\y #\z) 
ightarrow true
(char< \#\ #\e \#\ #\e \#\) \to false
(char<= #\a #\e #\e #\y) 
ightarrow true
(char> #\e #\d) 
ightarrow true
(char>= \#\d) \rightarrow true
(char> \#\d \#\c \#\b \#\a) \rightarrow true
(char>= #\d #\c #\b #\a) 
ightarrow true
(char> \#\d \#\d \#\c \#\a) \rightarrow false
(char>= #\d #\d #\c #\a) 
ightarrow true
(char> #\e #\d #\b #\c #\a) 
ightarrow false
(char>= #\e #\d #\b #\c #\a) \rightarrow false
(char> \#\xspace x) \to implementation-dependent
(char> \#\Z \ \#\A) \rightarrow implementation-dependent
(char-equal #\A #\a) \rightarrow true
```

```
(stable-sort (list #\b #\A #\B #\a #\c #\C) #'char-lessp)

→ (#\A #\a #\b #\B #\c #\C)
(stable-sort (list #\b #\A #\B #\a #\c #\C) #'char<)

→ (#\A #\B #\C #\a #\b #\c); Implementation A

→ (#\a #\b #\c #\A #\B #\C); Implementation B

→ (#\a #\A #\b #\B #\c #\C); Implementation C

→ (#\A #\a #\B #\b #\C #\c); Implementation D

→ (#\A #\B #\a #\b #\C #\c); Implementation E
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type **program-error** if at least one *character* is not supplied.

### See Also:

Section 2.1 (Character Syntax), Section 13.1.10 (Documentation of Implementation-Defined Scripts)

#### Notes:

If characters differ in their *code attribute* or any *implementation-defined attribute*, they are considered to be different by **char**=.

There is no requirement that (eq c1 c2) be true merely because (char= c1 c2) is true. While eq can distinguish two characters that char= does not, it is distinguishing them not as characters, but in some sense on the basis of a lower level implementation characteristic. If (eq c1 c2) is true, then (char= c1 c2) is also true. eql and equal compare characters in the same way that char= does

The manner in which *case* is used by **char-equal**, **char-not-equal**, **char-lessp**, **char-greaterp**, **char-not-greaterp**, and **char-not-lessp** implies an ordering for *standard characters* such that A=a, B=b, and so on, up to Z=z, and furthermore either 9<A or Z<0.

**character** Function

character character  $\rightarrow$  denoted-character

### **Arguments and Values:**

character—a character designator.

denoted-character—a character.

### Description:

Syntax:

Returns the *character* denoted by the *character* designator.

## **Examples:**

```
(character #\a) \rightarrow #\a

(character "a") \rightarrow #\a

(character 'a) \rightarrow #\A

(character '\a) \rightarrow #\a

(character 65.) is an error.

(character 'apple) is an error.
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if object is not a character designator.

#### See Also:

coerce

#### **Notes:**

```
(character object) ≡ (coerce object 'character)
```

# characterp

Function

## Syntax:

```
characterp object \rightarrow generalized-boolean
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type character; otherwise, returns false.

```
(characterp #\a) \rightarrow true (characterp 'a) \rightarrow false (characterp "a") \rightarrow false (characterp 65.) \rightarrow false (characterp #\Newline) \rightarrow true;; This next example presupposes an implementation;; in which #\Rubout is an implementation-defined character. (characterp #\Rubout) \rightarrow true
```

#### See Also:

character (type and function), typep

#### Notes:

(characterp object) ≡ (typep object 'character)

# alpha-char-p

Function

## **Syntax:**

alpha-char-p character  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

#### Arguments and Values:

character—a character.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

Returns true if character is an alphabetic<sub>1</sub> character; otherwise, returns false.

## **Examples:**

```
(alpha-char-p #\a) \rightarrow true (alpha-char-p #\5) \rightarrow false (alpha-char-p #\Newline) \rightarrow false;; This next example presupposes an implementation;; in which #\$\alpha$ is a defined character. (alpha-char-p #\$\alpha$) \rightarrow implementation-dependent
```

## Affected By:

None. (In particular, the results of this predicate are independent of any special syntax which might have been enabled in the *current readtable*.)

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if character is not a character.

## See Also:

alphanumericp, Section 13.1.10 (Documentation of Implementation-Defined Scripts)

# alphanumericp

Function

## **Syntax:**

alphanumericp character  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
character—a character.
```

 ${\it generalized-boolean} {--} a {\it generalized boolean}.$ 

## **Description:**

Returns true if character is an  $alphabetic_1$  character or a numeric character; otherwise, returns false.

## **Examples:**

```
(alphanumericp #\Z) \rightarrow true (alphanumericp #\9) \rightarrow true (alphanumericp #\Newline) \rightarrow false (alphanumericp #\#) \rightarrow false
```

## Affected By:

None. (In particular, the results of this predicate are independent of any special syntax which might have been enabled in the *current readtable*.)

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if character is not a character.

#### See Also:

```
alpha-char-p, graphic-char-p, digit-char-p
```

#### Notes:

Alphanumeric characters are graphic as defined by **graphic-char-p**. The alphanumeric characters are a subset of the graphic characters. The standard characters A through Z, a through Z, and Z through Z are alphanumeric characters.

```
 (alphanumericp x) \\ \equiv (or (alpha-char-p x) (not (null (digit-char-p x))))
```

digit-char

Function

## **Syntax:**

 $ext{digit-char}$  weight &optional radix o char

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
weight—a non-negative integer.radix—a radix. The default is 10.char—a character or false.
```

## **Description:**

If weight is less than radix, digit-char returns a character which has that weight when considered as a digit in the specified radix. If the resulting character is to be an  $alphabetic_1$  character, it will be an uppercase character.

If weight is greater than or equal to radix, digit-char returns false.

## **Examples:**

```
(digit-char 0) \rightarrow #\0

(digit-char 10 11) \rightarrow #\A

(digit-char 10 10) \rightarrow false

(digit-char 7) \rightarrow #\7

(digit-char 12) \rightarrow false

(digit-char 12 16) \rightarrow #\C ;not #\c

(digit-char 6 2) \rightarrow false

(digit-char 1 2) \rightarrow #\1
```

#### See Also:

digit-char-p, graphic-char-p, Section 2.1 (Character Syntax)

**Notes:** 

# digit-char-p

Function

## Syntax:

digit-char-p char &optional radix  $\rightarrow$  weight

## **Arguments and Values:**

char—a character.

```
radix—a radix. The default is 10.
```

weight—either a non-negative integer less than radix, or false.

## **Description:**

Tests whether *char* is a digit in the specified radix (*i.e.*, with a weight less than radix). If it is a digit in that radix, its weight is returned as an integer; otherwise nil is returned.

## **Examples:**

```
(digit-char-p #\5)
(digit-char-p #\5 2) \rightarrow false
(digit-char-p #\A)
                        \rightarrow false
                        \rightarrow false
(digit-char-p #\a)
(digit-char-p #\A 11) 
ightarrow 10
(digit-char-p #\a 11) 
ightarrow 10
(mapcar #'(lambda (radix)
             (map 'list #'(lambda (x) (digit-char-p x radix))
                   "059AaFGZ"))
        '(2 8 10 16 36))

ightarrow ((0 NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL)
    (0 5 NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL)
    (0 5 9 NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL)
    (0 5 9 10 10 15 NIL NIL)
    (0 5 9 10 10 15 16 35))
```

## Affected By:

None. (In particular, the results of this predicate are independent of any special syntax which might have been enabled in the *current readtable*.)

#### See Also:

alphanumericp

#### **Notes:**

Digits are *graphic characters*.

# graphic-char-p

Function

#### Syntax:

```
graphic-char-p char \rightarrow generalized-boolean
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

char—a character.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## Description:

Returns true if character is a graphic character; otherwise, returns false.

## **Examples:**

```
(graphic-char-p #\G) \rightarrow true (graphic-char-p #\#) \rightarrow true (graphic-char-p #\Space) \rightarrow true (graphic-char-p #\Newline) \rightarrow false
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if character is not a character.

#### See Also:

**read**, Section 2.1 (Character Syntax), Section 13.1.10 (Documentation of Implementation-Defined Scripts)

# standard-char-p

Function

## Syntax:

standard-char-p character  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
character—a character.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### Description:

Returns true if character is of type standard-char; otherwise, returns false.

#### **Examples:**

```
(standard-char-p #\Space) \rightarrow true (standard-char-p #\~) \rightarrow true;; This next example presupposes an implementation;; in which #\Bell is a defined character. (standard-char-p #\Bell) \rightarrow false
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if character is not a character.

# char-upcase, char-downcase

# char-upcase, char-downcase

Function

## Syntax:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \textbf{char-upcase} \ \textit{character} & \rightarrow \textit{corresponding-character} \\ \textbf{char-downcase} \ \textit{character} & \rightarrow \textit{corresponding-character} \\ \end{array}
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

character, corresponding-character—a character.

## **Description:**

If *character* is a *lowercase character*, **char-upcase** returns the corresponding *uppercase character*. Otherwise, **char-upcase** just returns the given *character*.

If character is an uppercase character, char-downcase returns the corresponding lowercase character. Otherwise, char-downcase just returns the given character.

The result only ever differs from *character* in its *code attribute*; all *implementation-defined attributes* are preserved.

## **Examples:**

```
(char-upcase \#\a) \rightarrow \#\A
 (char-upcase \#A) \to \#A
 (char-downcase \#\a) \rightarrow \#\a
 (char-downcase \#A) \to \#a
 (char-upcase \#\9) \rightarrow \#\9
 (char-downcase #\9) \rightarrow #\9
 (char-upcase #\0) \rightarrow #\0
 (char-downcase \#\0) \to \#\0
 ;; Note that this next example might run for a very long time in
 ;; some implementations if CHAR-CODE-LIMIT happens to be very large
 ;; for that implementation.
 (dotimes (code char-code-limit)
   (let ((char (code-char code)))
     (when char
       (unless (cond ((upper-case-p char) (char= (char-upcase (char-downcase char)) char))
                       ((lower-case-p char) (char= (char-downcase (char-upcase char)) char))
                       (t (and (char= (char-upcase (char-downcase char)) char)
                                (char= (char-downcase (char-upcase char)) char))))
          (return char)))))

ightarrow NIL
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if character is not a character.

#### See Also:

upper-case-p, alpha-char-p, Section 13.1.4.3 (Characters With Case), Section 13.1.10 (Documentation of Implementation-Defined Scripts)

#### Notes:

If the corresponding-char is different than character, then both the character and the corresponding-char have case.

Since **char-equal** ignores the *case* of the *characters* it compares, the *corresponding-character* is always the *same* as *character* under **char-equal**.

# upper-case-p, lower-case-p, both-case-p

Function

## Syntax:

```
upper-case-p character\rightarrow generalized-booleanlower-case-p character\rightarrow generalized-booleanboth-case-p character\rightarrow generalized-boolean
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

character—a character.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

These functions test the case of a given *character*.

**upper-case-p** returns true if **character** is an **uppercase** character; otherwise, returns false.

lower-case-p returns true if character is a lowercase character; otherwise, returns false.

both-case-p returns true if character is a character with case; otherwise, returns false.

```
(upper-case-p #\A) \rightarrow true

(upper-case-p #\a) \rightarrow false

(both-case-p #\a) \rightarrow true

(both-case-p #\5) \rightarrow false

(lower-case-p #\5) \rightarrow false

(upper-case-p #\5) \rightarrow false

;; This next example presupposes an implementation

;; in which #\Bell is an implementation-defined character.

(lower-case-p #\Bell) \rightarrow false
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if character is not a character.

#### See Also:

char-upcase, char-downcase, Section 13.1.4.3 (Characters With Case), Section 13.1.10 (Documentation of Implementation-Defined Scripts)

char-code Function

## Syntax:

char-code character  $\rightarrow$  code

## **Arguments and Values:**

character—a character.

code—a character code.

## **Description:**

**char-code** returns the *code attribute* of *character*.

## **Examples:**

```
;; An implementation using ASCII character encoding ;; might return these values: (char-code #\$) \to 36 (char-code #\a) \to 97
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if character is not a character.

#### See Also:

char-code-limit

**char-int** Function

## Syntax:

char-int character  $\rightarrow$  integer

## **Arguments and Values:**

character—a character.

*integer*—a non-negative *integer*.

## **Description:**

Returns a non-negative *integer* encoding the *character* object. The manner in which the *integer* is computed is *implementation-dependent*. In contrast to **sxhash**, the result is not guaranteed to be independent of the particular *Lisp image*.

If character has no implementation-defined attributes, the results of char-int and char-code are the same.

```
(char= c1 c2) \equiv (= (char-int c1) (char-int c2))
```

for characters c1 and c2.

## **Examples:**

```
(char-int #\A) \rightarrow 65 ; implementation A (char-int #\A) \rightarrow 577 ; implementation B (char-int #\A) \rightarrow 262145 ; implementation C
```

#### See Also:

char-code

code-char Function

## Syntax:

```
code-char code \rightarrow char-p
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
code—a character code.
```

char-p—a character or nil.

## **Description:**

Returns a *character* with the *code attribute* given by *code*. If no such *character* exists and one cannot be created, **nil** is returned.

## **Examples:**

```
(code-char 65.) \to #\A ;in an implementation using ASCII codes (code-char (char-code #\Space)) \to #\Space ;in any implementation
```

## Affected By:

The *implementation*'s character encoding.

#### See Also:

char-code

**Notes:** 

## char-code-limit

Constant Variable

#### Constant Value:

A non-negative *integer*, the exact magnitude of which is *implementation-dependent*, but which is not less than 96 (the number of *standard characters*).

## **Description:**

The upper exclusive bound on the value returned by the function char-code.

#### See Also:

char-code

#### Notes:

The *value* of **char-code-limit** might be larger than the actual number of *characters* supported by the *implementation*.

## char-name

**char-name** Function

## Syntax:

char-name character  $\rightarrow$  name

## Arguments and Values:

character—a character.
name—a string or nil.

## Description:

Returns a *string* that is the *name* of the *character*, or nil if the *character* has no *name*.

All non-graphic characters are required to have names unless they have some implementation-defined attribute which is not null. Whether or not other characters have names is implementation-dependent.

The  $standard\ characters\ \langle Newline \rangle$  and  $\langle Space \rangle$  have the respective names "Newline" and "Space". The semi-standard  $characters\ \langle Tab \rangle,\ \langle Page \rangle,\ \langle Rubout \rangle,\ \langle Linefeed \rangle,\ \langle Return \rangle,\ and\ \langle Backspace \rangle$  (if they are supported by the implementation) have the respective names "Tab", "Page", "Rubout", "Linefeed", "Return", and "Backspace" (in the indicated case, even though name lookup by "#\" and by the  $function\ name$ -char is not case sensitive).

```
(char-name #\ ) 
ightarrow "Space"
 (char-name #\Space) \rightarrow "Space"
 (char-name #\Page) 
ightarrow "Page"
 (char-name #\a)

ightarrow NIL
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} "LOWERCASE-a"
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \text{ "Small-A"}
\overset{or}{
ightarrow} "LA01"
 (char-name #\A)

ightarrow NIL
\overset{or}{\rightarrow} \text{ "UPPERCASE-A"}
\stackrel{or^{'}}{\rightarrow} \text{"Capital-A"}
\overset{or}{
ightarrow} "LA02"
 ;; Even though its CHAR-NAME can vary, A \sim A
 (prin1-to-string (read-from-string (format nil "#\\~A" (or (char-name #\A) "A"))))
→ "#\\A"
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if character is not a character.

#### See Also:

name-char, Section 22.1.3.2 (Printing Characters)

## Notes:

Non-graphic characters having names are written by the Lisp printer as "#\" followed by the their name; see Section 22.1.3.2 (Printing Characters).

name-char Function

## **Syntax:**

```
name-char name \rightarrow char-p
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
name—a string designator.
char-p—a character or nil.
```

## Description:

Returns the *character object* whose *name* is *name* (as determined by **string-equal**—*i.e.*, lookup is not case sensitive). If such a *character* does not exist, **nil** is returned.

#### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{ll} (\texttt{name-char 'space}) \to \texttt{\#\Space} \\ (\texttt{name-char "space"}) \to \texttt{\#\Space} \\ (\texttt{name-char "Space"}) \to \texttt{\#\Space} \\ (\texttt{let ((x (char-name \#\a)))} \\ (\texttt{or (not x) (eql (name-char x) \#\a)))} \to \textit{true} \end{array}
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if name is not a string designator.

#### See Also:

char-name

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

14. Conses

# 14.1 Cons Concepts

A cons is a compound data *object* having two components called the car and the cdr.

car	cons	rplacd	
cdr	rplaca		

Figure 14-1. Some defined names relating to conses.

Depending on context, a group of connected *conses* can be viewed in a variety of different ways. A variety of operations is provided to support each of these various views.

## 14.1.1 Conses as Trees

A **tree** is a binary recursive data structure made up of *conses* and *atoms*: the *conses* are themselves also *trees* (sometimes called "subtrees" or "branches"), and the *atoms* are terminal nodes (sometimes called *leaves*). Typically, the *leaves* represent data while the branches establish some relationship among that data.

caaaar	caddar	$\operatorname{cdar}$	${f nsubst}$	
caaadr	$\operatorname{cadddr}$	$\operatorname{cddaar}$	${f nsubst-if}$	
caaar	$\operatorname{caddr}$	$\operatorname{cddadr}$	${f nsubst-if-not}$	
caadar	$\operatorname{cadr}$	$\operatorname{cddar}$	${f nthcdr}$	
caaddr	cdaaar	$\operatorname{cdddar}$	sublis	
caadr	$\operatorname{cdaadr}$	$\operatorname{\mathbf{cddddr}}$	${f subst}$	
caar	$\operatorname{cdaar}$	$\operatorname{\mathbf{cdddr}}$	$\mathbf{subst} ext{-}\mathbf{if}$	
cadaar	$\operatorname{cdadar}$	$\operatorname{\mathbf{cddr}}$	${f subst-if-not}$	
cadadr	$\operatorname{cdaddr}$	${f copy-tree}$	tree-equal	
cadar	$\operatorname{cdadr}$	nsublis		

Figure 14-2. Some defined names relating to trees.

## 14.1.1.1 General Restrictions on Parameters that must be Trees

Except as explicitly stated otherwise, for any *standardized function* that takes a *parameter* that is required to be a *tree*, the consequences are undefined if that *tree* is circular.

## 14.1.2 Conses as Lists

A *list* is a chain of *conses* in which the *car* of each *cons* is an *element* of the *list*, and the *cdr* of each *cons* is either the next link in the chain or a terminating *atom*.

A **proper list** is a *list* terminated by the *empty list*. The *empty list* is a *proper list*, but is not a cons.

An improper list is a list that is not a proper list; that is, it is a circular list or a dotted list.

A **dotted list** is a list that has a terminating atom that is not the empty list. A non-nil atom by itself is not considered to be a list of any kind—not even a dotted list.

A *circular list* is a chain of *conses* that has no termination because some cons in the chain is the cdr of a later cons.

append	last	nbutlast	rest
butlast	ldiff	nconc	revappend
copy-alist	$\mathbf{list}$	$\mathbf{ninth}$	$\mathbf{second}$
copy-list	list*	nreconc	$\mathbf{seventh}$
eighth	${f list} ext{-length}$	$\mathbf{nth}$	${f sixth}$
endp	${f make-list}$	${f nthcdr}$	tailp
fifth	${f member}$	pop	tenth
first	member-if	$\operatorname{push}$	${f third}$
${ m fourth}$	${\bf member\text{-}if\text{-}not}$	pushnew	

Figure 14-3. Some defined names relating to lists.

#### 14.1.2.1 Lists as Association Lists

An association list is a list of conses representing an association of keys with values, where the car of each cons is the key and the cdr is the value associated with that key.

acons	${f assoc ext{-}if}$	pairlis	rassoc-if	
assoc	${\it assoc-if-not}$	rassoc	${f rassoc ext{-}if ext{-}not}$	

Figure 14-4. Some defined names related to assocation lists.

#### 14.1.2.2 Lists as Sets

Lists are sometimes viewed as sets by considering their elements unordered and by assuming there is no duplication of elements.

adjoin	nset-difference	set-difference	union
intersection	nset-exclusive-or	${f set} ext{-exclusive-or}$	
nintersection	nunion	${\bf subsetp}$	

Figure 14-5. Some defined names related to sets.

## 14.1.2.3 General Restrictions on Parameters that must be Lists

Except as explicitly specified otherwise, any *standardized function* that takes a *parameter* that is required to be a *list* should be prepared to signal an error of *type* **type-error** if the *value* received is a *dotted list*.

Except as explicitly specified otherwise, for any *standardized function* that takes a *parameter* that is required to be a *list*, the consequences are undefined if that *list* is *circular*.

list System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

list, sequence, t

## Description:

A *list* is a chain of *conses* in which the *car* of each *cons* is an *element* of the *list*, and the *cdr* of each *cons* is either the next link in the chain or a terminating *atom*.

A **proper list** is a chain of *conses* terminated by the **empty list**, (), which is itself a *proper list*. A **dotted list** is a *list* which has a terminating *atom* that is not the *empty list*. A **circular list** is a chain of *conses* that has no termination because some *cons* in the chain is the *cdr* of a later *cons*.

Dotted lists and circular lists are also lists, but usually the unqualified term "list" within this specification means proper list. Nevertheless, the type list unambiguously includes dotted lists and circular lists.

For each element of a list there is a cons. The empty list has no elements and is not a cons.

The types cons and null form an exhaustive partition of the type list.

#### See Also:

Section 2.4.1 (Left-Parenthesis), Section 22.1.3.5 (Printing Lists and Conses)

null System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

null, symbol, list, sequence, t

## Description:

The only object of type null is nil, which represents the empty list and can also be notated ().

#### See Also:

Section 2.3.4 (Symbols as Tokens), Section 2.4.1 (Left-Parenthesis), Section 22.1.3.3 (Printing Symbols)

**CONS** System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

cons, list, sequence, t

## **Description:**

A cons is a compound object having two components, called the car and cdr. These form a dotted pair. Each component can be any object.

## Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Specializing.

## Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(cons [car-typespec [cdr-typespec]])

## Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

car-typespec—a type specifier, or the symbol \*. The default is the symbol \*.

cdr-typespec—a type specifier, or the symbol \*. The default is the symbol \*.

## Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the set of *conses* whose *car* is constrained to be of *type car-typespec* and whose *cdr* is constrained to be of *type cdr-typespec*. (If either *car-typespec* or *cdr-typespec* is \*, it is as if the *type* t had been denoted.)

#### See Also:

Section 2.4.1 (Left-Parenthesis), Section 22.1.3.5 (Printing Lists and Conses)

atom Type

## **Supertypes:**

atom, t

#### **Description:**

It is equivalent to (not cons).

**CONS** Function

## Syntax:

```
cons object-1 object-2 \rightarrow cons
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
object-1—an object.object-2—an object.cons—a cons.
```

## Description:

Creates a fresh cons, the car of which is object-1 and the cdr of which is object-2.

## **Examples:**

```
(cons 1 2) \rightarrow (1 . 2)

(cons 1 nil) \rightarrow (1)

(cons nil 2) \rightarrow (NIL . 2)

(cons nil nil) \rightarrow (NIL)

(cons 1 (cons 2 (cons 3 (cons 4 nil)))) \rightarrow (1 2 3 4)

(cons 'a 'b) \rightarrow (A . B)

(cons 'a (cons 'b (cons 'c '()))) \rightarrow (A B C)

(cons 'a '(b c d)) \rightarrow (A B C D)
```

#### See Also:

list

#### Notes:

If *object-2* is a *list*, **cons** can be thought of as producing a new *list* which is like it but has *object-1* prepended.

**consp** Function

## **Syntax:**

```
consp object 
ightarrow generalized-boolean
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## Description:

Returns true if object is of type cons; otherwise, returns false.

## **Examples:**

```
(consp nil) \rightarrow false
(consp (cons 1 2)) \rightarrow true
The empty list is not a cons, so
(consp '()) \equiv (consp 'nil) \rightarrow false
```

#### See Also:

listp

## Notes:

```
(consp object) \equiv (typep object 'cons) \equiv (not (typep object 'atom)) \equiv (typep object '(not atom))
```

**atom** Function

## **Syntax:**

atom object → generalized-boolean

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type atom; otherwise, returns false.

```
\begin{array}{l} (\texttt{atom 'sss)} \to true \\ (\texttt{atom (cons 1 2))} \to false \\ (\texttt{atom nil)} \to true \\ (\texttt{atom '())} \to true \\ (\texttt{atom 3)} \to true \end{array}
```

#### Notes:

```
(atom object) ≡ (typep object 'atom) ≡ (not (consp object))
≡ (not (typep object 'cons)) ≡ (typep object '(not cons))
```

# rplaca, rplacd

**Function** 

## Syntax:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{rplaca} \ \textit{cons object} & \rightarrow \textit{cons} \\ \mathbf{rplacd} \ \textit{cons object} & \rightarrow \textit{cons} \\ \end{array}
```

#### **Pronunciation:**

```
 \begin{aligned} \mathbf{rplaca:} & \left[ \ _{\mathbf{l}}\mathbf{re^{-l}} \ \mathbf{plak}\epsilon \right] \ \mathrm{or} \left[ \ _{\mathbf{l}}\mathbf{re^{-l}} \ \mathbf{plak}d\epsilon \right] \\ \mathbf{rplacd:} & \left[ \ _{\mathbf{l}}\mathbf{re^{-l}} \ \mathbf{plak}d\epsilon \right] \ \mathrm{or} \left[ \ _{\mathbf{l}}\mathbf{re^{-l}} \ \mathbf{plak}d\epsilon \right] \ \mathrm{or} \left[ \ _{\mathbf{l}}\mathbf{re^{-l}} \ \mathbf{plak}d\epsilon \right] \end{aligned}
```

## Arguments and Values:

```
cons—a cons.
object—an object.
```

## Description:

 ${\bf rplaca}$  replaces the  ${\it car}$  of the  ${\it cons}$  with  ${\it object}.$ 

rplaced replaces the cdr of the cons with object.

## Examples:

```
(defparameter *some-list* (list* 'one 'two 'three 'four)) \rightarrow *some-list* *some-list* \rightarrow (ONE TWO THREE . FOUR) (rplaca *some-list* 'uno) \rightarrow (UNO TWO THREE . FOUR) *some-list* \rightarrow (UNO TWO THREE . FOUR) (rplacd (last *some-list*) (list 'IV)) \rightarrow (THREE IV) *some-list* \rightarrow (UNO TWO THREE IV)
```

#### Side Effects:

The *cons* is modified.

Should signal an error of *type* type-error if *cons* is not a *cons*.

# car, cdr, caar, cadr, cdar, cddr, caaar, caadr, cadar, ...

car, cdr, caar, cadr, cdar, cddr, caaar, caadr, cadar, caddr, cdaar, cdadr, cdddr, caaaar, caaddr, caadar, cadddr, caddar, cadddr, cadaar, cadadr, cdadar, cdddar, cdddar, cdddar, cdddar, cdddar, cddddr

## Syntax:

```
\operatorname{car} X
                 \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (car x) new-object)
                 \rightarrow object
\operatorname{\mathbf{cdr}} X
                                           (setf (cdr x) new-object)
\operatorname{caar} X
                 \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (caar x) new-object)
\operatorname{cadr} X
                \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (cadr x) new-object)
                \rightarrow object
\operatorname{cdar} X
                                           (setf (cdar x) new-object)
\operatorname{cddr} X
                 \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (cddr x) new-object)
                 \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (caaar x) new-object)
caaar x
\operatorname{caadr} X
                \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (caadr x) new-object)
\operatorname{cadar} X
                \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (cadar x) new-object)
\operatorname{caddr} X
                \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (caddr x) new-object)
cdaar x
                 \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (cdaar x) new-object)
                \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (cdadr x) new-object)
\operatorname{cdadr} X
\operatorname{cddar} X
                \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (cddar x) new-object)
                 \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (cdddr x) new-object)
\operatorname{cdddr} X

ightarrow object
caaaar x
                                           (setf (caaaar x) new-object)

ightarrow object
caaadr x
                                           (setf (caaadr x) new-object)
                \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (caadar x) new-object)
caadar x

ightarrow object
                                           (setf (caaddr x) new-object)
\operatorname{caaddr} X
cadaar x

ightarrow object
                                           (setf (cadaar x) new-object)
                                           (setf (cadadr x) new-object)
\operatorname{cadadr} X

ightarrow object
caddar x \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (caddar x) new-object)
                                           (setf (cadddr x) new-object)
\operatorname{cadddr} x \rightarrow \operatorname{object}
                                           (setf (cdaaar x) new-object)
cdaaar x \rightarrow object
cdaadr x \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (cdaadr x) new-object)
cdadar x \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (cdadar x) new-object)
\operatorname{cdaddr} x \rightarrow \operatorname{object}
                                           (setf (cdaddr x) new-object)
cddaar x \rightarrow object
                                           (setf (cddaar x) new-object)
\operatorname{cddadr} x \to \operatorname{object}
                                           (setf (cddadr x) new-object)
\begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{cdddar} \; x & \to \textit{object} \\ \mathbf{cdddr} \; x & \to \textit{object} \end{array}
                                           (setf (cdddar x) new-object)
                                           (setf (cddddr x) new-object)
```

#### Pronunciation:

 $cadr: [ ka_1 der ]$ 

# car, cdr, caar, cadr, cdar, caar, caadr, cadar, ...

```
caddr: [ \ ^{1}kad\epsilon_{1}d\epsilon_{1}] or [ \ ^{1}ka_{1}d\underline{u}d\epsilon_{1}]
cdr: [ \ ^{1}k\underline{u}_{1}d\epsilon_{1}]
cddr: [ \ ^{1}k\underline{u}d\epsilon_{1}d\epsilon_{1}] or [ \ ^{1}k\epsilon_{1}d\underline{u}d\epsilon_{1}]
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
x—a list.
object—an object.
new-object—an object.
```

## **Description:**

If x is a cons, car returns the car of that cons. If x is nil, car returns nil.

If x is a cons, cdr returns the cdr of that cons. If x is nil, cdr returns nil.

Functions are provided which perform compositions of up to four car and cdr operations. Their names consist of a C, followed by two, three, or four occurrences of A or D, and finally an R. The series of A's and D's in each function's name is chosen to identify the series of car and cdr operations that is performed by the function. The order in which the A's and D's appear is the inverse of the order in which the corresponding operations are performed. Figure 14–6 defines the relationships precisely.

# car, cdr, caar, cadr, cddr, caaar, caadr, cadar, ...

This place	Is equivalent to this place
(caar X)	(car (car x))
(cadr X)	(car (cdr <i>X</i> ))
(cdar x)	$(\operatorname{cdr} (\operatorname{car} X))$
(cddr x)	(cdr (cdr <i>X</i> ))
(caaar X)	(car (car (car x)))
(caadr X)	(car (cdr x)))
(cadar X)	(car (cdr (car x)))
(caddr X)	(car (cdr (cdr x)))
(cdaar X)	(cdr (car (car x)))
(cdadr X)	(cdr (car (cdr x)))
(cddar X)	(cdr (cdr (car x)))
(cdddr X)	(cdr (cdr (cdr x)))
(caaaar X)	(car (car (car x))))
(caaadr X)	(car (car (cdr x))))
(caadar X)	(car (car (cdr (car x))))
(caaddr X)	(car (cdr (cdr x))))
(cadaar X)	(car (cdr (car (car x))))
(cadadr X)	(car (cdr (cdr x))))
(caddar X)	(car (cdr (cdr (car x))))
(cadddr X)	(car (cdr (cdr x))))
(cdaaar X)	(cdr (car (car x))))
(cdaadr X)	(cdr (car (cdr x))))
(cdadar X)	(cdr (car (cdr (car x))))
(cdaddr X)	(cdr (cdr (cdr x))))
(cddaar X)	(cdr (cdr (car (car x))))
(cddadr X)	(cdr (cdr (cdr x))))
(cdddar X)	(cdr (cdr (car x))))
(cddddr X)	(cdr (cdr (cdr x))))

Figure 14-6. CAR and CDR variants

setf can also be used with any of these functions to change an existing component of x, but setf will not make new components. So, for example, the car of a cons can be assigned with setf of car, but the car of nil cannot be assigned with setf of car. Similarly, the car of the car of a cons whose car is a cons can be assigned with setf of caar, but neither nilnor a cons whose car is nil can be assigned with setf of caar.

The argument x is permitted to be a dotted list or a circular list.

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{car nil}) \, \rightarrow \, \text{NIL} \\ (\text{cdr '(1 . 2)}) \, \rightarrow \, 2 \\ (\text{cdr '(1 2)}) \, \rightarrow \, (2) \end{array}
```

```
\begin{array}{l} (\texttt{cadr '(1 2)}) \rightarrow \texttt{2} \\ (\texttt{car '(a b c)}) \rightarrow \texttt{A} \\ (\texttt{cdr '(a b c)}) \rightarrow (\texttt{B C}) \end{array}
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

The functions **car** and **cdr** should signal **type-error** if they receive an argument which is not a *list*. The other functions (**caar**, **cadr**, ... **cddddr**) should behave for the purpose of error checking as if defined by appropriate calls to **car** and **cdr**.

#### See Also:

```
rplaca, first, rest
```

#### **Notes:**

The car of a cons can also be altered by using **rplaca**, and the cdr of a cons can be altered by using **rplacd**.

```
\begin{array}{lll} (\operatorname{car} x) & \equiv (\operatorname{first} x) \\ (\operatorname{cadr} x) & \equiv (\operatorname{second} x) \equiv (\operatorname{car} (\operatorname{cdr} x)) \\ (\operatorname{caddr} x) & \equiv (\operatorname{third} x) \equiv (\operatorname{car} (\operatorname{cdr} (\operatorname{cdr} x))) \\ (\operatorname{cadddr} x) & \equiv (\operatorname{fourth} x) \equiv (\operatorname{car} (\operatorname{cdr} (\operatorname{cdr} (\operatorname{cdr} x)))) \end{array}
```

# copy-tree

*Function* 

## Syntax:

```
{f copy\text{-tree}} tree 	o new-tree
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
tree—a tree.

new-tree—a tree.
```

## **Description:**

Creates a copy of a tree of conses.

If *tree* is not a *cons*, it is returned; otherwise, the result is a new *cons* of the results of calling **copy-tree** on the *car* and *cdr* of *tree*. In other words, all *conses* in the *tree* represented by *tree* are copied recursively, stopping only when non-*conses* are encountered.

copy-tree does not preserve circularities and the sharing of substructure.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq object (list (cons 1 "one")
```

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```
(cons 2 (list 'a 'b 'c))))

ightarrow ((1 . "one") (2 A B C))
 (setq object-too object) 
ightarrow ((1 . "one") (2 A B C))
 (setq copy-as-list (copy-list object))
 (setq copy-as-alist (copy-alist object))
 (setq copy-as-tree (copy-tree object))
 (eq object object-too) 
ightarrow true
 (eq copy-as-tree object) \rightarrow false
 (eql copy-as-tree object) \rightarrow false
 (equal copy-as-tree object) 	o true
 (setf (first (cdr (second object))) "a"
        (car (second object)) "two"
        (car object) '(one . 1)) 
ightarrow (ONE . 1)
 {	t object} 
ightarrow 	ext{((ONE . 1) ("two" "a" B C))}
 object-too \rightarrow ((ONE . 1) ("two" "a" B C))
 copy-as-list \rightarrow ((1 . "one") ("two" "a" B C))
 copy-as-alist 
ightarrow ((1 . "one") (2 "a" B C))
 copy-as-tree 
ightarrow ((1 . "one") (2 A B C))
```

#### See Also:

tree-equal

# sublis, nsublis

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

```
sublis alist tree &key key test test-not \rightarrow new-tree nsublis alist tree &key key test test-not \rightarrow new-tree
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
alist—an association list.
```

tree—a tree.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

new-tree—a tree.

# sublis, nsublis

## **Description:**

sublis makes substitutions for *objects* in *tree* (a structure of *conses*). **nsublis** is like **sublis** but destructively modifies the relevant parts of the *tree*.

sublis looks at all subtrees and leaves of *tree*; if a subtree or leaf appears as a key in *alist* (that is, the key and the subtree or leaf *satisfy the test*), it is replaced by the *object* with which that key is associated. This operation is non-destructive. In effect, **sublis** can perform several **subst** operations simultaneously.

If **sublis** succeeds, a new copy of *tree* is returned in which each occurrence of such a subtree or leaf is replaced by the *object* with which it is associated. If no changes are made, the original tree is returned. The original *tree* is left unchanged, but the result tree may share cells with it.

nsublis is permitted to modify tree but otherwise returns the same values as sublis.

```
(sublis '((x . 100) (z . zprime))
          '(plus x (minus g z x p) 4 . x))

ightarrow (PLUS 100 (MINUS G ZPRIME 100 P) 4 . 100)
 (sublis '(((+ x y) . (- x y)) ((- x y) . (+ x y)))
          '(* (/ (+ x y) (+ x p)) (- x y))
          :test #'equal)
\rightarrow (* (/ (- X Y) (+ X P)) (+ X Y))
 (setq tree1 '(1 (1 2) ((1 2 3)) (((1 2 3 4)))))
\rightarrow (1 (1 2) ((1 2 3)) (((1 2 3 4))))
 (sublis '((3 . "three")) tree1)
\rightarrow (1 (1 2) ((1 2 "three")) (((1 2 "three" 4))))
 (sublis '((t . "string"))
           (sublis '((1 . "") (4 . 44)) tree1)
           :key #'stringp)
\rightarrow ("string" ("string" 2) (("string" 2 3)) ((("string" 2 3 44))))
tree1 \rightarrow (1 (1 2) ((1 2 3)) (((1 2 3 4))))
 (setq tree2 '("one" ("one" "two") (("one" "Two" "three"))))
\rightarrow ("one" ("one" "two") (("one" "Two" "three")))
 (sublis '(("two" . 2)) tree2)

ightarrow ("one" ("one" "Two" "three")))
\texttt{tree2} \, \rightarrow \, \texttt{("one" ("one" "two") (("one" "Two" "three")))}
 (sublis '(("two" . 2)) tree2 :test 'equal)

ightarrow ("one" ("one" 2) (("one" "Two" "three")))
 (nsublis '((t . 'temp))
            tree1
            :key \#'(lambda (x) (or (atom x) (< (list-length x) 3))))

ightarrow ((QUOTE TEMP) (QUOTE TEMP) QUOTE TEMP)
```

#### Side Effects:

nsublis modifies tree.

#### See Also:

subst, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

## Notes:

The :test-not parameter is deprecated.

Because the side-effecting variants (e.g., nsublis) potentially change the path that is being traversed, their effects in the presence of shared or circular structure structure may vary in surprising ways when compared to their non-side-effecting alternatives. To see this, consider the following side-effect behavior, which might be exhibited by some implementations:

# subst, subst-if, subst-if-not, nsubst, nsubst-if, nsubst-if-not

## **Syntax:**

```
subst new old tree &key key test test-not \rightarrow new-tree subst-if new predicate tree &key key \rightarrow new-tree subst-if-not new predicate tree &key key \rightarrow new-tree nsubst new old tree &key key test test-not \rightarrow new-tree nsubst-if-new predicate tree &key key \rightarrow new-tree nsubst-if-not new predicate tree &key key \rightarrow new-tree
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
new—an object.
old—an object.
```

# subst, subst-if, subst-if-not, nsubst, nsubst-if, ...

predicate—a symbol that names a function, or a function of one argument that returns a generalized boolean value.

tree—a tree.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

new-tree—a tree.

#### Description:

subst, subst-if, and subst-if-not perform substitution operations on tree. Each function searches tree for occurrences of a particular old item of an element or subexpression that satisfies the test.

nsubst, nsubst-if, and nsubst-if-not are like subst, subst-if, and subst-if-not respectively, except that the original *tree* is modified.

**subst** makes a copy of *tree*, substituting *new* for every subtree or leaf of *tree* (whether the subtree or leaf is a *car* or a *cdr* of its parent) such that *old* and the subtree or leaf *satisfy the test*.

**nsubst** is a destructive version of **subst**. The list structure of *tree* is altered by destructively replacing with *new* each leaf of the *tree* such that *old* and the leaf *satisfy the test*.

For **subst**, **subst-if**, and **subst-if-not**, if the functions succeed, a new copy of the tree is returned in which each occurrence of such an element is replaced by the *new* element or subexpression. If no changes are made, the original *tree* may be returned. The original *tree* is left unchanged, but the result tree may share storage with it.

For **nsubst**, **nsubst-if**, and **nsubst-if-not** the original *tree* is modified and returned as the function result, but the result may not be **eq** to *tree*.

```
:test #'equal) 

\rightarrow ((OLD . SPICE) ((OLD . SHOES) A . CONS) (A . CONS)) 

(subst-if 5 #'listp tree1) \rightarrow 5 

(subst-if-not '(x) #'consp tree1) 

\rightarrow (1 X) 

tree1 \rightarrow (1 (1 2) (1 2 3) (1 2 3 4)) 

(nsubst 'x 3 tree1 :key #'(lambda (y) (and (listp y) (third y)))) 

\rightarrow (1 (1 2) X X) 

tree1 \rightarrow (1 (1 2) X X)
```

#### **Side Effects:**

nsubst, nsubst-if, and nsubst-if-not might alter the tree structure of tree.

#### See Also:

substitute, nsubstitute, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### Notes:

The :test-not parameter is deprecated.

The functions subst-if-not and nsubst-if-not are deprecated.

One possible definition of **subst**:

# tree-equal

# tree-equal

*Function* 

## Syntax:

tree-equal tree-1 tree-2 &key test test-not ightarrow generalized-boolean

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
tree-1—a tree.
```

tree-2—a tree.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

tree-equal tests whether two trees are of the same shape and have the same leaves. tree-equal returns true if tree-1 and tree-2 are both atoms and satisfy the test, or if they are both conses and the car of tree-1 is tree-equal to the car of tree-2 and the cdr of tree-1 is tree-equal to the cdr of tree-2. Otherwise, tree-equal returns false.

tree-equal recursively compares conses but not any other objects that have components.

The first argument to the :test or :test-not function is *tree-1* or a *car* or *cdr* of *tree-1*; the second argument is *tree-2* or a *car* or *cdr* of *tree-2*.

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq tree1 '(1 (1 2)) tree2 '(1 (1 2)) tree2 '(1 (1 2)) true (tree-equal tree1 tree2) true (eql tree1 tree2) true (setq tree1 '('a ('b 'c)) tree2 '('a ('b 'c))) tree2 '('a ('b 'c))) true3 ((QUOTE B) (QUOTE C))) (tree-equal tree1 tree2 :test 'eq) true3
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

The consequences are undefined if both tree-1 and tree-2 are circular.

#### See Also:

equal, Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### Notes:

The :test-not parameter is deprecated.

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copy-list Function

#### Syntax:

```
copy-list list \rightarrow copy
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

list—a proper list or a dotted list.
copy—a list.

## **Description:**

Returns a copy of list. If list is a dotted list, the resulting list will also be a dotted list.

Only the *list structure* of *list* is copied; the *elements* of the resulting list are the *same* as the corresponding *elements* of the given *list*.

#### **Examples:**

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

The consequences are undefined if *list* is a *circular list*.

#### See Also:

```
copy-alist, copy-seq, copy-tree
```

#### Notes:

The copy created is **equal** to *list*, but not **eq**.

# list, list\*

list, list\*

## Syntax:

```
list &rest objects \rightarrow list list* &rest objects^+ \rightarrow result
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
list—a list.
result—an object.
```

## Description:

list returns a *list* containing the supplied *objects*.

list\* is like list except that the last argument to list becomes the car of the last cons constructed, while the last argument to list\* becomes the cdr of the last cons constructed. Hence, any given call to list\* always produces one fewer conses than a call to list with the same number of arguments.

If the last *argument* to **list\*** is a *list*, the effect is to construct a new *list* which is similar, but which has additional elements added to the front corresponding to the preceding *arguments* of **list\***.

If list\* receives only one object, that object is returned, regardless of whether or not it is a list.

#### **Examples:**

```
(list 1) \rightarrow (1)

(list* 1) \rightarrow 1

(setq a 1) \rightarrow 1

(list a 2) \rightarrow (1 2)

'(a 2) \rightarrow (A 2)

(list 'a 2) \rightarrow (A 2)

(list* a 2) \rightarrow (1 . 2)

(list) \rightarrow NIL ; i.e., ()

(setq a '(1 2)) \rightarrow (1 2)

(eq a (list* a)) \rightarrow true

(list 3 4 'a (car '(b . c)) (+ 6 -2)) \rightarrow (3 4 A B 4)

(list* 'a 'b 'c 'd) \equiv (cons 'a (cons 'b (cons 'c 'd))) \rightarrow (A B C . D)

(list* 'a 'b 'c '(d e f)) \rightarrow (A B C D E F)
```

## See Also:

cons

#### Notes:

```
(list* x) \equiv x
```

## list-length

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

```
list-length list \rightarrow length
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

list—a proper list or a circular list.

length—a non-negative integer, or nil.

#### Description:

Returns the length of list if list is a proper list. Returns nil if list is a circular list.

## **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\mbox{list-length '(a b c d)}) \rightarrow 4 \\ (\mbox{list-length '(a (b c) d)}) \rightarrow 3 \\ (\mbox{list-length '()}) \rightarrow 0 \\ (\mbox{list-length nil}) \rightarrow 0 \\ (\mbox{defun circular-list (\&rest elements)}) \\ (\mbox{let ((cycle (copy-list elements)))} \\ (\mbox{nconc cycle cycle)})) \\ (\mbox{list-length (circular-list 'a 'b)}) \rightarrow \mbox{NIL} \\ (\mbox{list-length (circular-list 'a)}) \rightarrow \mbox{NIL} \\ (\mbox{list-length (circular-list)}) \rightarrow 0 \end{array}
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if list is not a proper list or a circular list.

#### See Also:

length

#### **Notes:**

list-length could be implemented as follows:

```
(slow x (cdr slow))) ;Slow pointer: leaps by 1.
  (nil)
;; If fast pointer hits the end, return the count.
(when (endp fast) (return n))
(when (endp (cdr fast)) (return (+ n 1)))
;; If fast pointer eventually equals slow pointer,
;; then we must be stuck in a circular list.
;; (A deeper property is the converse: if we are
;; stuck in a circular list, then eventually the
;; fast pointer will equal the slow pointer.
;; That fact justifies this implementation.)
(when (and (eq fast slow) (> n 0)) (return nil))))
```

**listp** Function

## Syntax:

 $\mathbf{listp} \ \textit{object} \quad \rightarrow \textit{generalized-boolean}$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

object—an object.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### Description:

Returns true if object is of type list; otherwise, returns false.

#### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{ll} ({\tt listp\ nil}) \,\to\, true \\ ({\tt listp\ (cons\ 1\ 2)}) \,\to\, true \\ ({\tt listp\ (make-array\ 6)}) \,\to\, false \\ ({\tt listp\ t}) \,\to\, false \end{array}
```

#### See Also:

consp

#### Notes:

If object is a cons, listp does not check whether object is a proper list; it returns true for any kind of list.

```
(listp object) \equiv (typep object 'list) \equiv (typep object '(or cons null))
```

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make-list Function

#### Syntax:

make-list size &key initial-element o list

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
size—a non-negative integer.
initial-element—an object. The default is nil.
list—a list.
```

## **Description:**

Returns a list of length given by size, each of the elements of which is initial-element.

## **Examples:**

```
(make-list 5) \rightarrow (NIL NIL NIL NIL) (make-list 3 :initial-element 'rah) \rightarrow (RAH RAH RAH) (make-list 2 :initial-element '(1 2 3)) \rightarrow ((1 2 3) (1 2 3)) (make-list 0) \rightarrow NIL ; i.e., () (make-list 0 :initial-element 'new-element) \rightarrow NIL
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if size is not a non-negative integer.

#### See Also:

cons, list

**push** Macro

## **Syntax:**

```
push\ item\ place \rightarrow new-place-value
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
item—an object.
place—a place, the value of which may be any object.
new-place-value—a list (the new value of place).
```

## Description:

**push** prepends item to the list that is stored in place, stores the resulting list in place, and returns the list.

For information about the *evaluation* of *subforms* of *place*, see Section 5.1.1.1 (Evaluation of Subforms to Places).

## **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{setq llst '(nil)}) \rightarrow (\text{NIL}) \\ (\text{push 1 (car llst)}) \rightarrow (1) \\ \text{llst } \rightarrow ((1)) \\ (\text{push 1 (car llst)}) \rightarrow (1\ 1) \\ \text{llst } \rightarrow ((1\ 1)) \\ (\text{setq x '(a (b c) d)}) \rightarrow (\text{A (B C) D)} \\ (\text{push 5 (cadr x)}) \rightarrow (5\ \text{B C)} \\ \text{x} \rightarrow (\text{A (5 B C) D)} \end{array}
```

#### **Side Effects:**

The contents of *place* are modified.

## See Also:

pop, pushnew, Section 5.1 (Generalized Reference)

#### Notes:

```
The effect of (push item place) is equivalent to (setf place (cons item place))
```

except that the *subforms* of *place* are evaluated only once, and *item* is evaluated before *place*.

**pop** Macro

#### Syntax:

```
pop place \rightarrow element
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

place—a place, the value of which is a list (possibly, but necessarily, a dotted list or circular list).

element—an object (the car of the contents of place).

## **Description:**

**pop** reads the value of place, remembers the car of the list which was retrieved, writes the cdr of the list back into the place, and finally yields the car of the originally retrieved list.

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For information about the *evaluation* of *subforms* of *place*, see Section 5.1.1.1 (Evaluation of Subforms to Places).

## **Examples:**

```
(setq stack '(a b c)) \rightarrow (A B C)
(pop stack) \rightarrow A
stack \rightarrow (B C)
(setq llst '((1 2 3 4))) \rightarrow ((1 2 3 4))
(pop (car llst)) \rightarrow 1
llst \rightarrow ((2 3 4))
```

#### Side Effects:

The contents of *place* are modified.

#### See Also:

```
push, pushnew, Section 5.1 (Generalized Reference)
```

## Notes:

```
The effect of (pop place) is roughly equivalent to (prog1 (car place) (setf place (cdr place)))
```

except that the latter would evaluate any subforms of place three times, while pop evaluates them only once.

# first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth Accessor

## Syntax:

```
first list
                 \rightarrow object
                                        (setf (first list) new-object)
                 \rightarrow object
second list
                                        (setf (second list) new-object)
third list
                 \rightarrow object
                                        (setf (third list) new-object)
                                        (setf (fourth list) new-object)
                 \rightarrow object
fourth list
fifth list

ightarrow object
                                        (setf (fifth list) new-object)
                                        (setf (sixth list) new-object)
sixth list
                 \rightarrow object
seventh list

ightarrow object
                                        (setf (seventh list) new-object)
eighth list
                 \rightarrow object
                                        (setf (eighth list) new-object)
ninth list
                 \rightarrow object
                                        (setf (ninth list) new-object)
tenth list
                 \rightarrow object
                                        (setf (tenth list) new-object)
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

list—a list, which might be a dotted list or a circular list.

## first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, ...

object, new-object—an object.

## Description:

The functions first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth access the first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth elements of list, respectively. Specifically,

```
(first list)
                    (car list)
(second list)
               \equiv (car (cdr list))
(third list)
                \equiv (car (cddr list))
              \equiv (car (cdddr list))
(fourth list)
(fifth list)
                \equiv (car (cddddr list))
(sixth list)
                ≡ (car (cdr (cddddr list)))
(seventh list) \equiv (car (cddr (cdddr list)))
(eighth list)
                ≡ (car (cdddr (cddddr list)))
(ninth list)
                ≡ (car (cddddr (cddddr list)))
(tenth list)
                ≡ (car (cdr (cddddr (cddddr list))))
```

setf can also be used with any of these functions to change an existing component. The same equivalences apply. For example:

```
(setf (fifth list) new-object) ≡ (setf (car (cddddr list)) new-object)
```

## **Examples:**

```
(setq lst '(1 2 3 (4 5 6) ((V)) vi 7 8 9 10)) \rightarrow (1 2 3 (4 5 6) ((V)) VI 7 8 9 10) (first lst) \rightarrow 1 (tenth lst) \rightarrow 10 (fifth lst) \rightarrow ((V)) (second (fourth lst)) \rightarrow 5 (sixth '(1 2 3)) \rightarrow NIL (setf (fourth lst) "four") \rightarrow "four" lst \rightarrow (1 2 3 "four" ((V)) VI 7 8 9 10)
```

#### See Also:

car, nth

#### Notes:

first is functionally equivalent to **car**, **second** is functionally equivalent to **cadr**, **third** is functionally equivalent to **caddr**, and **fourth** is functionally equivalent to **cadddr**.

The ordinal numbering used here is one-origin, as opposed to the zero-origin numbering used by **nth**:

```
(fifth x) \equiv (nth 4 x)
```

**nth** Accessor

## Syntax:

```
nth n list \rightarrow object (setf (nth n list) new-object)
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
n—a non-negative integer.
list—a list, which might be a dotted list or a circular list.
object—an object.
new-object—an object.
```

## **Description:**

```
nth locates the nth element of list, where the car of the list is the "zeroth" element. Specifically, (nth n list) \equiv (car (nthcdr n list))

nth may be used to specify a place to setf. Specifically, (setf (nth n list) new-object) \equiv (setf (car (nthcdr n list)) new-object)
```

## **Examples:**

```
(nth 0 '(foo bar baz)) \rightarrow F00 (nth 1 '(foo bar baz)) \rightarrow BAR (nth 3 '(foo bar baz)) \rightarrow NIL (setq 0-to-3 (list 0 1 2 3)) \rightarrow (0 1 2 3) (setf (nth 2 0-to-3) "two") \rightarrow "two" 0-to-3 \rightarrow (0 1 "two" 3)
```

#### See Also:

elt, first, nthcdr

endp

## Syntax:

 $\mathbf{endp} \ \textit{list} \ \rightarrow \textit{generalized-boolean}$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

list—a list, which might be a dotted list or a circular list.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

Returns true if list is the empty list. Returns false if list is a cons.

## **Examples:**

```
(endp nil) \rightarrow true
(endp '(1 2)) \rightarrow false
(endp (cddr '(1 2))) \rightarrow true
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if list is not a list.

#### Notes:

The purpose of **endp** is to test for the end of *proper list*. Since **endp** does not descend into a *cons*, it is well-defined to pass it a *dotted list*. However, if shorter "lists" are iteratively produced by calling **cdr** on such a *dotted list* and those "lists" are tested with **endp**, a situation that has undefined consequences will eventually result when the *non-nil atom* (which is not in fact a *list*) finally becomes the argument to **endp**. Since this is the usual way in which **endp** is used, it is conservative programming style and consistent with the intent of **endp** to treat **endp** as simply a function on *proper lists* which happens not to enforce an argument type of *proper list* except when the argument is *atomic*.

null Function

#### Syntax:

 $null\ object\ o boolean$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

object—an object.

boolean—a boolean.

## Description:

Returns t if object is the empty list; otherwise, returns nil.

#### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{null '()}) \rightarrow \texttt{T} \\ (\text{null nil}) \rightarrow \texttt{T} \\ (\text{null t}) \rightarrow \texttt{NIL} \\ (\text{null 1}) \rightarrow \texttt{NIL} \end{array}
```

#### See Also:

not

### Notes:

**null** is intended to be used to test for the *empty list* whereas **not** is intended to be used to invert a *boolean* (or *generalized boolean*). Operationally, **null** and **not** compute the same result; which to use is a matter of style.

```
(null object) ≡ (typep object 'null) ≡ (eq object '())
```

**nconc** Function

#### Syntax:

 $nconc \& rest \ \textit{lists} \rightarrow \textit{concatenated-list}$ 

#### **Arguments and Values:**

*list*—each but the last must be a *list* (which might be a *dotted list* but must not be a *circular list*); the last *list* may be any *object*.

concatenated-list— $a\ list$ .

#### Description:

Returns a *list* that is the concatenation of *lists*. If no *lists* are supplied, (nconc) returns nil. nconc is defined using the following recursive relationship:

```
\begin{array}{l} (\mathsf{nconc}) \to () \\ (\mathsf{nconc} \ \mathsf{nil} \ . \ \mathit{lists}) \equiv (\mathsf{nconc} \ . \ \mathit{lists}) \\ (\mathsf{nconc} \ \mathit{list}) \to \mathit{list} \\ (\mathsf{nconc} \ \mathit{list-1} \ \mathit{list-2}) \equiv (\mathsf{progn} \ (\mathsf{rplacd} \ (\mathsf{last} \ \mathit{list-1}) \ \mathit{list-2}) \ \mathit{list-1}) \\ (\mathsf{nconc} \ \mathit{list-1} \ \mathit{list-2} \ . \ \mathit{lists}) \equiv (\mathsf{nconc} \ (\mathsf{nconc} \ \mathit{list-1} \ \mathit{list-2}) \ . \ \mathit{lists}) \end{array}
```

## **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\texttt{nconc}) \ \rightarrow \ \texttt{NIL} \\ (\texttt{setq} \ \texttt{x} \ \texttt{'(a} \ \texttt{b} \ \texttt{c)}) \ \rightarrow \ (\texttt{A} \ \texttt{B} \ \texttt{C}) \\ (\texttt{setq} \ \texttt{y} \ \texttt{'(d} \ \texttt{e} \ \texttt{f)}) \ \rightarrow \ (\texttt{D} \ \texttt{E} \ \texttt{F}) \\ (\texttt{nconc} \ \texttt{x} \ \texttt{y}) \ \rightarrow \ (\texttt{A} \ \texttt{B} \ \texttt{C} \ \texttt{D} \ \texttt{E} \ \texttt{F}) \\ \texttt{x} \ \rightarrow \ (\texttt{A} \ \texttt{B} \ \texttt{C} \ \texttt{D} \ \texttt{E} \ \texttt{F}) \end{array}
```

Note, in the example, that the value of x is now different, since its last cons has been rplacd'd to the value of y. If (nconc x y) were evaluated again, it would yield a piece of a  $circular\ list$ , whose printed representation would be (A B C D E F D E F D E F ...), repeating forever; if the \*print-circle\* switch were non-nil, it would be printed as (A B C . #1=(D E F . #1#)).

### Side Effects:

The *lists* are modified rather than copied.

#### See Also:

append, concatenate

append

Function

### Syntax:

```
append &rest lists \rightarrow result
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

list—each must be a proper list except the last, which may be any object.

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result—an object. This will be a list unless the last list was not a list and all preceding lists were null

## **Description:**

**append** returns a new *list* that is the concatenation of the copies. *lists* are left unchanged; the *list* structure of each of *lists* except the last is copied. The last argument is not copied; it becomes the cdr of the final dotted pair of the concatenation of the preceding *lists*, or is returned directly if there are no preceding non-empty lists.

## **Examples:**

```
(append '(a b c) '(d e f) '() '(g)) \rightarrow (A B C D E F G) (append '(a b c) 'd) \rightarrow (A B C . D) (setq lst '(a b c)) \rightarrow (A B C D) (append lst '(d)) \rightarrow (A B C D) lst \rightarrow (A B C) (append) \rightarrow NIL (append 'a) \rightarrow A
```

#### See Also:

nconc, concatenate

## revappend, nreconc

Function

## Syntax:

```
revappend list tail 
ightarrow result-list
nreconc list tail 
ightarrow result-list
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
list—a proper list.
tail—an object.
result-list—an object.
```

## **Description:**

**revappend** constructs a  $copy_2$  of *list*, but with the *elements* in reverse order. It then appends (as if by **nconc**) the *tail* to that reversed list and returns the result.

**nreconc** reverses the order of *elements* in *list* (as if by **nreverse**). It then appends (as if by **nconc**) the *tail* to that reversed list and returns the result.

The resulting *list* shares *list structure* with *tail*.

## revappend, nreconc

## **Examples:**

```
(let ((list-1 (list 1 2 3))
        (list-2 (list 'a 'b 'c)))
   (print (revappend list-1 list-2))
   (print (equal list-1 '(1 2 3)))
   (print (equal list-2 '(a b c))))
\triangleright T
\triangleright T
\, \rightarrow \, \mathtt{T}
 (revappend '(1 2 3) '()) \rightarrow (3 2 1)
 (revappend '(1 2 3) '(a . b)) 
ightarrow (3 2 1 A . B)
 (revappend '() '(a b c)) 
ightarrow (A B C)
 (revappend '(1 2 3) 'a) 
ightarrow (3 2 1 . A)
 (revappend '() 'a) 
ightarrow A ;degenerate case
 (let ((list-1 '(1 2 3))
        (list-2 '(a b c)))
   (print (nreconc list-1 list-2))
   (print (equal list-1 '(1 2 3)))
   (print (equal list-2 '(a b c))))
▷ NIL
\triangleright T
\rightarrow \ \mathtt{T}
```

#### Side Effects:

revappend does not modify either of its arguments. nreconc is permitted to modify list but not tail.

Although it might be implemented differently, **nreconc** is constrained to have side-effect behavior equivalent to:

```
(nconc (nreverse list) tail)
```

#### See Also:

reverse, nreverse, nconc

#### **Notes:**

The following functional equivalences are true, although good *implementations* will typically use a faster algorithm for achieving the same effect:

```
(revappend list tail) ≡ (nconc (reverse list) tail)
(nreconc list tail) ≡ (nconc (nreverse list) tail)
```

## butlast, nbutlast

*Function* 

## Syntax:

```
butlast list &optional n 	o result-list
nbutlast list &optional n 	o result-list
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

list—a list, which might be a dotted list but must not be a circular list.

*n*—a non-negative *integer*.

result-list—a list.

## Description:

**butlast** returns a copy of *list* from which the last n conses have been omitted. If n is not supplied, its value is 1. If there are fewer than n conses in *list*, **nil** is returned and, in the case of **nbutlast**, *list* is not modified.

**nbutlast** is like **butlast**, but **nbutlast** may modify *list*. It changes the cdr of the cons n+1 from the end of the *list* to **nil**.

## **Examples:**

```
(\mathtt{setq\ 1st\ '(1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9))}\ \rightarrow\ (\mathtt{1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9)}
(butlast lst) \rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8)
(butlast 1st 5) \rightarrow (1 2 3 4)
(butlast 1st (+ 5 5)) \rightarrow NIL
lst \rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9)
(nbutlast 1st 3) \rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6)
lst \rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6)
(nbutlast 1st 99) 
ightarrow NIL
lst \rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6)
(butlast '(a b c d)) \rightarrow (A B C)
(butlast '((a b) (c d))) \rightarrow ((A B))
(butlast '(a)) 
ightarrow NIL
(butlast nil) 
ightarrow NIL
(setq foo (list 'a 'b 'c 'd)) 
ightarrow (A B C D)
(nbutlast foo) 
ightarrow (A B C)
foo \rightarrow (A B C)
```

```
\begin{array}{l} \text{(nbutlast (list 'a))} \, \to \, \text{NIL} \\ \text{(nbutlast '())} \, \to \, \text{NIL} \end{array}
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type **type-error** if list is not a proper list or a dotted list. Should signal an error of type **type-error** if n is not a non-negative integer.

#### Notes:

```
(butlast list n) \equiv (ldiff list (last list n))
```

last

## Syntax:

last list &optional n o tail

## **Arguments and Values:**

list—a list, which might be a dotted list but must not be a circular list.

n—a non-negative integer. The default is 1.

tail—an object.

## Description:

last returns the last n conses (not the last n elements) of list). If list is (), last returns ().

If n is zero, the atom that terminates list is returned. If n is greater than or equal to the number of cons cells in list, the result is list.

#### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{last nil}) \, \to \, \text{NIL} \\ (\text{last '(1 2 3)}) \, \to \, (3) \\ (\text{last '(1 2 . 3)}) \, \to \, (2 . 3) \\ (\text{setq x (list 'a 'b 'c 'd)}) \, \to \, (\text{A B C D}) \\ (\text{last x}) \, \to \, (\text{D}) \\ (\text{rplacd (last x) (list 'e 'f)}) \, \, \text{x} \, \to \, (\text{A B C D E F}) \\ (\text{last x}) \, \to \, (\text{F}) \\ \\ (\text{last '(a b c)}) \, \to \, (\text{C}) \\ \\ (\text{last '(a b c) 0)} \, \to \, (\text{C}) \\ \\ (\text{last '(a b c) 1)} \, \to \, (\text{C}) \\ \end{array}
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

The consequences are undefined if list is a  $circular\ list$ . Should signal an error of  $type\ \mathbf{type\text{-error}}$  if n is not a non-negative integer.

#### See Also:

butlast, nth

#### Notes:

The following code could be used to define last.

ldiff, tailp

Function

#### Syntax:

```
	ext{ldiff list object} 	o 	ext{result-list} tailp object list 	o 	ext{generalized-boolean}
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
list—a list, which might be a dotted list.
object—an object.
result-list—a list.
generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

## ldiff, tailp

## Description:

If object is the same as some tail of list, tailp returns true; otherwise, it returns false.

If *object* is the *same* as some *tail* of *list*, **ldiff** returns a *fresh list* of the *elements* of *list* that precede **object** in the *list structure* of *list*; otherwise, it returns a *copy*<sub>2</sub> of *list*.

### **Examples:**

```
(let ((lists '#((a b c) (a b c . d))))
   (dotimes (i (length lists)) ()
     (let ((list (aref lists i)))
       (format t "~2&list=~S ~21T(tailp object list)~
                   ~44T(ldiff list object)~%" list)
         (let ((objects (vector list (cddr list) (copy-list (cddr list))
                                 '(f g h) '() 'd 'x)))
           (dotimes (j (length objects)) ()
             (let ((object (aref objects j)))
                (format t "~& object=~S ~21T~S ~44T~S"
                        object (tailp object list) (ldiff list object)))))))
\triangleright
▷ list=(A B C)
                        (tailp object list)
                                                (ldiff list object)
▷ object=(A B C)
                                                NIL
▷ object=(C)
                        Т
                                                (A B)
▷ object=(C)
                        NIL
                                                (A B C)
  object=(F G H)
                        NIL
                                                (A B C)
  object=NIL
                        T
                                                (ABC)
   object=D
                        NIL
                                                (A B C)
\triangleright
   object=X
                        NIL
                                                (A B C)
▷ list=(A B C . D)
                        (tailp object list)
                                                (ldiff list object)
▷ object=(A B C . D)
                        Т
                                                NIL
▷ object=(C . D)
                        Т
                                                (A B)
▷ object=(C . D)
                        NIL
                                                (A B C . D)
▷ object=(F G H)
                        NIL
                                                (A B C . D)
▷ object=NIL
                                                (A B C . D)
                        NIL
▷ object=D
                        Т
                                                (ABC)
                                                (A B C . D)
▷ object=X
                        NIL

ightarrow NIL
```

#### Side Effects:

Neither ldiff nor tailp modifies either of its arguments.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if list is not a proper list or a dotted list.

#### See Also:

set-difference

#### Notes:

If the *list* is a *circular list*, **tailp** will reliably *yield* a *value* only if the given *object* is in fact a *tail* of *list*. Otherwise, the consequences are unspecified: a given *implementation* which detects the circularity must return *false*, but since an *implementation* is not obliged to detect such a *situation*, **tailp** might just loop indefinitely without returning in that case.

tailp could be defined as follows:

**nthcdr** Function

#### Syntax:

```
nthcdr n list \rightarrow tail
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
n—a non-negative integer.
```

list—a list, which might be a dotted list or a circular list.

tail—an object.

## **Description:**

Returns the tail of list that would be obtained by calling cdr n times in succession.

## **Examples:**

```
(nthcdr 0 '()) → NIL
(nthcdr 3 '()) → NIL
(nthcdr 0 '(a b c)) → (A B C)
(nthcdr 2 '(a b c)) → (C)
(nthcdr 4 '(a b c)) → ()
(nthcdr 1 '(0 . 1)) → 1

(locally (declare (optimize (safety 3)))
  (nthcdr 3 '(0 . 1)))
Error: Attempted to take CDR of 1.
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type **type-error** if n is not a non-negative integer.

For n being an integer greater than 1, the error checking done by (nthcdr n list) is the same as for (nthcdr  $(-n \ 1)$  (cdr list)); see the function cdr.

#### See Also:

cdr, nth, rest

rest

## Syntax:

```
rest list \rightarrow tail (setf (rest list) new-tail)
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
list—a list, which might be a dotted list or a circular list.
tail—an object.
```

## Description:

rest performs the same operation as cdr, but mnemonically complements first. Specifically,

```
(rest list) ≡ (cdr list)
(setf (rest list) new-tail) ≡ (setf (cdr list) new-tail)
```

## **Examples:**

```
(rest '(1 2)) 
ightarrow (2)
```

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{rest '(1 . 2)}) \rightarrow 2 \\ (\text{rest '(1)}) \rightarrow \text{NIL} \\ (\text{setq *cons* '(1 . 2)}) \rightarrow (\text{1 . 2}) \\ (\text{setf (rest *cons*) "two"}) \rightarrow \text{"two"} \\ *\text{cons*} \rightarrow (\text{1 . "two"}) \end{array}
```

#### See Also:

cdr, nthcdr

#### Notes:

**rest** is often preferred stylistically over  $\mathbf{cdr}$  when the argument is to being subjectively viewed as a *list* rather than as a cons.

## member, member-if, member-if-not

Function

## Syntax:

```
member item list &key key test test-not \rightarrow tail member-if predicate list &key key \rightarrow tail member-if-not predicate list &key key \rightarrow tail
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
item—an object.
```

list—a proper list.

predicate—a designator for a function of one argument that returns a generalized boolean.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

tail—a list.

## **Description:**

member, member-if, and member-if-not each search list for item or for a top-level element that satisfies the test. The argument to the predicate function is an element of list.

If some element satisfies the test, the tail of *list* beginning with this element is returned; otherwise nil is returned.

list is searched on the top level only.

## **Examples:**

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if list is not a proper list.

#### See Also:

find, position, Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

## Notes:

The :test-not parameter is deprecated.

The function member-if-not is deprecated.

In the following

```
(member 'a '(g (a y) c a d e a f)) 
ightarrow (A D E A F)
```

the value returned by **member** is *identical* to the portion of the *list* beginning with **a**. Thus **rplaca** on the result of **member** can be used to alter the part of the *list* where **a** was found (assuming a check has been made that **member** did not return **nil**).

## mapc, mapcar, mapcan, mapl, maplist, mapcon

Function

## Syntax:

```
mapc function &rest lists^+ 	o  list-1 mapcar function &rest lists^+ 	o  result-list mapcan function &rest lists^+ 	o  concatenated-results mapl function &rest lists^+ 	o  list-1 maplist function &rest lists^+ 	o  result-list
```

## mapc, mapcar, mapcan, mapl, maplist, mapcon

mapcon function &rest lists $^+ \rightarrow$  concatenated-results

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
function—a designator for a function that must take as many arguments as there are lists.
```

list—a proper list.

*list-1*—the first *list* (which must be a *proper list*).

result-list—a list.

concatenated-results—a list.

## **Description:**

The mapping operation involves applying *function* to successive sets of arguments in which one argument is obtained from each *sequence*. Except for **mapc** and **mapl**, the result contains the results returned by *function*. In the cases of **mapc** and **mapl**, the resulting *sequence* is *list*.

function is called first on all the elements with index 0, then on all those with index 1, and so on. result-type specifies the type of the resulting sequence. If function is a symbol, it is coerced to a function as if by symbol-function.

mapcar operates on successive *elements* of the *lists. function* is applied to the first *element* of each *list*, then to the second *element* of each *list*, and so on. The iteration terminates when the shortest *list* runs out, and excess elements in other lists are ignored. The value returned by mapcar is a *list* of the results of successive calls to *function*.

mapc is like mapcar except that the results of applying function are not accumulated. The list argument is returned.

maplist is like mapcar except that function is applied to successive sublists of the lists. function is first applied to the lists themselves, and then to the cdr of each list, and then to the cdr of each list, and so on.

mapl is like maplist except that the results of applying function are not accumulated; list-1 is returned.

mapcan and mapcon are like mapcar and maplist respectively, except that the results of applying function are combined into a list by the use of nconc rather than list. That is,

and similarly for the relationship between mapcan and mapcar.

## **Examples:**

```
(mapcar #'car '((1 a) (2 b) (3 c))) \rightarrow (1 2 3) (mapcar #'abs '(3 -4 2 -5 -6)) \rightarrow (3 4 2 5 6)
```

```
(mapcar #'cons '(a b c) '(1 2 3)) \rightarrow ((A . 1) (B . 2) (C . 3))
 (maplist #'append '(1 2 3 4) '(1 2) '(1 2 3))
\rightarrow ((1 2 3 4 1 2 1 2 3) (2 3 4 2 2 3))
 (maplist #'(lambda (x) (cons 'foo x)) '(a b c d))

ightarrow ((F00 A B C D) (F00 B C D) (F00 C D) (F00 D))
 (maplist #'(lambda (x) (if (member (car x) (cdr x)) 0 1)) '(a b a c d b c))
\rightarrow (0 0 1 0 1 1 1)
; An entry is 1 if the corresponding element of the input
; list was the last instance of that element in the input list.
 (setq dummy nil) 
ightarrow NIL
 (mapc #'(lambda (&rest x) (setq dummy (append dummy x)))
         '(1 2 3 4)
         '(a b c d e)
         (x y z)) \rightarrow (1 2 3 4)
 dummy \rightarrow (1 A X 2 B Y 3 C Z)
 (setq dummy nil) 
ightarrow NIL
 (mapl #'(lambda (x) (push x dummy)) '(1 2 3 4)) \rightarrow (1 2 3 4)
 dummy \rightarrow ((4) (3 4) (2 3 4) (1 2 3 4))
 (mapcan #'(lambda (x y) (if (null x) nil (list x y)))
           '(nil nil nil d e)
           '(1 2 3 4 5 6)) \rightarrow (D 4 E 5)
 (mapcan #'(lambda (x) (and (numberp x) (list x)))
           '(a 1 b c 3 4 d 5))
\rightarrow (1 3 4 5)
In this case the function serves as a filter; this is a standard Lisp idiom using mapcan.
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if any list is not a proper list.

#### See Also:

dolist, map, Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

(mapcon #'list '(1 2 3 4))  $\rightarrow$  ((1 2 3 4) (2 3 4) (3 4) (4))

**acons** Function

## Syntax:

 $\mathbf{acons}\ \mathit{key}\ \mathit{datum}\ \mathit{alist}\ \to \mathit{new-alist}$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
key—an object.

datum—an object.

alist—an association list.

new-alist—an association list.
```

## Description:

Creates a  $fresh\ cons$ , the cdr of which is alist and the car of which is another  $fresh\ cons$ , the car of which is key and the cdr of which is datum.

#### **Examples:**

```
\label{eq:cons_section} \begin{array}{l} (\text{setq alist '()}) \to \text{NIL} \\ (\text{acons 1 "one" alist}) \to ((1 \ . \ "one")) \\ \text{alist} \to \text{NIL} \\ (\text{setq alist (acons 1 "one" (acons 2 "two" alist))}) \to ((1 \ . \ "one") \ (2 \ . \ "two")) \\ (\text{assoc 1 alist}) \to (1 \ . \ "one") \\ (\text{setq alist (acons 1 "uno" alist)}) \to ((1 \ . \ "uno") \ (1 \ . \ "one") \ (2 \ . \ "two")) \\ (\text{assoc 1 alist}) \to (1 \ . \ "uno") \end{array}
```

#### See Also:

assoc, pairlis

#### Notes:

 $(acons key datum alist) \equiv (cons (cons key datum) alist)$ 

## assoc, assoc-if, assoc-if-not

Function

## Syntax:

```
assoc item alist &key key test test-not \rightarrow entry assoc-if predicate alist &key key \rightarrow entry
```

## assoc, assoc-if, assoc-if-not

assoc-if-not predicate alist &key key  $\rightarrow$  entry

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
item—an object.
```

alist—an association list.

predicate—a designator for a function of one argument that returns a generalized boolean.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

entry—a cons that is an element of alist, or nil.

#### **Description:**

assoc, assoc-if, and assoc-if-not return the first cons in alist whose car satisfies the test, or nil if no such cons is found.

For assoc, assoc-if, and assoc-if-not, if nil appears in alist in place of a pair, it is ignored.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq values '((x . 100) (y . 200) (z . 50))) \rightarrow ((X . 100) (Y . 200) (Z . 50))
 (assoc 'y values) \rightarrow (Y . 200)
 (rplacd (assoc 'y values) 201) 
ightarrow (Y . 201)
 (assoc 'y values) 
ightarrow (Y . 201)
 (setq alist '((1 . "one")(2 . "two")(3 . "three")))

ightarrow ((1 . "one") (2 . "two") (3 . "three"))
 (assoc 2 alist) 
ightarrow (2 . "two")
 (assoc-if #'evenp alist) 
ightarrow (2 . "two")
 (assoc-if-not \#'(lambda(x) (< x 3)) alist) \rightarrow (3 . "three")
 (\mathtt{setq\ alist\ `(("one"\ .\ 1)("two"\ .\ 2)))}\ \rightarrow\ (("one"\ .\ 1)\ ("two"\ .\ 2))
 (assoc "one" alist) 
ightarrow NIL
 (assoc "one" alist :test #'equalp) 
ightarrow ("one" . 1)
 (assoc "two" alist :key \#'(lambda(x) (char x 2))) \to NIL
 (assoc #\o alist :key #'(lambda(x) (char x 2))) \rightarrow ("two" . 2)
 (assoc 'r '((a . b) (c . d) (r . x) (s . y) (r . z))) 
ightarrow (R . X)
 (assoc 'goo '((foo . bar) (zoo . goo))) 
ightarrow NIL
 (assoc '2 '((1 a b c) (2 b c d) (-7 x y z))) 
ightarrow (2 B C D)
 (setq alist '(("one" . 1) ("2" . 2) ("three" . 3)))
\rightarrow (("one" . 1) ("2" . 2) ("three" . 3))
 (assoc-if-not #'alpha-char-p alist
                 :key #'(lambda (x) (char x 0))) \rightarrow ("2" . 2)
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if alist is not an association list.

#### See Also:

rassoc, find, member, position, Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### Notes:

The :test-not parameter is deprecated.

The function assoc-if-not is deprecated.

It is possible to rplacd the result of assoc, provided that it is not nil, in order to "update" alist.

The two expressions

```
(assoc item list :test fn)
and
(find item list :test fn :key #'car)
```

are equivalent in meaning with one exception: if **nil** appears in *alist* in place of a pair, and *item* is **nil**, **find** will compute the *car* of the **nil** in *alist*, find that it is equal to *item*, and return **nil**, whereas **assoc** will ignore the **nil** in *alist* and continue to search for an actual *cons* whose *car* is **nil**.

copy-alist Function

## Syntax:

```
{f copy	ext{-alist}} \ 	o 	ext{\it new-alist}
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
{\it alist} {\it --} {\rm an} \ {\it association} \ {\it list}.
```

new-alist—an association list.

## **Description:**

**copy-alist** returns a *copy* of *alist*.

The *list structure* of *alist* is copied, and the *elements* of *alist* which are *conses* are also copied (as *conses* only). Any other *objects* which are referred to, whether directly or indirectly, by the *alist* continue to be shared.

#### **Examples:**

```
(defparameter *alist* (acons 1 "one" (acons 2 "two" '())))
```

```
*alist* \to ((1 . "one") (2 . "two")) (defparameter *list-copy* (copy-list *alist*)) *list-copy* \to ((1 . "one") (2 . "two")) (defparameter *alist-copy* (copy-alist *alist*)) *alist-copy* \to ((1 . "one") (2 . "two")) (setf (cdr (assoc 2 *alist-copy*)) "deux") \to "deux" *alist-copy* \to ((1 . "one") (2 . "deux")) *alist* \to ((1 . "one") (2 . "two")) (setf (cdr (assoc 1 *list-copy*)) "uno") \to "uno" *list-copy* \to ((1 . "uno") (2 . "two")) *alist* \to ((1 . "uno") (2 . "two"))
```

#### See Also:

copy-list

pairlis

## Syntax:

pairlis keys data &optional alist ightarrow new-alist

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
keys—a proper list.

data—a proper list.

alist—an association list. The default is the empty list.

new-alist—an association list.
```

#### **Description:**

Returns an association list that associates elements of keys to corresponding elements of data. The consequences are undefined if keys and data are not of the same length.

If alist is supplied, pairlis returns a modified alist with the new pairs prepended to it. The new pairs may appear in the resulting association list in either forward or backward order. The result of

```
(pairlis '(one two) '(1 2) '((three . 3) (four . 19)))
might be
((one . 1) (two . 2) (three . 3) (four . 19))
or
```

```
((two . 2) (one . 1) (three . 3) (four . 19))
```

## **Examples:**

```
(setq keys '(1 2 3) data '("one" "two" "three") alist '((4 . "four"))) \rightarrow ((4 . "four")) (pairlis keys data) \rightarrow ((3 . "three") (2 . "two") (1 . "one")) (pairlis keys data alist) \rightarrow ((3 . "three") (2 . "two") (1 . "one") (4 . "four")) alist \rightarrow ((4 . "four"))
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if keys and data are not proper lists.

#### See Also:

acons

## rassoc, rassoc-if, rassoc-if-not

*Function* 

## Syntax:

```
rassoc item alist &key key test test-not \rightarrow entry rassoc-if predicate alist &key key \rightarrow entry rassoc-if-not predicate alist &key key \rightarrow entry
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
item—an object.
```

alist—an association list.

predicate—a designator for a function of one argument that returns a generalized boolean.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

entry—a cons that is an element of the alist, or nil.

## **Description:**

rassoc, rassoc-if, and rassoc-if-not return the first cons whose cdr satisfies the test. If no such cons is found, nil is returned.

If **nil** appears in *alist* in place of a pair, it is ignored.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq alist '((1 . "one") (2 . "two") (3 . 3))) 

\rightarrow ((1 . "one") (2 . "two") (3 . 3))

(rassoc 3 alist) \rightarrow (3 . 3)

(rassoc "two" alist) \rightarrow NIL

(rassoc "two" alist :test 'equal) \rightarrow (2 . "two")

(rassoc 1 alist :key #'(lambda (x) (if (numberp x) (/ x 3)))) \rightarrow (3 . 3)

(rassoc 'a '((a . b) (b . c) (c . a) (z . a))) \rightarrow (C . A)

(rassoc-if #'stringp alist) \rightarrow (1 . "one")

(rassoc-if-not #'vectorp alist) \rightarrow (3 . 3)
```

#### See Also:

assoc, Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

### **Notes:**

The :test-not parameter is deprecated.

The function rassoc-if-not is deprecated.

It is possible to rplaca the result of rassoc, provided that it is not nil, in order to "update" alist.

The expressions

```
(rassoc item list :test fn)
and
(find item list :test fn :key #'cdr)
```

are equivalent in meaning, except when the item is nil and nil appears in place of a pair in the alist. See the function assoc.

## get-properties

**Function** 

## Syntax:

get-properties plist indicator-list  $\rightarrow$  indicator, value, tail

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
plist—a property list.

indicator-list—a proper list (of indicators).

indicator—an object that is an element of indicator-list.

value—an object.

tail—a list.
```

## **Description:**

get-properties is used to look up any of several property list entries all at once.

It searches the *plist* for the first entry whose *indicator* is *identical* to one of the *objects* in *indicator-list*. If such an entry is found, the *indicator* and *value* returned are the *property indicator* and its associated *property value*, and the *tail* returned is the *tail* of the *plist* that begins with the found entry (*i.e.*, whose *car* is the *indicator*). If no such entry is found, the *indicator*, *value*, and *tail* are all *nil*.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq x '()) \rightarrow NIL

(setq *indicator-list* '(prop1 prop2)) \rightarrow (PROP1 PROP2)

(getf x 'prop1) \rightarrow NIL

(setf (getf x 'prop1) 'val1) \rightarrow VAL1

(eq (getf x 'prop1) 'val1) \rightarrow true

(get-properties x *indicator-list*) \rightarrow PROP1, VAL1, (PROP1 VAL1)

x \rightarrow (PROP1 VAL1)
```

### See Also:

get, getf

getf

#### Syntax:

```
\begin{tabular}{ll} {\bf getf} \ \textit{plist indicator} \ \& {\bf optional} \ \textit{default} & \rightarrow \textit{value} \\ \end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{ll} {\bf getf} \ \textit{place indicator} \ \& {\bf optional} \ \textit{default}) \ \textit{new-value}) \\ \end{tabular}
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
plist—a property list.
place—a place, the value of which is a property list.
```

## getf

```
indicator—an object.
default—an object. The default is nil.
value—an object.
new-value—an object.
```

## **Description:**

getf finds a property on the plist whose property indicator is identical to indicator, and returns its corresponding property value. If there are multiple properties<sub>1</sub> with that property indicator, getf uses the first such property. If there is no property with that property indicator, default is returned.

setf of getf may be used to associate a new object with an existing indicator in the property list held by place, or to create a new association if none exists. If there are multiple properties<sub>1</sub> with that property indicator, setf of getf associates the new-value with the first such property. When a getf form is used as a setf place, any default which is supplied is evaluated according to normal left-to-right evaluation rules, but its value is ignored.

setf of getf is permitted to either write the value of place itself, or modify of any part, car or cdr, of the list structure held by place.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq x '()) 
ightarrow NIL
 (getf x 'prop1) \rightarrow NIL
 (getf x 'prop1 7) 
ightarrow 7
 (getf x 'prop1) 
ightarrow NIL
 (setf (getf x 'prop1) 'val1) 
ightarrow VAL1
 (eq (getf x 'prop1) 'val1) 
ightarrow true
 (getf x 'prop1) 
ightarrow VAL1
 (getf x 'prop1 7) \rightarrow VAL1
 {\tt x} \rightarrow {\tt (PROP1\ VAL1)}
;; Examples of implementation variation permitted.
 (setq foo (list 'a 'b 'c 'd 'e 'f)) 
ightarrow (A B C D E F)
 (setq bar (cddr foo)) \rightarrow (C D E F)
 (remf foo 'c) 
ightarrow true
 foo \rightarrow (A B E F)
 bar
\begin{array}{c} \rightarrow & (C D E F) \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} & (C) \end{array}
\stackrel{\rightarrow}{\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow}} (NIL)
\stackrel{or}{
ightarrow} (C NIL)
\stackrel{or}{
ightarrow} (C D)
```

#### See Also:

get, get-properties, setf, Section 5.1.2.2 (Function Call Forms as Places)

#### Notes:

There is no way (using **getf**) to distinguish an absent property from one whose value is *default*; but see **get-properties**.

Note that while supplying a *default* argument to **getf** in a **setf** situation is sometimes not very interesting, it is still important because some macros, such as **push** and **incf**, require a *place* argument which data is both *read* from and *written* to. In such a context, if a *default* argument is to be supplied for the *read* situation, it must be syntactically valid for the *write* situation as well. For example,

```
(let ((plist '()))
  (incf (getf plist 'count 0))
  plist) → (COUNT 1)
```

 $\mathbf{remf}$ 

## Syntax:

 $\mathbf{remf}$  place indicator  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

## Arguments and Values:

```
place—a place.
indicator—an object.
generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

### **Description:**

remf removes from the property list stored in place a property<sub>1</sub> with a property indicator identical to indicator. If there are multiple properties<sub>1</sub> with the identical key, remf only removes the first such property. remf returns false if no such property was found, or true if a property was found.

The *property indicator* and the corresponding *property value* are removed in an undefined order by destructively splicing the property list. **remf** is permitted to either **setf** *place* or to **setf** any part, **car** or **cdr**, of the *list structure* held by that *place*.

For information about the *evaluation* of *subforms* of *place*, see Section 5.1.1.1 (Evaluation of Subforms to Places).

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq x (cons () ())) \rightarrow (NIL)
(setf (getf (car x) 'prop1) 'val1) \rightarrow VAL1
(remf (car x) 'prop1) \rightarrow true
(remf (car x) 'prop1) \rightarrow false
```

#### Side Effects:

The property list stored in *place* is modified.

#### See Also:

remprop, getf

## intersection, nintersection

**Function** 

## Syntax:

intersection list-1 list-2 &key key test test-not  $\rightarrow$  result-list nintersection list-1 list-2 &key key test test-not  $\rightarrow$  result-list

## **Arguments and Values:**

list-1—a proper list.

list-2—a proper list.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

result-list—a list.

#### Description:

**intersection** and **nintersection** return a *list* that contains every element that occurs in both *list-1* and *list-2*.

**nintersection** is the destructive version of **intersection**. It performs the same operation, but may destroy *list-1* using its cells to construct the result. *list-2* is not destroyed.

The intersection operation is described as follows. For all possible ordered pairs consisting of one element from list-1 and one element from list-2, :test or :test-not are used to determine whether they satisfy the test. The first argument to the :test or :test-not function is an element of list-1; the second argument is an element of list-2. If :test or :test-not is not supplied, eql is used. It is an error if :test and :test-not are supplied in the same function call.

## intersection, nintersection

If :key is supplied (and not nil), it is used to extract the part to be tested from the *list* element. The argument to the :key function is an element of either *list-1* or *list-2*; the :key function typically returns part of the supplied element. If :key is not supplied or nil, the *list-1* and *list-2* elements are used

For every pair that *satisfies the test*, exactly one of the two elements of the pair will be put in the result. No element from either *list* appears in the result that does not *satisfy the test* for an element from the other *list*. If one of the *lists* contains duplicate elements, there may be duplication in the result.

There is no guarantee that the order of elements in the result will reflect the ordering of the arguments in any particular way. The result *list* may share cells with, or be **eq** to, either *list-1* or *list-2* if appropriate.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq list1 (list 1 1 2 3 4 a b c "A" "B" "C" "d")

list2 (list 1 4 5 b c d "a" "B" "c" "D"))

→ (1 4 5 B C D "a" "B" "c" "D")

(intersection list1 list2) → (C B 4 1 1)

(intersection list1 list2 :test 'equal) → ("B" C B 4 1 1)

(intersection list1 list2 :test #'equalp) → ("d" "C" "B" "A" C B 4 1 1)

(initersection list1 list2) → (1 1 4 B C)

list1 → implementation-dependent ;e.g., (1 1 4 B C)

list2 → implementation-dependent ;e.g., (1 4 5 B C D "a" "B" "c" "D")

(setq list1 (copy-list '((1 . 2) (2 . 3) (3 . 4) (4 . 5))))

→ ((1 . 2) (2 . 3) (3 . 4) (4 . 5))

(setq list2 (copy-list '((1 . 3) (2 . 4) (3 . 6) (4 . 8))))

→ ((1 . 3) (2 . 4) (3 . 6) (4 . 8))

(nintersection list1 list2 :key #'cdr) → ((2 . 3) (3 . 4))

list1 → implementation-dependent ;e.g., ((1 . 2) (2 . 3) (3 . 4))

list2 → implementation-dependent ;e.g., ((1 . 3) (2 . 4) (3 . 6) (4 . 8))
```

#### Side Effects:

nintersection can modify list-1, but not list-2.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if list-1 and list-2 are not proper lists.

#### See Also:

union, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### **Notes:**

The :test-not parameter is deprecated.

Since the **nintersection** side effect is not required, it should not be used in for-effect-only positions

in portable code.

adjoin Function

#### Syntax:

adjoin item list &key key test test-not ightarrow new-list

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
item—an object.
```

list—a proper list.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

new-list—a list.

## **Description:**

Tests whether *item* is the same as an existing element of *list*. If the *item* is not an existing element, **adjoin** adds it to *list* (as if by **cons**) and returns the resulting *list*; otherwise, nothing is added and the original *list* is returned.

The *test*, *test-not*, and *key* affect how it is determined whether *item* is the same as an *element* of *list*. For details, see Section 17.2.1 (Satisfying a Two-Argument Test).

## **Examples:**

```
(setq slist '()) \rightarrow NIL (adjoin 'a slist) \rightarrow (A) slist \rightarrow NIL (setq slist (adjoin '(test-item 1) slist)) \rightarrow ((TEST-ITEM 1)) (adjoin '(test-item 1) slist) \rightarrow ((TEST-ITEM 1) (TEST-ITEM 1)) (adjoin '(test-item 1) slist :test 'equal) \rightarrow ((TEST-ITEM 1)) (adjoin '(new-test-item 1) slist :key #'cadr) \rightarrow ((TEST-ITEM 1)) (adjoin '(new-test-item 1) slist) \rightarrow ((NEW-TEST-ITEM 1) (TEST-ITEM 1))
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if list is not a proper list.

#### See Also:

pushnew, Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

## **Notes:**

```
The :test-not parameter is deprecated.
```

pushnew

#### Syntax:

pushnew item place &key key test test-not

→ new-place-value

## **Arguments and Values:**

item—an object.

place—a place, the value of which is a proper list.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

new-place-value—a list (the new value of place).

#### Description:

**pushnew** tests whether *item* is the same as any existing element of the *list* stored in *place*. If *item* is not, it is prepended to the *list*, and the new *list* is stored in *place*.

pushnew returns the new list that is stored in place.

Whether or not *item* is already a member of the *list* that is in *place* is determined by comparisons using :test or :test-not. The first argument to the :test or :test-not function is *item*; the second argument is an element of the *list* in *place* as returned by the :key function (if supplied).

If :key is supplied, it is used to extract the part to be tested from both item and the list element, as for adjoin.

The argument to the :key function is an element of the *list* stored in *place*. The :key function typically returns part part of the element of the *list*. If :key is not supplied or nil, the *list* element is used.

For information about the *evaluation* of *subforms* of *place*, see Section 5.1.1.1 (Evaluation of Subforms to Places).

It is *implementation-dependent* whether or not **pushnew** actually executes the storing form for its *place* in the situation where the *item* is already a member of the *list* held by *place*.

## **Examples:**

```
 \begin{array}{l} (\text{setq x '(a (b c) d)}) \rightarrow (\text{A (B C) D}) \\ (\text{pushnew 5 (cadr x)}) \rightarrow (\text{5 B C}) \\ \text{x} \rightarrow (\text{A (5 B C) D}) \\ (\text{pushnew 'b (cadr x)}) \rightarrow (\text{5 B C}) \\ \text{x} \rightarrow (\text{A (5 B C) D}) \\ (\text{setq 1st '((1) (1 2) (1 2 3))}) \rightarrow ((1) (1 2) (1 2 3)) \\ (\text{pushnew '(2) 1st}) \rightarrow ((2) (1) (1 2) (1 2 3)) \\ (\text{pushnew '(1) 1st}) \rightarrow ((1) (2) (1) (1 2) (1 2 3)) \\ (\text{pushnew '(1) 1st :test 'equal}) \rightarrow ((1) (2) (1) (1 2) (1 2 3)) \\ (\text{pushnew '(1) 1st :key \#'car)} \rightarrow ((1) (2) (1) (1 2) (1 2 3)) \\ \end{array}
```

#### Side Effects:

The contents of *place* may be modified.

#### See Also:

```
push, adjoin, Section 5.1 (Generalized Reference)
```

#### Notes:

```
The effect of (pushnew item place :test p) is roughly equivalent to (setf place (adjoin item place :test p)) except that the subforms of place are evaluated only once, and item is evaluated before place.
```

## set-difference, nset-difference

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

```
set-difference list-1 list-2 &key key test test-not \rightarrow result-list nset-difference list-1 list-2 &key key test test-not \rightarrow result-list
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
list-1—a proper list.
list-2—a proper list.
```

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

## set-difference, nset-difference

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil. result-list—a list.

## **Description:**

set-difference returns a list of elements of list-1 that do not appear in list-2.

nset-difference is the destructive version of set-difference. It may destroy list-1.

For all possible ordered pairs consisting of one element from *list-1* and one element from *list-2*, the :test or :test-not function is used to determine whether they satisfy the test. The first argument to the :test or :test-not function is the part of an element of *list-1* that is returned by the :key function (if supplied); the second argument is the part of an element of *list-2* that is returned by the :key function (if supplied).

If :key is supplied, its argument is a *list-1* or *list-2* element. The :key function typically returns part of the supplied element. If :key is not supplied, the *list-1* or *list-2* element is used.

An element of *list-1* appears in the result if and only if it does not match any element of *list-2*.

There is no guarantee that the order of elements in the result will reflect the ordering of the arguments in any particular way. The result *list* may share cells with, or be **eq** to, either of *list-1* or *list-2*, if appropriate.

```
(setq lst1 (list "A" "b" "C" "d")
       lst2 (list "a" "B" "C" "d")) \rightarrow ("a" "B" "C" "d")
 (set-difference lst1 lst2) \rightarrow ("d" "C" "b" "A")
 (set-difference lst1 lst2 :test 'equal) \rightarrow ("b" "A")
 (set-difference lst1 lst2 :test #'equalp) 
ightarrow NIL
 (nset-difference lst1 lst2 :test #'string=) 
ightarrow ("A" "b")
 (setq lst1 '(("a" . "b") ("c" . "d") ("e" . "f")))

ightarrow (("a" . "b") ("c" . "d") ("e" . "f"))
(setg lst2 '(("c" . "a") ("e" . "b") ("d" . "a")))
\rightarrow (("c" . "a") ("e" . "b") ("d" . "a"))
 (nset-difference lst1 lst2 :test #'string= :key #'cdr)
\rightarrow (("c" . "d") ("e" . "f"))
lst1 \rightarrow (("a" . "b") ("c" . "d") ("e" . "f"))
1st2 \,\rightarrow\, (("c" \,\,.\,\,"a") \,\,("e" \,\,.\,\,"b") \,\,("d" \,\,.\,\,"a"))
;; Remove all flavor names that contain "c" or "w".
 (set-difference '("strawberry" "chocolate" "banana"
                    "lemon" "pistachio" "rhubarb")
           '(#\c #\w)
           :test #'(lambda (s c) (find c s)))

ightarrow ("banana" "rhubarb" "lemon")
                                     ;One possible ordering.
```

#### Side Effects:

nset-difference may destroy list-1.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if list-1 and list-2 are not proper lists.

#### See Also:

Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### Notes:

The :test-not parameter is deprecated.

## set-exclusive-or, nset-exclusive-or

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

set-exclusive-or list-1 list-2 &key key test test-not  $\rightarrow$  result-list nset-exclusive-or list-1 list-2 &key key test test-not  $\rightarrow$  result-list

## **Arguments and Values:**

list-1—a proper list.

list-2—a proper list.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

result-list—a list.

### Description:

set-exclusive-or returns a list of elements that appear in exactly one of list-1 and list-2.

nset-exclusive-or is the destructive version of set-exclusive-or.

For all possible ordered pairs consisting of one element from *list-1* and one element from *list-2*, the :test or :test-not function is used to determine whether they satisfy the test.

If :key is supplied, it is used to extract the part to be tested from the *list-1* or *list-2* element. The first argument to the :test or :test-not function is the part of an element of *list-1* extracted by the :key function (if supplied); the second argument is the part of an element of *list-2* extracted by the :key function (if supplied). If :key is not supplied or nil, the *list-1* or *list-2* element is used.

The result contains precisely those elements of *list-1* and *list-2* that appear in no matching pair.

The result *list* of **set-exclusive-or** might share storage with one of *list-1* or *list-2*.

### **Examples:**

```
(setq lst1 (list 1 "a" "b")

lst2 (list 1 "A" "b")) → (1 "A" "b")

(set-exclusive-or lst1 lst2) → ("b" "A" "b" "a")

(set-exclusive-or lst1 lst2 :test #'equal) → ("A" "a")

(set-exclusive-or lst1 lst2 :test 'equalp) → NIL

(nset-exclusive-or lst1 lst2) → ("a" "b" "A" "b")

(setq lst1 (list (("a" . "b") ("c" . "d") ("e" . "f"))))

→ (("a" . "b") ("c" . "d") ("e" . "b") ("d" . "a"))))

→ (("c" . "a") ("e" . "b") ("d" . "a"))

(nset-exclusive-or lst1 lst2 :test #'string= :key #'cdr)

→ (("c" . "d") ("e" . "f") ("c" . "a") ("d" . "a"))

lst1 → (("a" . "b") ("c" . "d") ("e" . "f"))

lst2 → (("c" . "a") ("d" . "a"))
```

#### **Side Effects:**

nset-exclusive-or is permitted to modify any part, car or cdr, of the list structure of list-1 or list-2.

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if list-1 and list-2 are not proper lists.

#### See Also:

Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### Notes:

The :test-not parameter is deprecated.

Since the **nset-exclusive-or** side effect is not required, it should not be used in for-effect-only positions in portable code.

subsetp

### Syntax:

subsetp list-1 list-2 &key key test test-not  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
list-1—a proper list.
```

list-2—a proper list.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

subsetp returns true if every element of list-1 matches some element of list-2, and false otherwise.

Whether a list element is the same as another list element is determined by the functions specified by the keyword arguments. The first argument to the :test or :test-not function is typically part of an element of *list-1* extracted by the :key function; the second argument is typically part of an element of *list-2* extracted by the :key function.

The argument to the :key function is an element of either list-1 or list-2; the return value is part of the element of the supplied list element. If :key is not supplied or nil, the list-1 or list-2 element itself is supplied to the :test or :test-not function.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq cosmos '(1 "a" (1 2))) \to (1 "a" (1 2)) (subsetp '(1) cosmos) \to true (subsetp '((1 2)) cosmos) \to false (subsetp '((1 2)) cosmos :test 'equal) \to true (subsetp '(1 "A") cosmos :test #'equalp) \to true (subsetp '((1) (2)) '((1) (2))) \to false (subsetp '((1) (2)) '((1) (2)) :key #'car) \to true
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if list-1 and list-2 are not proper lists.

#### See Also:

Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### Notes:

The :test-not parameter is deprecated.

## union, nunion

## union, nunion

*Function* 

## Syntax:

union list-1 list-2 &key key test test-not  $\rightarrow$  result-list nunion list-1 list-2 &key key test test-not  $\rightarrow$  result-list

## Arguments and Values:

list-1—a proper list.

list-2—a proper list.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

result-list—a list.

## **Description:**

union and nunion return a list that contains every element that occurs in either list-1 or list-2.

For all possible ordered pairs consisting of one element from *list-1* and one element from *list-2*, :test or :test-not is used to determine whether they satisfy the test. The first argument to the :test or :test-not function is the part of the element of *list-1* extracted by the :key function (if supplied); the second argument is the part of the element of *list-2* extracted by the :key function (if supplied).

The argument to the :key function is an element of *list-1* or *list-2*; the return value is part of the supplied element. If :key is not supplied or nil, the element of *list-1* or *list-2* itself is supplied to the :test or :test-not function.

For every matching pair, one of the two elements of the pair will be in the result. Any element from either *list-1* or *list-2* that matches no element of the other will appear in the result.

If there is a duplication between *list-1* and *list-2*, only one of the duplicate instances will be in the result. If either *list-1* or *list-2* has duplicate entries within it, the redundant entries might or might not appear in the result.

The order of elements in the result do not have to reflect the ordering of *list-1* or *list-2* in any way. The result *list* may be **eq** to either *list-1* or *list-2* if appropriate.

## union, nunion

## **Examples:**

```
(union '(a b c) '(f a d))

→ (A B C F D)

\stackrel{OT}{\longrightarrow} (B C F A D)

\stackrel{OT}{\longrightarrow} (D F A B C)
(union '((x 5) (y 6)) '((z 2) (x 4)) :key #'car)

→ ((X 5) (Y 6) (Z 2))

\stackrel{OT}{\longrightarrow} ((X 4) (Y 6) (Z 2))

(setq lst1 (list 1 2 '(1 2) "a" "b")

1st2 (list 2 3 '(2 3) "B" "C"))

→ (2 3 (2 3) "B" "C")
(nunion lst1 lst2)

→ (1 (1 2) "a" "b" 2 3 (2 3) "B" "C")

\stackrel{OT}{\longrightarrow} (1 2 (1 2) "a" "b" "C" "B" (2 3) 3)
```

#### Side Effects:

nunion is permitted to modify any part, car or cdr, of the list structure of list-1 or list-2.

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if list-1 and list-2 are not proper lists.

## See Also:

intersection, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

## **Notes:**

The :test-not parameter is deprecated.

Since the **nunion** side effect is not required, it should not be used in for-effect-only positions in portable code.

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

15. Arrays

## 15.1 Array Concepts

## 15.1.1 Array Elements

An array contains a set of objects called elements that can be referenced individually according to a rectilinear coordinate system.

## 15.1.1.1 Array Indices

An array element is referred to by a (possibly empty) series of indices. The length of the series must equal the rank of the array. Each index must be a non-negative fixnum less than the corresponding array dimension. Array indexing is zero-origin.

### 15.1.1.2 Array Dimensions

An axis of an array is called a **dimension**.

Each dimension is a non-negative fixnum; if any dimension of an array is zero, the array has no elements. It is permissible for a dimension to be zero, in which case the array has no elements, and any attempt to access an element is an error. However, other properties of the array, such as the dimensions themselves, may be used.

#### 15.1.1.2.1 Implementation Limits on Individual Array Dimensions

An *implementation* may impose a limit on *dimensions* of an *array*, but there is a minimum requirement on that limit. See the *variable* array-dimension-limit.

#### 15.1.1.3 Array Rank

An array can have any number of dimensions (including zero). The number of dimensions is called the rank.

If the rank of an *array* is zero then the *array* is said to have no *dimensions*, and the product of the dimensions (see **array-total-size**) is then 1; a zero-rank *array* therefore has a single element.

#### 15.1.1.3.1 Vectors

An array of rank one (i.e., a one-dimensional array) is called a **vector**.

## 15.1.1.3.1.1 Fill Pointers

A fill pointer is a non-negative integer no larger than the total number of elements in a vector. Not all vectors have fill pointers. See the functions make-array and adjust-array.

An *element* of a *vector* is said to be **active** if it has an index that is greater than or equal to zero, but less than the *fill pointer* (if any). For an *array* that has no *fill pointer*, all *elements* are considered *active*.

Only vectors may have fill pointers; multidimensional arrays may not. A multidimensional array that is displaced to a vector that has a fill pointer can be created.

#### 15.1.1.3.2 Multidimensional Arrays

#### 15.1.1.3.2.1 Storage Layout for Multidimensional Arrays

Multidimensional *arrays* store their components in row-major order; that is, internally a multidimensional *array* is stored as a one-dimensional *array*, with the multidimensional index sets ordered lexicographically, last index varying fastest.

#### 15.1.1.3.2.2 Implementation Limits on Array Rank

An *implementation* may impose a limit on the *rank* of an *array*, but there is a minimum requirement on that limit. See the *variable* array-rank-limit.

## 15.1.2 Specialized Arrays

An array can be a general array, meaning each element may be any object, or it may be a specialized array, meaning that each element must be of a restricted type.

The phrasing "an array specialized to type  $\langle\langle type \rangle\rangle$ " is sometimes used to emphasize the element type of an array. This phrasing is tolerated even when the  $\langle\langle type \rangle\rangle$  is  $\mathbf{t}$ , even though an array specialized to type t is a general array, not a specialized array.

Figure 15–1 lists some *defined names* that are applicable to *array* creation, *access*, and information operations.

adjust-array adjustable-array-p aref array-dimension array-dimension-limit array-dimensions	array-has-fill-pointer-p array-in-bounds-p array-rank array-rank-limit array-row-major-index array-total-size	make-array svref upgraded-array-element-type upgraded-complex-part-type vector vector-pop
array-dimension-limit	array-row-major-index	vector
array-displacement array-element-type	array-total-size-limit fill-pointer	vector-push vector-push-extend

Figure 15-1. General Purpose Array-Related Defined Names

#### 15.1.2.1 Array Upgrading

The **upgraded array element type** of a type  $T_1$  is a type  $T_2$  that is a supertype of  $T_1$  and that is used instead of  $T_1$  whenever  $T_1$  is used as an array element type for object creation or type discrimination.

During creation of an array, the element type that was requested is called the **expressed array element type**. The upgraded array element type of the expressed array element type becomes the **actual array element type** of the array that is created.

Type upgrading implies a movement upwards in the type hierarchy lattice. A type is always a subtype of its upgraded array element type. Also, if a type  $T_x$  is a subtype of another type  $T_y$ , then the upgraded array element type of  $T_x$  must be a subtype of the upgraded array element type of  $T_y$ . Two disjoint types can be upgraded to the same type.

The upgraded array element type  $T_2$  of a type  $T_1$  is a function only of  $T_1$  itself; that is, it is independent of any other property of the array for which  $T_2$  will be used, such as rank, adjustability, fill pointers, or displacement. The function upgraded-array-element-type can be used by conforming programs to predict how the implementation will upgrade a given type.

## 15.1.2.2 Required Kinds of Specialized Arrays

Vectors whose elements are restricted to type character or a subtype of character are called strings. Strings are of type string. Figure 15–2 lists some defined names related to strings.

Strings are specialized arrays and might logically have been included in this chapter. However, for purposes of readability most information about strings does not appear in this chapter; see instead Chapter 16 (Strings).

char	string-equal	string-upcase
make-string	string-greaterp	string/=
nstring-capitalize	string-left-trim	string<
nstring-downcase	string-lessp	string<=
nstring-upcase	string-not-equal	string=
schar	string-not-greaterp	string>
string string-capitalize string-downcase	string-not-lessp string-right-trim string-trim	string>=

Figure 15-2. Operators that Manipulate Strings

Vectors whose elements are restricted to type bit are called bit vectors. Bit vectors are of type bit-vector. Figure 15–3 lists some defined names for operations on bit arrays.

bit	bit-ior	bit-orc2	
bit-and	bit-nand	bit-xor	
bit-andc1	bit-nor	${f sbit}$	
bit-andc2	bit-not		
bit-eqv	bit-orc1		

Figure 15–3. Operators that Manipulate Bit Arrays

array System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

array, t

## **Description:**

An array contains objects arranged according to a Cartesian coordinate system. An array provides mappings from a set of fixnums  $\{i_0, i_1, \ldots, i_{r-1}\}$  to corresponding elements of the array, where  $0 \le i_i < d_i$ , r is the rank of the array, and  $d_i$  is the size of dimension j of the array.

When an array is created, the program requesting its creation may declare that all elements are of a particular type, called the expressed array element type. The implementation is permitted to upgrade this type in order to produce the actual array element type, which is the element type for the array is actually specialized. See the function upgraded-array-element-type.

## Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Specializing.

## Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(array [{element-type | \*} [dimension-spec]])

dimension-spec::=rank | \* | ({dimension | \*}\*)

## Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

dimension—a valid array dimension.

element-type—a type specifier.

rank—a non-negative fixnum.

### Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the set of arrays whose element type, rank, and dimensions match any given element-type, rank, and dimensions. Specifically:

If *element-type* is the *symbol* \*, *arrays* are not excluded on the basis of their *element type*. Otherwise, only those *arrays* are included whose *actual array element type* is the result of *upgrading element-type*; see Section 15.1.2.1 (Array Upgrading).

If the dimension-spec is a rank, the set includes only those arrays having that rank. If the dimension-spec is a list of dimensions, the set includes only those arrays having a rank given by the length of the dimensions, and having the indicated dimensions; in this case, \* matches any value for the corresponding dimension. If the dimension-spec is the symbol \*, the set is not restricted on the basis of rank or dimension.

#### See Also:

\*print-array\*, aref, make-array, vector, Section 2.4.8.12 (Sharpsign A), Section 22.1.3.8 (Printing Other Arrays)

#### Notes:

Note that the type (array t) is a proper subtype of the type (array \*). The reason is that the type (array t) is the set of arrays that can hold any object (the elements are of type t, which includes all objects). On the other hand, the type (array \*) is the set of all arrays whatsoever, including for example arrays that can hold only characters. The type (array character) is not a subtype of the type (array t); the two sets are disjoint because the type (array character) is not the set of all arrays that can hold characters, but rather the set of arrays that are specialized to hold precisely characters and no other objects.

## simple-array

Type

#### **Supertypes:**

simple-array, array, t

## **Description:**

The type of an array that is not displaced to another array, has no fill pointer, and is not expressly adjustable is a subtype of type simple-array. The concept of a simple array exists to allow the implementation to use a specialized representation and to allow the user to declare that certain values will always be simple arrays.

The types simple-vector, simple-string, and simple-bit-vector are disjoint subtypes of type simple-array, for they respectively mean (simple-array t (\*)), the union of all (simple-array c (\*)) for any c being a subtype of type character, and (simple-array bit (\*)).

## Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Specializing.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(simple-array [{element-type | \*} [dimension-spec]])

```
dimension-spec::=rank | * | ({dimension | *}*)
```

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

dimension—a valid array dimension.

element-type—a type specifier.

rank—a non-negative fixnum.

## Compound Type Specifier Description:

This compound type specifier is treated exactly as the corresponding compound type specifier for type array would be treated, except that the set is further constrained to include only simple arrays.

#### Notes:

It is *implementation-dependent* whether *displaced arrays*, vectors with fill pointers, or arrays that are actually adjustable are simple arrays.

(simple-array \*) refers to all *simple arrays* regardless of element type, (simple-array type-specifier) refers only to those *simple arrays* that can result from giving type-specifier as the :element-type argument to make-array.

vector System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

vector, array, sequence, t

## **Description:**

Any one-dimensional array is a vector.

The type vector is a subtype of type array; for all types x, (vector x) is the same as (array x (\*)).

The type (vector t), the type string, and the type bit-vector are disjoint subtypes of type vector.

#### Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Specializing.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(vector [{element-type | \*} [{size | \*}]])

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

size—a non-negative fixnum.

element-type—a type specifier.

## Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the set of specialized *vectors* whose *element type* and *dimension* match the specified values. Specifically:

If element-type is the symbol \*, vectors are not excluded on the basis of their element type. Otherwise, only those vectors are included whose actual array element type is the result of upgrading element-type; see Section 15.1.2.1 (Array Upgrading).

If a *size* is specified, the set includes only those *vectors* whose only *dimension* is *size*. If the *symbol* \* is specified instead of a *size*, the set is not restricted on the basis of *dimension*.

#### See Also:

Section 15.1.2.2 (Required Kinds of Specialized Arrays), Section 2.4.8.3 (Sharpsign Left-Parenthesis), Section 22.1.3.7 (Printing Other Vectors), Section 2.4.8.12 (Sharpsign A)

#### **Notes:**

The type (vector e s) is equivalent to the type (array e (s)).

The type (vector bit) has the name bit-vector.

The union of all types (vector C), where C is any subtype of character, has the name string.

(vector \*) refers to all *vectors* regardless of element type, (vector *type-specifier*) refers only to those *vectors* that can result from giving *type-specifier* as the :element-type argument to make-array.

## simple-vector

Type

## Supertypes:

simple-vector, vector, simple-array, array, sequence, t

#### **Description:**

The type of a vector that is not displaced to another array, has no fill pointer, is not expressly adjustable and is able to hold elements of any type is a subtype of type simple-vector.

The type simple-vector is a subtype of type vector, and is a subtype of type (vector t).

### Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Specializing.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(simple-vector [size])

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

size—a non-negative fixnum, or the symbol \*. The default is the symbol \*.

#### Compound Type Specifier Description:

This is the same as (simple-array t (size)).

bit-vector System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

bit-vector, vector, array, sequence, t

### **Description:**

A bit vector is a vector the element type of which is bit.

The type bit-vector is a subtype of type vector, for bit-vector means (vector bit).

## Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

## Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(bit-vector [size])

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

size—a non-negative fixnum, or the symbol \*.

## Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the same type as the type (array bit (size)); that is, the set of bit vectors of size size.

#### See Also:

Section 2.4.8.4 (Sharpsign Asterisk), Section 22.1.3.6 (Printing Bit Vectors), Section 15.1.2.2 (Required Kinds of Specialized Arrays)

## simple-bit-vector

Type

#### **Supertypes:**

simple-bit-vector, bit-vector, vector, simple-array, array, sequence, t

#### **Description:**

The type of a bit vector that is not displaced to another array, has no fill pointer, and is not expressly adjustable is a subtype of type simple-bit-vector.

## Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(simple-bit-vector [size])

## Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

size—a non-negative fixnum, or the symbol \*. The default is the symbol \*.

## Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the same type as the *type* (simple-array bit (size)); that is, the set of simple bit vectors of size size.

## make-array

Function

## Syntax:

make-array dimensions &key element-type
initial-element
initial-contents
adjustable
fill-pointer
displaced-to
displaced-index-offset

 $\rightarrow$  new-array

## **Arguments and Values:**

dimensions—a designator for a list of valid array dimensions.

element-type—a type specifier. The default is t.

initial-element—an object.

initial-contents—an object.

adjustable—a generalized boolean. The default is nil.

fill-pointer—a valid fill pointer for the array to be created, or t or nil. The default is nil.

displaced-to—an array or nil. The default is nil. This option must not be supplied if either initial-element or initial-contents is supplied.

displaced-index-offset—a valid array row-major index for displaced-to. The default is 0. This option must not be supplied unless a non-nil displaced-to is supplied.

new-array—an array.

## **Description:**

Creates and returns an array constructed of the most specialized type that can accommodate elements of type given by element-type. If dimensions is nil then a zero-dimensional array is created.

*Dimensions* represents the dimensionality of the new array.

element-type indicates the type of the elements intended to be stored in the new-array. The new-array can actually store any objects of the type which results from upgrading element-type; see Section 15.1.2.1 (Array Upgrading).

If initial-element is supplied, it is used to initialize each element of new-array. If initial-element is supplied, it must be of the type given by element-type. initial-element cannot be supplied if either the :initial-contents option is supplied or displaced-to is non-nil. If initial-element is not supplied, the consequences of later reading an uninitialized element of new-array are undefined unless either initial-contents is supplied or displaced-to is non-nil.

*initial-contents* is used to initialize the contents of array. For example:

initial-contents is composed of a nested structure of sequences. The numbers of levels in the structure must equal the rank of array. Each leaf of the nested structure must be of the type given by element-type. If array is zero-dimensional, then initial-contents specifies the single element. Otherwise, initial-contents must be a sequence whose length is equal to the first dimension; each element must be a nested structure for an array whose dimensions are the remaining dimensions, and so on. Initial-contents cannot be supplied if either initial-element is supplied or displaced-to is non-nil. If initial-contents is not supplied, the consequences of later reading an uninitialized element of new-array are undefined unless either initial-element is supplied or displaced-to is non-nil.

If adjustable is non-nil, the array is expressly adjustable (and so actually adjustable); otherwise, the array is not expressly adjustable (and it is implementation-dependent whether the array is actually adjustable).

If fill-pointer is non-nil, the array must be one-dimensional; that is, the array must be a vector. If fill-pointer is t, the length of the vector is used to initialize the fill pointer. If fill-pointer is an integer, it becomes the initial fill pointer for the vector.

If displaced-to is non-nil, make-array will create a displaced array and displaced-to is the target of that displaced array. In that case, the consequences are undefined if the actual array element type of displaced-to is not type equivalent to the actual array element type of the array being created. If displaced-to is nil, the array is not a displaced array.

The displaced-index-offset is made to be the index offset of the array. When an array A is given as the :displaced-to argument to make-array when creating array B, then array B is said to be

## make-array

displaced to array A. The total number of elements in an array, called the total size of the array, is calculated as the product of all the dimensions. It is required that the total size of A be no smaller than the sum of the total size of B plus the offset n supplied by the displaced-index-offset. The effect of displacing is that array B does not have any elements of its own, but instead maps accesses to itself into accesses to array A. The mapping treats both arrays as if they were one-dimensional by taking the elements in row-major order, and then maps an access to element k of array B to an access to element k+n of array A.

If make-array is called with adjustable, fill-pointer, and displaced-to each nil, then the result is a simple array. If make-array is called with one or more of adjustable, fill-pointer, or displaced-to being true, whether the resulting array is a simple array is implementation-dependent.

When an array A is given as the :displaced-to argument to make-array when creating array B, then array B is said to be displaced to array A. The total number of elements in an array, called the total size of the array, is calculated as the product of all the dimensions. The consequences are unspecified if the total size of A is smaller than the sum of the total size of B plus the offset n supplied by the displaced-index-offset. The effect of displacing is that array B does not have any elements of its own, but instead maps accesses to itself into accesses to array A. The mapping treats both arrays as if they were one-dimensional by taking the elements in row-major order, and then maps an access to element k of array B to an access to element k+n of array A.

```
(make-array 5) ;; Creates a one-dimensional array of five elements.
 (make-array '(3 4) :element-type '(mod 16)) ;; Creates a
                 ;;two-dimensional array, 3 by 4, with four-bit elements.
 (make-array 5 :element-type 'single-float) ;; Creates an array of single-floats.
 (make-array nil :initial-element nil) 
ightarrow #OANIL
 (make-array 4 :initial-element nil) 
ightarrow #(NIL NIL NIL NIL)
 (make-array '(2 4)
               :element-type '(unsigned-byte 2)
               :initial-contents '((0 1 2 3) (3 2 1 0)))
\rightarrow #2A((0 1 2 3) (3 2 1 0))
 (make-array 6
               :element-type 'character
               :initial-element #\a
               :fill-pointer 3) 
ightarrow "aaa"
The following is an example of making a displaced array.
 (setq a (make-array '(4 3)))
\rightarrow #<ARRAY 4x3 simple 32546632>
 (dotimes (i 4)
   (dotimes (j 3)
     (setf (aref a i j) (list i 'x j '= (* i j)))))

ightarrow NIL
```

```
(setq b (make-array 8 :displaced-to a
                             :displaced-index-offset 2))
\rightarrow #<ARRAY 8 indirect 32550757>
 (dotimes (i 8)
    (print (list i (aref b i))))
\triangleright (0 (0 X 2 = 0))
\triangleright (1 (1 X 0 = 0))
\triangleright (2 (1 X 1 = 1))
\triangleright (3 (1 X 2 = 2))
\triangleright (4 (2 X 0 = 0))
\triangleright (5 (2 X 1 = 2))
\triangleright (6 (2 X 2 = 4))
\triangleright (7 (3 X 0 = 0))

ightarrow NIL
The last example depends on the fact that arrays are, in effect, stored in row-major order.
 (setq a1 (make-array 50))
\rightarrow #<ARRAY 50 simple 32562043>
 (setq b1 (make-array 20 :displaced-to a1 :displaced-index-offset 10))
\rightarrow #<ARRAY 20 indirect 32563346>
 (length b1) \rightarrow 20
 (setq a2 (make-array 50 :fill-pointer 10))
\rightarrow #<ARRAY 50 fill-pointer 10 46100216>
 (setq b2 (make-array 20 :displaced-to a2 :displaced-index-offset 10))
\rightarrow #<ARRAY 20 indirect 46104010>
 (length a2) 
ightarrow 10
 (length b2) \rightarrow 20
 (setq a3 (make-array 50 :fill-pointer 10))
\rightarrow #<ARRAY 50 fill-pointer 10 46105663>
 (setq b3 (make-array 20 :displaced-to a3 :displaced-index-offset 10
                               :fill-pointer 5))
\rightarrow #<ARRAY 20 indirect, fill-pointer 5 46107432>
 (length a3) 
ightarrow 10
 (length b3) 
ightarrow 5
```

#### See Also:

 $adjustable-array-p, \ aref, \ array-element-type, \ array-rank-limit, \ array-dimension-limit, \ fill-pointer, \ upgraded-array-element-type$ 

#### Notes:

There is no specified way to create an *array* for which **adjustable-array-p** definitely returns *false*. There is no specified way to create an *array* that is not a *simple array*.

## adjust-array

## adjust-array

*Function* 

## Syntax:

adjust-array array new-dimensions &key element-type
initial-element
initial-contents
fill-pointer
displaced-to
displaced-index-offset

 $\rightarrow$  adjusted-array

### **Arguments and Values:**

array—an array.

new-dimensions—a valid array dimension or a list of valid array dimensions.

element-type—a type specifier.

*initial-element*—an *object*. *Initial-element* must not be supplied if either *initial-contents* or *displaced-to* is supplied.

initial-contents—an object. If array has rank greater than zero, then initial-contents is composed of nested sequences, the depth of which must equal the rank of array. Otherwise, array is zero-dimensional and initial-contents supplies the single element. initial-contents must not be supplied if either initial-element or displaced-to is given.

fill-pointer—a valid fill pointer for the array to be created, or t, or nil. The default is nil.

displaced-to—an array or nil. initial-elements and initial-contents must not be supplied if displaced-to is supplied.

displaced-index-offset—an object of type (fixnum 0 n) where n is (array-total-size displaced-to). displaced-index-offset may be supplied only if displaced-to is supplied.

adjusted-array—an array.

#### Description:

adjust-array changes the dimensions or elements of array. The result is an array of the same type and rank as array, that is either the modified array, or a newly created array to which array can be displaced, and that has the given new-dimensions.

New-dimensions specify the size of each dimension of array.

Element-type specifies the type of the elements of the resulting array. If element-type is supplied, the consequences are unspecified if the upgraded array element type of element-type is not the same as the actual array element type of array.

If *initial-contents* is supplied, it is treated as for **make-array**. In this case none of the original contents of *array* appears in the resulting *array*.

If fill-pointer is an integer, it becomes the fill pointer for the resulting array. If fill-pointer is the symbol t, it indicates that the size of the resulting array should be used as the fill pointer. If fill-pointer is nil, it indicates that the fill pointer should be left as it is.

If displaced-to non-nil, a displaced array is created. The resulting array shares its contents with the array given by displaced-to. The resulting array cannot contain more elements than the array it is displaced to. If displaced-to is not supplied or nil, the resulting array is not a displaced array. If array A is created displaced to array B and subsequently array B is given to adjust-array, array A will still be displaced to array B. Although array might be a displaced array, the resulting array is not a displaced array unless displaced-to is supplied and not nil. The interaction between adjust-array and displaced arrays is as follows given three arrays, A, B, and C:

A is not displaced before or after the call

```
(adjust-array A ...)
```

The dimensions of A are altered, and the contents rearranged as appropriate. Additional elements of A are taken from *initial-element*. The use of *initial-contents* causes all old contents to be discarded.

A is not displaced before, but is displaced to C after the call

```
(adjust-array A ... : displaced-to C)
```

None of the original contents of A appears in A afterwards; A now contains the contents of C, without any rearrangement of C.

A is displaced to B before the call, and is displaced to C after the call

```
(adjust-array A ... :displaced-to B)
(adjust-array A ... :displaced-to C)
```

B and C might be the same. The contents of B do not appear in A afterward unless such contents also happen to be in C If *displaced-index-offset* is not supplied in the **adjust-array** call, it defaults to zero; the old offset into B is not retained.

A is displaced to B before the call, but not displaced afterward.

```
(adjust-array A ... :displaced-to B)
(adjust-array A ... :displaced-to nil)
```

 $\tt A$  gets a new "data region," and contents of  $\tt B$  are copied into it as appropriate to maintain the existing old contents; additional elements of  $\tt A$  are taken from <code>initial-element</code> if supplied. However, the use of <code>initial-contents</code> causes all old contents to be discarded.

## adjust-array

If displaced-index-offset is supplied, it specifies the offset of the resulting array from the beginning of the array that it is displaced to. If displaced-index-offset is not supplied, the offset is 0. The size of the resulting array plus the offset value cannot exceed the size of the array that it is displaced to.

If only new-dimensions and an initial-element argument are supplied, those elements of array that are still in bounds appear in the resulting array. The elements of the resulting array that are not in the bounds of array are initialized to initial-element; if initial-element is not provided, the consequences of later reading any such new element of new-array before it has been initialized are undefined.

If *initial-contents* or *displaced-to* is supplied, then none of the original contents of *array* appears in the new *array*.

The consequences are unspecified if *array* is adjusted to a size smaller than its *fill pointer* without supplying the *fill-pointer* argument so that its *fill-pointer* is properly adjusted in the process.

If A is displaced to B, the consequences are unspecified if B is adjusted in such a way that it no longer has enough elements to satisfy A.

If adjust-array is applied to an array that is actually adjustable, the array returned is identical to array. If the array returned by adjust-array is distinct from array, then the argument array is unchanged.

Note that if an array A is displaced to another array B, and B is displaced to another array C, and B is altered by adjust-array, A must now refer to the adjust contents of B. This means that an implementation cannot collapse the chain to make A refer to C directly and forget that the chain of reference passes through B. However, caching techniques are permitted as long as they preserve the semantics specified here.

```
(array-dimensions beta) 
ightarrow (4 6)
 (aref beta 1 1) 
ightarrow 2
Suppose that the 4-by-4 array in m looks like this:
#2A(( alpha
                 beta
                            gamma
                                      delta )
    ( epsilon
                                      theta )
                 zeta
                            eta
    (iota
                 kappa
                           lambda
                                      mu
                                             )
    ( nu
                 хi
                            omicron
                                      рi
                                             ))
Then the result of
 (adjust-array m '(3 5) :initial-element 'baz)
is a 3-by-5 array with contents
#2A(( alpha
                                      delta
                                                 baz )
                 beta
                            gamma
    ( epsilon
                            eta
                                      theta
                                                 baz )
                 zeta
    (iota
                                                 baz ))
                 kappa
                            lambda
                                      mu
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of type error is signaled if fill-pointer is supplied and non-nil but array has no fill pointer.

#### See Also:

adjustable-array-p, make-array, array-dimension-limit, array-total-size-limit, array

## adjustable-array-p

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

```
adjustable-array-p array 	o generalized-boolean
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
array—an array.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

#### Description:

Returns true if and only if **adjust-array** could return a *value* which is *identical* to *array* when given that *array* as its first *argument*.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if its argument is not an array.

#### See Also:

adjust-array, make-array

aref

#### Syntax:

```
aref array &rest subscripts → element
(setf (aref array &rest subscripts) new-element)
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
array—an array.
subscripts—a list of valid array indices for the array.
element, new-element—an object.
```

## **Description:**

Accesses the array element specified by the subscripts. If no subscripts are supplied and array is zero rank, aref accesses the sole element of array.

aref ignores fill pointers. It is permissible to use aref to access any array element, whether active or not.

#### **Examples:**

If the variable foo names a 3-by-5 array, then the first index could be 0, 1, or 2, and then second index could be 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4. The array elements can be referred to by using the *function* aref; for example, (aref foo 2 1) refers to element (2, 1) of the array.

```
(aref (setq alpha (make-array 4)) 3) \rightarrow implementation-dependent (setf (aref alpha 3) 'sirens) \rightarrow SIRENS (aref alpha 3) \rightarrow SIRENS (aref (setq beta (make-array '(2 4) :element-type '(unsigned-byte 2) :initial-contents '((0 1 2 3) (3 2 1 0)))) 1 2) \rightarrow 1
```

```
(setq gamma '(0 2)) (apply #'aref beta gamma) \rightarrow 2 (setf (apply #'aref beta gamma) 3) \rightarrow 3 (apply #'aref beta gamma) \rightarrow 3 (aref beta 0 2) \rightarrow 3
```

#### See Also:

bit, char, elt, row-major-aref, svref, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology)

## array-dimension

Function

#### Syntax:

array-dimension array axis-number o dimension

## **Arguments and Values:**

array—an array.

axis-number—an integer greater than or equal to zero and less than the rank of the array.

dimension—a non-negative integer.

## Description:

array-dimension returns the axis-number dimension<sub>1</sub> of array. (Any fill pointer is ignored.)

#### **Examples:**

```
(array-dimension (make-array 4) 0) \rightarrow 4 (array-dimension (make-array '(2 3)) 1) \rightarrow 3
```

#### Affected By:

None.

#### See Also:

array-dimensions, length

#### **Notes:**

 $(array-dimension array n) \equiv (nth n (array-dimensions array))$ 

## array-dimensions

Function

## **Syntax:**

array-dimensions array  $\rightarrow$  dimensions

## Arguments and Values:

```
array—an array.
```

dimensions—a list of integers.

## Description:

Returns a *list* of the *dimensions* of *array*. (If *array* is a *vector* with a *fill pointer*, that *fill pointer* is ignored.)

### **Examples:**

```
(array-dimensions (make-array 4)) \rightarrow (4) (array-dimensions (make-array '(2 3))) \rightarrow (2 3) (array-dimensions (make-array 4 :fill-pointer 2)) \rightarrow (4)
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if its argument is not an array.

#### See Also:

array-dimension

## array-element-type

**Function** 

## Syntax:

array-element-type  $array \rightarrow typespec$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
array—an array.
```

typespec—a type specifier.

## **Description:**

Returns a type specifier which represents the actual array element type of the array, which is the set of objects that such an array can hold. (Because of array upgrading, this type specifier can in some cases denote a supertype of the expressed array element type of the array.)

## **Examples:**

```
(array-element-type (make-array 4)) → T
(array-element-type (make-array 12 :element-type '(unsigned-byte 8)))
→ implementation-dependent
(array-element-type (make-array 12 :element-type '(unsigned-byte 5)))
→ implementation-dependent
(array-element-type (make-array 5 :element-type '(mod 5)))
could be (mod 5), (mod 8), fixnum, t, or any other type of which (mod 5) is a subtype.
```

## Affected By:

The implementation.

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type **type-error** if its argument is not an array.

#### See Also:

array, make-array, subtypep, upgraded-array-element-type

## array-has-fill-pointer-p

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

```
array-has-fill-pointer-p array 	o generalized-boolean
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
array—an array.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

#### Description:

Returns true if array has a fill pointer; otherwise returns false.

```
(array-has-fill-pointer-p (make-array 4)) \rightarrow implementation-dependent (array-has-fill-pointer-p (make-array '(2 3))) \rightarrow false (array-has-fill-pointer-p (make-array 8 :fill-pointer 2 :initial-element 'filler)) \rightarrow true
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if its argument is not an array.

#### See Also:

make-array, fill-pointer

### Notes:

Since arrays of rank other than one cannot have a fill pointer, array-has-fill-pointer-p always returns nil when its argument is such an array.

## array-displacement

*Function* 

### Syntax:

 $\mathbf{array\text{-}displacement} \ \textit{array} \ \rightarrow \textit{displaced-to, displaced-index-offset}$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
array—an array.

displaced-to—an array or nil.

displaced-index-offset—a non-negative fixnum.
```

## **Description:**

If the array is a displaced array, returns the values of the :displaced-to and :displaced-index-offset options for the array (see the functions make-array and adjust-array). If the array is not a displaced array, nil and 0 are returned.

If array-displacement is called on an array for which a non-nil object was provided as the :displaced-to argument to make-array or adjust-array, it must return that object as its first value. It is implementation-dependent whether array-displacement returns a non-nil primary value for any other array.

```
(setq a1 (make-array 5)) \rightarrow #<ARRAY 5 simple 46115576> (setq a2 (make-array 4 :displaced-to a1 :displaced-index-offset 1)) \rightarrow #<ARRAY 4 indirect 46117134> (array-displacement a2) \rightarrow #<ARRAY 5 simple 46115576>, 1 (setq a3 (make-array 2 :displaced-to a2 :displaced-index-offset 2)) \rightarrow #<ARRAY 2 indirect 46122527>
```

```
(array-displacement a3) \rightarrow #<ARRAY 4 indirect 46117134>, 2
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if array is not an array.

#### See Also:

make-array

## array-in-bounds-p

Function

## Syntax:

array-in-bounds-p array &rest subscripts o generalized-boolean

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
array—an array.
subscripts—a list of integers of length equal to the rank of the array.
generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

## **Description:**

Returns *true* if the *subscripts* are all in bounds for *array*; otherwise returns *false*. (If *array* is a *vector* with a *fill pointer*, that *fill pointer* is ignored.)

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq a (make-array '(7 11) :element-type 'string-char)) (array-in-bounds-p a 0 0) \rightarrow true (array-in-bounds-p a 6 10) \rightarrow true (array-in-bounds-p a 0 -1) \rightarrow false (array-in-bounds-p a 0 11) \rightarrow false (array-in-bounds-p a 7 0) \rightarrow false
```

#### See Also:

array-dimensions

#### Notes:

## array-rank

Function

## **Syntax:**

```
array-rank array \rightarrow rank
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
array—an array.
rank—a non-negative integer.
```

## Description:

Returns the number of dimensions of array.

#### **Examples:**

```
(array-rank (make-array '())) \rightarrow 0 (array-rank (make-array 4)) \rightarrow 1 (array-rank (make-array '(4))) \rightarrow 1 (array-rank (make-array '(2 3))) \rightarrow 2
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if its argument is not an array.

## See Also:

array-rank-limit, make-array

## array-row-major-index

**Function** 

## **Syntax:**

 ${\tt array\text{-}row\text{-}major\text{-}index} \ \textit{array} \ \& {\tt rest} \ \textit{subscripts} \quad \rightarrow \textit{index}$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
array—an array.
subscripts—a list of valid array indices for the array.
index—a valid array row-major index for the array.
```

## **Description:**

Computes the position according to the row-major ordering of *array* for the element that is specified by *subscripts*, and returns the offset of the element in the computed position from the beginning of *array*.

For a one-dimensional *array*, the result of **array-row-major-index** equals *subscript*.

array-row-major-index ignores fill pointers.

### **Examples:**

```
(setq a (make-array '(4 7) :element-type '(unsigned-byte 8))) (array-row-major-index a 1 2) \rightarrow 9 (array-row-major-index (make-array '(2 3 4) :element-type '(unsigned-byte 8) :displaced-to a :displaced-index-offset 4) 0 2 1) \rightarrow 9
```

#### Notes:

A possible definition of array-row-major-index, with no error-checking, is

## array-total-size

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

```
array-total-size array \rightarrow size
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
array—an array.
size—a non-negative integer.
```

## Description:

Returns the array total size of the array.

## **Examples:**

```
(array-total-size (make-array 4)) \rightarrow 4 (array-total-size (make-array 4 :fill-pointer 2)) \rightarrow 4 (array-total-size (make-array 0)) \rightarrow 0 (array-total-size (make-array '(4 2))) \rightarrow 8 (array-total-size (make-array '(4 0))) \rightarrow 0 (array-total-size (make-array '())) \rightarrow 1
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type **type-error** if its argument is not an array.

#### See Also:

make-array, array-dimensions

#### **Notes:**

If the array is a vector with a fill pointer, the fill pointer is ignored when calculating the array total size.

Since the product of no arguments is one, the array total size of a zero-dimensional array is one.

arrayp

### Syntax:

```
\mathbf{arrayp} \ \mathit{object} \ \ \rightarrow \mathit{generalized-boolean}
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type array; otherwise, returns false.

```
(arrayp (make-array '(2 3 4) :adjustable t)) \to true (arrayp (make-array 6)) \to true (arrayp #*1011) \to true
```

```
(arrayp "hi") \rightarrow true (arrayp 'hi) \rightarrow false (arrayp 12) \rightarrow false
```

#### See Also:

typep

#### Notes:

```
(arrayp object) ≡ (typep object 'array)
```

## fill-pointer

Accessor

## **Syntax:**

```
fill-pointer vector \rightarrow fill-pointer (setf (fill-pointer vector) new-fill-pointer)
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

vector—a vector with a fill pointer.

fill-pointer, new-fill-pointer—a valid fill pointer for the vector.

#### **Description:**

Accesses the fill pointer of vector.

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq a (make-array 8 :fill-pointer 4)) \rightarrow #(NIL NIL NIL NIL) (fill-pointer a) \rightarrow 4 (dotimes (i (length a)) (setf (aref a i) (* i i))) \rightarrow NIL a \rightarrow #(0 1 4 9) (setf (fill-pointer a) 3) \rightarrow 3 (fill-pointer a) \rightarrow 3 a \rightarrow #(0 1 4) (setf (fill-pointer a) 8) \rightarrow 8 a \rightarrow #(0 1 4 9 NIL NIL NIL NIL)
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if vector is not a vector with a fill pointer.

### See Also:

make-array, length

#### Notes:

There is no operator that will remove a vector's fill pointer.

## row-major-aref

Accessor

## Syntax:

```
row-major-aref array index → element (setf (row-major-aref array index) new-element)
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
array—an array.
index—a valid array row-major index for the array.
element, new-element—an object.
```

## Description:

Considers *array* as a *vector* by viewing its *elements* in row-major order, and returns the *element* of that *vector* which is referred to by the given *index*.

row-major-aref is valid for use with setf.

## See Also:

aref, array-row-major-index

#### Notes:

## upgraded-array-element-type

Function

#### Syntax:

upgraded-array-element-type typespec & optional environment  $\rightarrow$  upgraded-typespec

#### Arguments and Values:

typespec—a type specifier.

environment—an environment object. The default is nil, denoting the null lexical environment and the current global environment.

upgraded-typespec—a type specifier.

#### **Description:**

Returns the *element type* of the most specialized array representation capable of holding items of the type denoted by typespec.

The typespec is a subtype of (and possibly type equivalent to) the upgraded-typespec.

If typespec is bit, the result is type equivalent to bit. If typespec is base-char, the result is type equivalent to base-char. If typespec is character, the result is type equivalent to character.

The purpose of **upgraded-array-element-type** is to reveal how an implementation does its *upgrading*.

The environment is used to expand any derived type specifiers that are mentioned in the typespec.

#### See Also:

array-element-type, make-array

#### Notes:

Except for storage allocation consequences and dealing correctly with the optional *environment* argument, **upgraded-array-element-type** could be defined as:

```
(defun upgraded-array-element-type (type &optional environment)
  (array-element-type (make-array 0 :element-type type)))
```

## array-dimension-limit

Constant Variable

#### Constant Value:

A positive fixnum, the exact magnitude of which is implementation-dependent, but which is not less than 1024.

#### Description:

The upper exclusive bound on each individual dimension of an array.

#### See Also:

make-array

## array-rank-limit

Constant Variable

#### Constant Value:

A positive fixnum, the exact magnitude of which is implementation-dependent, but which is not less than 8.

#### **Description:**

The upper exclusive bound on the rank of an array.

#### See Also:

make-array

## array-total-size-limit

Constant Variable

#### Constant Value:

A positive fixnum, the exact magnitude of which is implementation-dependent, but which is not less than 1024.

#### Description:

The upper exclusive bound on the array total size of an array.

The actual limit on the array total size imposed by the implementation might vary according the element type of the array; in this case, the value of array-total-size-limit will be the smallest of these possible limits.

#### See Also:

make-array, array-element-type

## simple-vector-p

Function

#### Syntax:

simple-vector-p object  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type simple-vector; otherwise, returns false..

#### **Examples:**

```
(simple-vector-p (make-array 6)) \to true (simple-vector-p "aaaaaa") \to false (simple-vector-p (make-array 6 :fill-pointer t)) \to false
```

#### See Also:

simple-vector

#### **Notes:**

```
(simple-vector-p \ object) \equiv (typep \ object \ 'simple-vector)
```

svref

#### Syntax:

```
svref \ simple-vector \ index \rightarrow element (setf (svref simple-vector \ index) new-element)
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
simple-vector—a simple vector.
```

index—a valid array index for the simple-vector.

element, new-element—an object (whose type is a subtype of the array element type of the simple-vector).

#### **Description:**

Accesses the element of simple-vector specified by index.

#### **Examples:**

```
(simple-vector-p (setq v (vector 1 2 'sirens))) \rightarrow true (svref v 0) \rightarrow 1 (svref v 2) \rightarrow SIRENS (setf (svref v 1) 'newcomer) \rightarrow NEWCOMER v \rightarrow #(1 NEWCOMER SIRENS)
```

#### See Also:

aref, sbit, schar, vector, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology)

#### **Notes:**

svref is identical to aref except that it requires its first argument to be a *simple vector*.

```
(svref v i) \equiv (aref (the simple-vector v) i)
```

vector

#### Syntax:

vector &rest objects → vector

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
vector—a vector of type (vector t *).
```

#### **Description:**

Creates a fresh simple general vector whose size corresponds to the number of objects.

The *vector* is initialized to contain the *objects*.

#### **Examples:**

```
(arrayp (setq v (vector 1 2 'sirens))) \to true (vectorp v) \to true (simple-vector-p v) \to true (length v) \to 3
```

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#### See Also:

make-array

#### Notes:

```
vector is analogous to list.
```

```
 (\text{vector } \mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{a}_n) \\ \equiv (\text{make-array (list } n) : \text{element-type t} \\ : \text{initial-contents} \\ (\text{list } \mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{a}_n))
```

## vector-pop

Function

#### **Syntax:**

```
vector	ext{-}pop \ \textit{vector} \ 	o \ \textit{element}
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

vector—a vector with a fill pointer.

#### Description:

Decreases the  $fill\ pointer$  of vector by one, and retrieves the element of vector that is designated by the new  $fill\ pointer$ .

#### **Examples:**

#### Side Effects:

The *fill pointer* is decreased by one.

#### Affected By:

The value of the fill pointer.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of type type-error is signaled if vector does not have a fill pointer.

If the *fill pointer* is zero, **vector-pop** signals an error of *type* **error**.

#### See Also:

vector-push, vector-push-extend, fill-pointer

## vector-push, vector-push-extend

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

vector-push new-element  $vector \rightarrow new$ -index-p

 ${f vector-push-extend}$  new-element vector &optional extension o new-index

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
new-element—an object.
```

vector—a vector with a fill pointer.

extension—a positive integer. The default is implementation-dependent.

new-index-p—a valid array index for vector, or nil.

new-index—a valid array index for vector.

#### **Description:**

**vector-push** and **vector-push-extend** store *new-element* in *vector*. **vector-push** attempts to store *new-element* in the element of *vector* designated by the *fill pointer*, and to increase the *fill pointer* by one. If the (>= (fill-pointer *vector*) (array-dimension *vector* 0)), neither *vector* nor its *fill pointer* are affected. Otherwise, the store and increment take place and **vector-push** returns the former value of the *fill pointer* which is one less than the one it leaves in *vector*.

**vector-push-extend** is just like **vector-push** except that if the *fill pointer* gets too large, *vector* is extended using **adjust-array** so that it can contain more elements. *Extension* is the minimum number of elements to be added to *vector* if it must be extended.

vector-push and vector-push-extend return the index of new-element in vector. If (>= (fill-pointer vector) (array-dimension vector 0)), vector-push returns nil.

#### **Examples:**

```
\begin{tabular}{ll} ::initial-element 'first-one))) $\to 2$ \\ (fill-pointer fa) $\to 3$ \\ (eq (aref fa 2) fable) $\to true$ \\ (vector-push-extend $\sharp X$ \\ & (setq aa & (make-array 5 & :element-type 'character :adjustable t :fill-pointer 3))) $\to 3$ \\ (fill-pointer aa) $\to 4$ \\ (vector-push-extend $\sharp Y$ aa $4$) $\to 4$ \\ (array-total-size aa) $\to at$ least 5 \\ (vector-push-extend $\sharp X$ aa $4$) $\to 5$ \\ (array-total-size aa) $\to 9$ ; (or more) \\ \end{tabular}
```

#### Affected By:

The value of the fill pointer.

How vector was created.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of *type* **error** is signaled by **vector-push-extend** if it tries to extend *vector* and *vector* is not *actually adjustable*.

An error of type error is signaled if vector does not have a fill pointer.

#### See Also:

adjustable-array-p, fill-pointer, vector-pop

vectorp

#### Syntax:

vectorp object → generalized-boolean

#### **Arguments and Values:**

object—an object.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type vector; otherwise, returns false.

#### **Examples:**

```
(vectorp "aaaaaa") \rightarrow true (vectorp (make-array 6 :fill-pointer t)) \rightarrow true (vectorp (make-array '(2 3 4))) \rightarrow false (vectorp #*11) \rightarrow true (vectorp #b11) \rightarrow false
```

#### Notes:

```
(vectorp \ object) \equiv (typep \ object \ `vector)
```

bit, sbit

Accessor

#### Syntax:

```
bit bit-array &rest subscripts \rightarrow bit
sbit bit-array &rest subscripts \rightarrow bit
(setf (bit bit-array &rest subscripts) new-bit)
(setf (sbit bit-array &rest subscripts) new-bit)
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
bit-array—for bit, a bit array; for sbit, a simple bit array.

subscripts—a list of valid array indices for the bit-array.

bit—a bit.
```

#### **Description:**

bit and sbit access the bit-array element specified by subscripts.

These functions ignore the fill pointer when accessing elements.

#### **Examples:**

```
(bit (setq ba (make-array 8 : element-type \ 'bit \\ : initial-element \ 1)) 3) \rightarrow 1 (setf (bit ba 3) 0) \rightarrow 0 (bit ba 3) \rightarrow 0 (sbit ba 5) \rightarrow 1 (setf (sbit ba 5) 1 1
```

(sbit ba 5) ightarrow 1

#### See Also:

aref, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology)

#### Notes:

bit and sbit are like aref except that they require arrays to be a bit array and a simple bit array, respectively.

bit and sbit, unlike char and schar, allow the first argument to be an array of any rank.

# bit-and, bit-andc1, bit-andc2, bit-eqv, bit-ior, bit-nand, bit-nor, bit-not, bit-orc1, bit-orc2, bit-xor

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

```
bit-and bit-array1 bit-array2 & optional opt-arg
                                                           \rightarrow resulting-bit-array
bit-andc1 bit-array1 bit-array2 & optional opt-arg \rightarrow resulting-bit-array
bit-andc2 bit-array1 bit-array2 &optional opt-arg → resulting-bit-array
                                                           \rightarrow resulting-bit-array
bit-eqv bit-array1 bit-array2 &optional opt-arg
bit-ior bit-array1 bit-array2 &optional opt-arg
                                                           \rightarrow resulting-bit-array
bit-nand bit-array1 bit-array2 & optional opt-arg
                                                           \rightarrow resulting-bit-array
bit-nor bit-array1 bit-array2 &optional opt-arg
                                                           \rightarrow resulting-bit-array
bit-orc1 bit-array1 bit-array2 & optional opt-arg
                                                           \rightarrow resulting-bit-array
bit-orc2 bit-array1 bit-array2 & optional opt-arg
                                                           \rightarrow resulting-bit-array
bit-xor bit-array1 bit-array2 & optional opt-arg
                                                           \rightarrow resulting-bit-array
```

bit-not bit-array &optional opt-arg → resulting-bit-array

#### **Arguments and Values:**

bit-array, bit-array1, bit-array2—a bit array.

Opt-arg—a bit array, or t, or nil. The default is nil.

Bit-array1, bit-array2, and opt-arg (if an array) must all be of the same rank and dimensions.

resulting-bit-array—a bit array.

#### Description:

These functions perform bit-wise logical operations on *bit-array1* and *bit-array2* and return an *array* of matching *rank* and *dimensions*, such that any given bit of the result is produced by operating on corresponding bits from each of the arguments.

In the case of **bit-not**, an array of rank and dimensions matching bit-array is returned that contains a copy of bit-array with all the bits inverted.

If opt-arg is of type (array bit) the contents of the result are destructively placed into opt-arg. If opt-arg is the symbol t, bit-array or bit-array1 is replaced with the result; if opt-arg is nil or omitted, a new array is created to contain the result.

Figure 15–4 indicates the logical operation performed by each of the functions.

Function	Operation
bit-and	and
bit-eqv	equivalence (exclusive nor)
bit-not	complement
bit-ior	inclusive or
bit-xor	exclusive or
bit-nand	complement of bit-array1 and bit-array2
bit-nor	complement of bit-array1 or bit-array2
${f bit-andc1}$	and complement of bit-array1 with bit-array2
bit-andc2	and bit-array1 with complement of bit-array2
${f bit-orc1}$	or complement of bit-array1 with bit-array2
${f bit-orc2}$	or bit-array1 with complement of bit-array2

Figure 15-4. Bit-wise Logical Operations on Bit Arrays

#### **Examples:**

```
(bit-and (setq ba #*11101010) #*01101011) \rightarrow #*01101010 (bit-and #*1100 #*1010) \rightarrow #*1000 (bit-andc1 #*1100 #*1010) \rightarrow #*0010 (setq rba (bit-andc2 ba #*00110011 t)) \rightarrow #*11001000 (eq rba ba) \rightarrow true (bit-not (setq ba #*11101010)) \rightarrow #*00010101 (setq rba (bit-not ba (setq tba (make-array 8 :element-type 'bit)))) \rightarrow #*00010101 (equal rba tba) \rightarrow true (bit-xor #*1100 #*1010) \rightarrow #*0110
```

#### See Also:

lognot, logand

## bit-vector-p

*Function* 

#### **Syntax:**

 $\mathbf{bit\text{-}vector\text{-}p}\ \textit{object}\quad \rightarrow \textit{generalized-boolean}$ 

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### Description:

Returns true if object is of type bit-vector; otherwise, returns false.

#### **Examples:**

```
(bit-vector-p (make-array 6 : \texttt{element-type 'bit} \\ : \texttt{fill-pointer t)}) \ \to \ true (bit-vector-p #*) \to \ true (bit-vector-p (make-array 6)) \to \ false
```

#### See Also:

typep

#### **Notes:**

(bit-vector-p object) ≡ (typep object 'bit-vector)

## simple-bit-vector-p

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

simple-bit-vector-p object  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type simple-bit-vector; otherwise, returns false.

## simple-bit-vector-p

#### Examples:

```
(simple-bit-vector-p (make-array 6)) \to false (simple-bit-vector-p #*) \to true
```

See Also:

simple-vector-p

Notes:

 $(simple-bit-vector-p\ object) \equiv (typep\ object\ `simple-bit-vector)$ 

## Programming Language—Common Lisp

16. Strings

## 16.1 String Concepts

#### 16.1.1 Implications of Strings Being Arrays

Since all *strings* are *arrays*, all rules which apply generally to *arrays* also apply to *strings*. See Section 15.1 (Array Concepts).

For example, *strings* can have *fill pointers*, and *strings* are also subject to the rules of *element type upgrading* that apply to *arrays*.

#### 16.1.2 Subtypes of STRING

All functions that operate on *strings* will operate on *subtypes* of *string* as well.

However, the consequences are undefined if a *character* is inserted into a *string* for which the *element type* of the *string* does not include that *character*.

string System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

string, vector, array, sequence, t

#### **Description:**

A string is a specialized vector whose elements are of type character or a subtype of type character. When used as a type specifier for object creation, string means (vector character).

#### Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(string [size])

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

size—a non-negative fixnum, or the symbol \*.

#### Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the union of all types (array c (size)) for all subtypes c of character; that is, the set of strings of size size.

#### See Also:

Section 16.1 (String Concepts), Section 2.4.5 (Double-Quote), Section 22.1.3.4 (Printing Strings)

## base-string

Type

#### Supertypes:

base-string, string, vector, array, sequence, t

#### Description:

The type base-string is equivalent to (vector base-char). The base string representation is the most efficient string representation that can hold an arbitrary sequence of standard characters.

#### Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(base-string [size])

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

size—a non-negative fixnum, or the symbol \*.

#### Compound Type Specifier Description:

This is equivalent to the type (vector base-char size); that is, the set of base strings of size size.

## simple-string

Type

#### **Supertypes:**

simple-string, string, vector, simple-array, array, sequence, t

#### **Description:**

A *simple string* is a specialized one-dimensional *simple array* whose *elements* are of *type* **character** or a *subtype* of *type* **character**. When used as a *type specifier* for object creation, **simple-string** means (simple-array character (*size*)).

#### Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(simple-string [size])

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

size—a non-negative fixnum, or the symbol \*.

#### Compound Type Specifier Description:

This denotes the union of all types (simple-array c (size)) for all subtypes c of character; that is, the set of simple strings of size size.

## simple-base-string

Type

#### **Supertypes:**

simple-base-string, base-string, simple-string, string, vector, simple-array, array, sequence, t

#### **Description:**

The type simple-base-string is equivalent to (simple-array base-char (\*)).

#### Compound Type Specifier Kind:

Abbreviating.

#### Compound Type Specifier Syntax:

(simple-base-string [size])

#### Compound Type Specifier Arguments:

size—a non-negative fixnum, or the symbol \*.

#### Compound Type Specifier Description:

This is equivalent to the type (simple-array base-char (size)); that is, the set of simple base strings of size size.

## simple-string-p

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

simple-string-p object  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### Description:

Returns true if object is of type simple-string; otherwise, returns false.

#### **Examples:**

```
(simple-string-p "aaaaaa") \rightarrow true
(simple-string-p (make-array 6 \qquad :element-type 'character :fill-pointer t)) \rightarrow false
```

#### Notes:

```
(simple-string-p \ object) \equiv (typep \ object \ 'simple-string)
```

## char, schar

Accessor

#### Syntax:

```
char string index → character
schar string index → character
(setf (char string index) new-character)
(setf (schar string index) new-character)
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
string—for char, a string; for schar, a simple string.
index—a valid array index for the string.
character, new-character—a character.
```

#### **Description:**

char and schar access the element of string specified by index.

**char** ignores *fill pointers* when *accessing elements*.

#### **Examples:**

#### See Also:

aref, elt, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology)

#### Notes:

```
(char s j) \equiv (aref (the string s) j)
```

**string** Function

#### Syntax:

```
string x \rightarrow string
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
x—a string, a symbol, or a character.
string—a string.
```

#### Description:

Returns a *string* described by x; specifically:

- If x is a *string*, it is returned.
- If x is a symbol, its name is returned.
- If x is a *character*, then a *string* containing that one *character* is returned.
- string might perform additional, implementation-defined conversions.

#### **Examples:**

```
(string "already a string") \to "already a string" (string 'elm) \to "ELM" (string #\c) \to "c"
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

In the case where a conversion is defined neither by this specification nor by the *implementation*, an error of *type* **type-error** is signaled.

#### See Also:

```
coerce, string (type).
```

#### **Notes:**

 ${f coerce}$  can be used to convert a sequence of characters to a string.

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**prin1-to-string**, **princ-to-string**, **write-to-string**, or **format** (with a first argument of **nil**) can be used to get a *string* representation of a *number* or any other *object*.

# string-upcase, string-downcase, string-capitalize, nstring-upcase, nstring-downcase, nstring-capitalize Function

#### Syntax:

```
\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{string-upcase} & \textit{string \&key start end} & \rightarrow \textit{cased-string} \\ \textbf{string-downcase} & \textit{string \&key start end} & \rightarrow \textit{cased-string} \\ \textbf{string-capitalize} & \textit{string \&key start end} & \rightarrow \textit{cased-string} \\ \textbf{nstring-upcase} & \textit{string \&key start end} & \rightarrow \textit{string} \\ \textbf{nstring-downcase} & \textit{string \&key start end} & \rightarrow \textit{string} \\ \textbf{nstring-capitalize} & \textit{string \&key start end} & \rightarrow \textit{string} \\ \textbf{nstring-capitalize} & \textit{string \&key start end} & \rightarrow \textit{string} \\ \end{array}
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

string—a string designator. For nstring-upcase, nstring-downcase, and nstring-capitalize, the string designator must be a string.

start, end—bounding index designators of string. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

cased-string—a string.

#### Description:

string-upcase, string-downcase, string-capitalize, nstring-upcase, nstring-downcase, nstring-capitalize change the case of the subsequence of *string bounded* by *start* and *end* as follows:

#### string-upcase

string-upcase returns a *string* just like *string* with all lowercase characters replaced by the corresponding uppercase characters. More precisely, each character of the result *string* is produced by applying the *function* char-upcase to the corresponding character of *string*.

#### string-downcase

**string-downcase** is like **string-upcase** except that all uppercase characters are replaced by the corresponding lowercase characters (using **char-downcase**).

## string-upcase, string-downcase, string-capitalize, ...

#### string-capitalize

**string-capitalize** produces a copy of *string* such that, for every word in the copy, the first *character* of the "word," if it has *case*, is *uppercase* and any other *characters* with *case* in the word are *lowercase*. For the purposes of **string-capitalize**, a "word" is defined to be a consecutive subsequence consisting of *alphanumeric characters*, delimited at each end either by a non-*alphanumeric character* or by an end of the *string*.

#### nstring-upcase, nstring-downcase, nstring-capitalize

nstring-upcase, nstring-downcase, and nstring-capitalize are identical to string-upcase, string-downcase, and string-capitalize respectively except that they modify *string*.

For string-upcase, string-downcase, and string-capitalize, string is not modified. However, if no characters in string require conversion, the result may be either string or a copy of it, at the implementation's discretion.

#### **Examples:**

```
(string-upcase "abcde") \rightarrow "ABCDE"
 (string-upcase "Dr. Livingston, I presume?")

ightarrow "DR. LIVINGSTON, I PRESUME?"
 (string-upcase "Dr. Livingston, I presume?" :start 6 :end 10)

ightarrow "Dr. LiVINGston, I presume?"
 (string-downcase "Dr. Livingston, I presume?")
\rightarrow "dr. livingston, i presume?"
 (string-capitalize "elm 13c arthur;fig don't") 
ightarrow "Elm 13c Arthur;Fig Don'T"
 (string-capitalize " hello ") 
ightarrow " Hello "
 (string-capitalize "occlUDeD cASEmenTs FOreSTAll iNADVertent DEFenestraTION")

ightarrow "Occluded Casements Forestall Inadvertent Defenestration"
 (string-capitalize 'kludgy-hash-search) → "Kludgy-Hash-Search"
 (\texttt{string-capitalize "DON'T!"}) \ \rightarrow \ "\texttt{Don'T!"} \qquad ; \texttt{not "Don't!"}
 (string-capitalize "pipe 13a, foo16c") 
ightarrow "Pipe 13a, Foo16c"
 (setg str (copy-seg "0123ABCD890a")) 
ightarrow "0123ABCD890a"
 (nstring-downcase str :start 5 :end 7) 
ightarrow "0123AbcD890a"
 {	t str} 
ightarrow {	t "0123AbcD890a"}
```

#### Side Effects:

**nstring-upcase**, **nstring-downcase**, and **nstring-capitalize** modify *string* as appropriate rather than constructing a new *string*.

#### See Also:

char-upcase, char-downcase

#### **Notes:**

The result is always of the same length as *string*.

## $egin{array}{c} \mathbf{string\text{-}trim}, \mathbf{string\text{-}left\text{-}trim}, \mathbf{string\text{-}right\text{-}trim} \end{array}$

#### Syntax:

```
string-trim character-bag string \rightarrow trimmed-string string-left-trim character-bag string \rightarrow trimmed-string string-right-trim character-bag string \rightarrow trimmed-string
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
character-bag—a sequence containing characters.
string—a string designator.
trimmed-string—a string.
```

#### **Description:**

string-trim returns a substring of *string*, with all characters in *character-bag* stripped off the beginning and end. **string-left-trim** is similar but strips characters off only the beginning; **string-right-trim** strips off only the end.

If no *characters* need to be trimmed from the *string*, then either *string* itself or a copy of it may be returned, at the discretion of the implementation.

All of these functions observe the fill pointer.

#### **Examples:**

```
(string-trim "abc" "abcaakaakabcaaa") → "kaaak"
(string-trim '(#\Space #\Tab #\Newline) " garbanzo beans
        ") → "garbanzo beans"
(string-trim " (*)" " ( *three (silly) words* ) ")
→ "three (silly) words"

(string-left-trim "abc" "labcabcabc") → "labcabcabc"
(string-left-trim " (*)" " ( *three (silly) words* ) ")
→ "three (silly) words* ) "

(string-right-trim " (*)" " ( *three (silly) words* ) ")
→ " ( *three (silly) words"
```

#### Affected By:

The implementation.

string=, string/=, string<, string>, string<=, string>=, string-equal, string-not-equal, string-lessp, string-greaterp, string-not-greaterp, string-not-lessp

#### Syntax:

```
string = string1 string2 \&key start1 end1 start2 end2 \rightarrow generalized-boolean
string/= string1 string2 \&key start1 end1 start2 end2 \rightarrow mismatch-index
string< string1 string2 &key start1 end1 start2 end2
                                                             \rightarrow mismatch-index
string> string1 string2 &key start1 end1 start2 end2
                                                             \rightarrow mismatch-index
string \le string1 \ string2 \ \&key \ start1 \ end1 \ start2 \ end2 \rightarrow mismatch-index
string>= string1 string2 &key start1 end1 start2 end2 \rightarrow mismatch-index
string-equal string1 string2 &key start1 end1 start2 end2 \rightarrow generalized-boolean
string-not-equal string1 string2 &key start1 end1 start2 end2
                                                                          \rightarrow mismatch-index
string-lessp string1 string2 &key start1 end1 start2 end2
                                                                          \rightarrow mismatch-index
string-greaterp string1 string2 &key start1 end1 start2 end2
                                                                          \rightarrow mismatch-index
string-not-greaterp string1 string2 &key start1 end1 start2 end2 \rightarrow mismatch-index
string-not-lessp string1 string2 &key start1 end1 start2 end2
                                                                          \rightarrow mismatch-index
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
{\it string 1--} a \ string \ designator.
```

string2—a string designator.

start1, end1—bounding index designators of string1. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

start2, end2—bounding index designators of string2. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

mismatch-index—a bounding index of string1, or nil.

#### **Description:**

These functions perform lexicographic comparisons on *string1* and *string2*. **string=** and **string-equal** are called equality functions; the others are called inequality functions. The

## string=, string/=, string<, string>, string<=, ...

comparison operations these functions perform are restricted to the subsequence of string1 bounded by start1 and end1 and to the subsequence of string2 bounded by start2 and end2.

A string a is equal to a string b if it contains the same number of characters, and the corresponding characters are the same under **char=** or **char-equal**, as appropriate.

A string a is less than a string b if in the first position in which they differ the character of a is less than the corresponding character of b according to **char<** or **char-lessp** as appropriate, or if string a is a proper prefix of string b (of shorter length and matching in all the characters of a).

The equality functions return a generalized boolean that is true if the strings are equal, or false otherwise.

The inequality functions return a *mismatch-index* that is *true* if the strings are not equal, or *false* otherwise. When the *mismatch-index* is *true*, it is an *integer* representing the first character position at which the two substrings differ, as an offset from the beginning of *string1*.

The comparison has one of the following results:

#### string=

**string**= is *true* if the supplied substrings are of the same length and contain the *same* characters in corresponding positions; otherwise it is *false*.

#### string/=

string/= is true if the supplied substrings are different; otherwise it is false.

#### string-equal

**string-equal** is just like **string=** except that differences in case are ignored; two characters are considered to be the same if **char-equal** is *true* of them.

#### string<

string is true if substring is less than substring; otherwise it is false.

#### string>

**string>** is *true* if substring1 is greater than substring2; otherwise it is *false*.

#### string-lessp, string-greaterp

**string-lessp** and **string-greaterp** are exactly like **string<** and **string>**, respectively, except that distinctions between uppercase and lowercase letters are ignored. It is as if **char-lessp** were used instead of **char<** for comparing characters.

#### string<=

string = is true if substring 1 is less than or equal to substring 2; otherwise it is false.

```
string>=
```

 $string \ge is true if substring1 is greater than or equal to substring2; otherwise it is false.$ 

string-not-greaterp, string-not-lessp

string-not-greaterp and string-not-lessp are exactly like string<= and string>=, respectively, except that distinctions between uppercase and lowercase letters are ignored. It is as if char-lessp were used instead of char< for comparing characters.

#### **Examples:**

```
(string= "foo" "foo") \rightarrow true (string= "foo" "Foo") \rightarrow false (string= "foo" "bar") \rightarrow false (string= "together" "frog" :start1 1 :end1 3 :start2 2) \rightarrow true (string-equal "foo" "Foo") \rightarrow true (string= "abcd" "01234abcd9012" :start2 5 :end2 9) \rightarrow true (string< "aaaa" "aaab") \rightarrow 3 (string>= "aaaaa" "aaaa") \rightarrow 4 (string-not-greaterp "Abcde" "abcdE") \rightarrow 5 (string-lessp "012AAAA789" "01aaab6" :start1 3 :end1 7 :start2 2 :end2 6) \rightarrow 6 (string-not-equal "AAAA" "aaaA") \rightarrow false
```

#### See Also:

char=

#### Notes:

equal calls string= if applied to two strings.

stringp

#### Syntax:

 $\mathbf{stringp} \ \textit{object} \quad \rightarrow \textit{generalized-boolean}$ 

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### Description:

Returns true if object is of type string; otherwise, returns false.

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#### **Examples:**

```
(stringp "aaaaaa") \rightarrow true (stringp #\a) \rightarrow false
```

#### See Also:

typep, string (type)

#### Notes:

(stringp object) ≡ (typep object 'string)

## make-string

Function

#### Syntax:

make-string size &key initial-element element-type  $\rightarrow$  string

#### **Arguments and Values:**

size—a valid array dimension.

initial-element—a character. The default is implementation-dependent.

 $\it element-type--$  a  $\it type \ specifier.$  The default is  $\it character.$ 

string—a simple string.

#### Description:

make-string returns a *simple string* of length *size* whose elements have been initialized to *initial-element*.

The *element-type* names the *type* of the *elements* of the *string*; a *string* is constructed of the most *specialized type* that can accommodate *elements* of the given *type*.

#### **Examples:**

```
(make-string 10 :initial-element #\5) \rightarrow "5555555555" (length (make-string 10)) \rightarrow 10
```

#### Affected By:

The implementation.

## Programming Language—Common Lisp

17. Sequences

## 17.1 Sequence Concepts

A **sequence** is an ordered collection of *elements*, implemented as either a *vector* or a *list*.

Sequences can be created by the function make-sequence, as well as other functions that create objects of types that are subtypes of sequence (e.g., list, make-list, mapcar, and vector).

A **sequence function** is a *function* defined by this specification or added as an extension by the *implementation* that operates on one or more *sequences*. Whenever a *sequence function* must construct and return a new *vector*, it always returns a *simple vector*. Similarly, any *strings* constructed will be *simple strings*.

concatenate	length	remove
copy-seq	map	remove-duplicates
$\operatorname{\mathbf{count}}$	map-into	remove-if
${f count} ext{-if}$	merge	remove-if-not
${f count} ext{-}{f if} ext{-}{f not}$	mismatch	replace
$\mathbf{delete}$	notany	reverse
delete-duplicates	notevery	search
${f delete} ext{-}{f if}$	nreverse	some
${f delete} ext{-}{f if} ext{-}{f not}$	${f nsubstitute}$	$\operatorname{sort}$
${ m elt}$	${f nsubstitute} ext{-if}$	stable-sort
every	${f nsubstitute}$ -if-not	$\operatorname{subseq}$
fill	position	${f substitute}$
$\operatorname{find}$	position-if	substitute-if
find-if	position-if-not	${f substitute} ext{-if-not}$
${f find} ext{-if-not}$	$\overline{\mathrm{reduce}}$	

Figure 17-1. Standardized Sequence Functions

## 17.1.1 General Restrictions on Parameters that must be Sequences

In general, lists (including  $association\ lists$  and  $property\ lists$ ) that are treated as sequences must be  $proper\ lists$ .

#### 17.2 Rules about Test Functions

#### 17.2.1 Satisfying a Two-Argument Test

When an object O is being considered iteratively against each element  $E_i$  of a sequence S by an operator F listed in Figure 17–2, it is sometimes useful to control the way in which the presence of O is tested in S is tested by F. This control is offered on the basis of a function designated with either a :test or :test-not argument.

adjoin	nset-exclusive-or	search
assoc	nsublis	set-difference
count	nsubst	set-exclusive-or
delete	${f nsubstitute}$	$\operatorname{\mathbf{sublis}}$
find	nunion	$\operatorname{subsetp}$
intersection	position	${f subst}$
member	pushnew	${f substitute}$
mismatch	rassoc	tree-equal
nintersection	remove	union
nset-difference	remove-duplicates	

Figure 17–2. Operators that have Two-Argument Tests to be Satisfied

The object O might not be compared directly to  $E_i$ . If a :key argument is provided, it is a designator for a function of one argument to be called with each  $E_i$  as an argument, and yielding an object  $Z_i$  to be used for comparison. (If there is no :key argument,  $Z_i$  is  $E_i$ .)

The function designated by the :key argument is never called on O itself. However, if the function operates on multiple sequences (e.g., as happens in **set-difference**), O will be the result of calling the :key function on an element of the other sequence.

A :test argument, if supplied to F, is a designator for a function of two arguments, O and  $Z_i$ . An  $E_i$  is said (or, sometimes, an O and an  $E_i$  are said) to satisfy the test if this :test function returns a generalized boolean representing true.

A :test-not argument, if supplied to F, is designator for a function of two arguments, O and  $Z_i$ . An  $E_i$  is said (or, sometimes, an O and an  $E_i$  are said) to satisfy the test if this :test-not function returns a generalized boolean representing false.

If neither a :test nor a :test-not argument is supplied, it is as if a :test argument of #'eql was supplied.

The consequences are unspecified if both a :test and a :test-not argument are supplied in the same call to F.

#### 17.2.1.1 Examples of Satisfying a Two-Argument Test

```
(remove "F00" '(foo bar "F00" "BAR" "foo" "bar") :test #'equal)

ightarrow (foo bar "BAR" "foo" "bar")
(remove "F00" '(foo bar "F00" "BAR" "foo" "bar") :test #'equalp)

ightarrow (foo bar "BAR" "bar")
(remove "FOO" '(foo bar "FOO" "BAR" "foo" "bar") :test #'string-equal)

ightarrow (bar "BAR" "bar")
 (remove "F00" '(foo bar "F00" "BAR" "foo" "bar") :test #'string=)

ightarrow (BAR "BAR" "foo" "bar")
 (remove 1 '(1 1.0 #C(1.0 0.0) 2 2.0 #C(2.0 0.0)) :test-not #'eql)
\rightarrow (1)
 (remove 1 '(1 1.0 #C(1.0 0.0) 2 2.0 #C(2.0 0.0)) :test-not #'=)
\rightarrow (1 1.0 #C(1.0 0.0))
 (remove 1 '(1 1.0 #C(1.0 0.0) 2 2.0 #C(2.0 0.0)) :test (complement #'=))
\rightarrow (1 1.0 #C(1.0 0.0))
 (count 1 '((one 1) (uno 1) (two 2) (dos 2)) :key #'cadr) 
ightarrow 2
 (count 2.0 '(1 2 3) :test #'eql :key #'float) 
ightarrow 1
 (count "F00" (list (make-pathname :name "F00" :type "X")
                      (make-pathname :name "FOO" :type "Y"))
        :key #'pathname-name
        :test #'equal)
\rightarrow 2
```

## 17.2.2 Satisfying a One-Argument Test

When using one of the functions in Figure 17–3, the elements E of a sequence S are filtered not on the basis of the presence or absence of an object O under a two argument predicate, as with the functions described in Section 17.2.1 (Satisfying a Two-Argument Test), but rather on the basis of a one argument predicate.

assoc-if assoc-if-not count-if count-if-not delete-if	member-if member-if-not nsubst-if nsubst-if-not nsubstitute-if	rassoc-if rassoc-if-not remove-if remove-if-not subst-if	
delete-if-not	nsubstitute-if-not	subst-if-not	
find-if	position-if	substitute-if	
find-if-not	position-if-not	substitute-if-not	

Figure 17-3. Operators that have One-Argument Tests to be Satisfied

The element  $E_i$  might not be considered directly. If a :key argument is provided, it is a designator for a function of one argument to be called with each  $E_i$  as an argument, and yielding an object  $Z_i$  to be used for comparison. (If there is no :key argument,  $Z_i$  is  $E_i$ .)

Functions defined in this specification and having a name that ends in "-if" accept a first argument that is a designator for a function of one argument,  $Z_i$ . An  $E_i$  is said to satisfy the test if this :test function returns a generalized boolean representing true.

Functions defined in this specification and having a name that ends in "-if-not" accept a first argument that is a designator for a function of one argument,  $Z_i$ . An  $E_i$  is said to satisfy the test if this :test function returns a generalized boolean representing false.

#### 17.2.2.1 Examples of Satisfying a One-Argument Test

```
(count-if #'zerop '(1 #C(0.0 0.0) 0 0.0d0 0.0s0 3)) → 4

(remove-if-not #'symbolp '(0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A B C D E F))

→ (A B C D E F)
(remove-if (complement #'symbolp) '(0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A B C D E F))

→ (A B C D E F)

(count-if #'zerop '("foo" "" "bar" "" "baz" "quux") :key #'length)

→ 3
```

sequence System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

sequence, t

#### **Description:**

Sequences are ordered collections of objects, called the elements of the sequence.

The types vector and the type list are disjoint subtypes of type sequence, but are not necessarily an exhaustive partition of sequence.

When viewing a vector as a sequence, only the active elements of that vector are considered elements of the sequence; that is, sequence operations respect the fill pointer when given sequences represented as vectors.

copy-seq Function

#### Syntax:

copy-seq sequence  $\rightarrow$  copied-sequence

#### **Arguments and Values:**

sequence—a proper sequence.

copied-sequence—a proper sequence.

#### **Description:**

Creates a copy of *sequence*. The *elements* of the new *sequence* are the *same* as the corresponding *elements* of the given *sequence*.

If sequence is a vector, the result is a fresh simple array of rank one that has the same actual array element type as sequence. If sequence is a list, the result is a fresh list.

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq str "a string") \rightarrow "a string" (equalp str (copy-seq str)) \rightarrow true (eql str (copy-seq str)) \rightarrow false
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence.

#### See Also:

copy-list

#### Notes:

From a functional standpoint,  $(copy-seq x) \equiv (subseq x 0)$ 

However, the programmer intent is typically very different in these two cases.

elt

#### Syntax:

```
elt sequence index \rightarrow object (setf (elt sequence index) new-object)
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
sequence—a proper sequence.

index—a valid sequence index for sequence.

object—an object.

new-object—an object.
```

#### Description:

Accesses the element of sequence specified by index.

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq str (copy-seq "0123456789")) \to "0123456789" (elt str 6) \to #\6 (setf (elt str 0) #\#) \to #\# str \to "#123456789"
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *sequence* is not a *proper sequence*. Should signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *index* is not a *valid sequence index* for *sequence*.

#### See Also:

```
aref, nth, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology)
```

#### Notes:

aref may be used to access vector elements that are beyond the vector's fill pointer.

**fill** Function

## Syntax:

fill sequence item &key start end  $\rightarrow$  sequence

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
sequence—a proper sequence.
```

item—a sequence.

start, end—bounding  $index\ designators$  of sequence. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

#### Description:

Replaces the *elements* of *sequence bounded* by *start* and *end* with *item*.

### **Examples:**

```
(fill (list 0 1 2 3 4 5) '(444)) \rightarrow ((444) (444) (444) (444) (444) (444) (fill (copy-seq "01234") #\e :start 3) \rightarrow "012ee" (setq x (vector 'a 'b 'c 'd 'e)) \rightarrow #(A B C D E) (fill x 'z :start 1 :end 3) \rightarrow #(A Z Z D E) \times \rightarrow #(A Z Z D E) (fill x 'p) \rightarrow #(P P P P P) \times \rightarrow #(P P P P P)
```

#### Side Effects:

Sequence is destructively modified.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *sequence* is not a *proper sequence*. Should signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *start* is not a non-negative *integer*. Should signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *end* is not a non-negative *integer* or **nil**.

#### See Also:

replace, nsubstitute

#### Notes:

(fill sequence item) ≡(nsubstitute-if item (constantly t) sequence)

# make-sequence

# make-sequence

*Function* 

## Syntax:

make-sequence result-type size &key initial-element ightarrow sequence

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
result-type—a sequence type specifier.

size—a non-negative integer.

initial-element—an object. The default is implementation-dependent.

sequence—a proper sequence.
```

## Description:

Returns a sequence of the type result-type and of length size, each of the elements of which has been initialized to initial-element.

If the *result-type* is a *subtype* of **list**, the result will be a *list*.

If the *result-type* is a *subtype* of **vector**, then if the implementation can determine the element type specified for the *result-type*, the element type of the resulting array is the result of *upgrading* that element type; or, if the implementation can determine that the element type is unspecified (or \*), the element type of the resulting array is t; otherwise, an error is signaled.

#### **Examples:**

#### Affected By:

The implementation.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

The consequences are unspecified if *initial-element* is not an *object* which can be stored in the resulting *sequence*.

An error of type **type-error** must be signaled if the *result-type* is neither a *recognizable subtype* of **list**, nor a *recognizable subtype* of **vector**.

An error of type type-error should be signaled if result-type specifies the number of elements and size is different from that number.

#### See Also:

make-array, make-list

#### Notes:

(make-sequence 'string 5) ≡ (make-string 5)

subseq

Accessor

#### Syntax:

```
subseq sequence start &optional end \rightarrow subsequence (setf (subseq sequence start &optional end) new-subsequence)
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
sequence—a proper sequence.
```

start, end—bounding index designators of sequence. The default for end is nil.

subsequence—a proper sequence.

new-subsequence—a proper sequence.

## **Description:**

subseq creates a sequence that is a copy of the subsequence of sequence bounded by start and end.

Start specifies an offset into the original sequence and marks the beginning position of the subsequence. end marks the position following the last element of the subsequence.

**subseq** always allocates a new *sequence* for a result; it never shares storage with an old *sequence*. The result subsequence is always of the same *type* as *sequence*.

If sequence is a vector, the result is a fresh simple array of rank one that has the same actual array element type as sequence. If sequence is a list, the result is a fresh list.

setf may be used with subseq to destructively replace elements of a subsequence with elements taken from a sequence of new values. If the subsequence and the new sequence are not of equal

length, the shorter length determines the number of elements that are replaced. The remaining *elements* at the end of the longer sequence are not modified in the operation.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq str "012345") \rightarrow "012345" (subseq str 2) \rightarrow "2345" (subseq str 3 5) \rightarrow "34" (setf (subseq str 4) "abc") \rightarrow "abc" str \rightarrow "0123ab" (setf (subseq str 0 2) "A") \rightarrow "A" str \rightarrow "A123ab"
```

## Exceptional Situations:

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence. Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if new-subsequence is not a proper sequence.

#### See Also:

replace

map Function

#### **Syntax:**

map result-type function &rest sequences $^+$  o result

#### **Arguments and Values:**

result-type – a sequence type specifier, or nil.

 $\textit{function} \\ -\text{a } \textit{function } \textit{designator. } \textit{function } \text{must take as many arguments as there are } \textit{sequences}.$ 

sequence—a proper sequence.

result—if result-type is a type specifier other than nil, then a sequence of the type it denotes; otherwise (if the result-type is nil), nil.

## **Description:**

Applies function to successive sets of arguments in which one argument is obtained from each sequence. The function is called first on all the elements with index 0, then on all those with index 1, and so on. The result-type specifies the type of the resulting sequence.

map returns nil if *result-type* is nil. Otherwise, map returns a *sequence* such that element j is the result of applying *function* to element j of each of the *sequences*. The result *sequence* is as long as the shortest of the *sequences*. The consequences are undefined if the result of applying *function* to

the successive elements of the *sequences* cannot be contained in a *sequence* of the *type* given by *result-type*.

If the result-type is a subtype of list, the result will be a list.

If the *result-type* is a *subtype* of **vector**, then if the implementation can determine the element type specified for the *result-type*, the element type of the resulting array is the result of *upgrading* that element type; or, if the implementation can determine that the element type is unspecified (or \*), the element type of the resulting array is t; otherwise, an error is signaled.

#### **Examples:**

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of type **type-error** must be signaled if the *result-type* is not a *recognizable subtype* of **list**, not a *recognizable subtype* of **vector**, and not **nil**.

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if any sequence is not a proper sequence.

An error of type type-error should be signaled if result-type specifies the number of elements and the minimum length of the sequences is different from that number.

#### See Also:

Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

# map-into

map-into Function

## Syntax:

 $ext{map-into}$  result-sequence function &rest sequences o result-sequence

## Arguments and Values:

result-sequence—a proper sequence.

 $\textit{function} {--} \text{a } \textit{designator} \text{ for a } \textit{function} \text{ of as many } \textit{arguments} \text{ as there are } \textit{sequences}.$ 

sequence—a proper sequence.

## Description:

Destructively modifies *result-sequence* to contain the results of applying *function* to each element in the argument *sequences* in turn.

result-sequence and each element of sequences can each be either a list or a vector. If result-sequence and each element of sequences are not all the same length, the iteration terminates when the shortest sequence (of any of the sequences or the result-sequence) is exhausted. If result-sequence is a vector with a fill pointer, the fill pointer is ignored when deciding how many iterations to perform, and afterwards the fill pointer is set to the number of times function was applied. If result-sequence is longer than the shortest element of sequences, extra elements at the end of result-sequence are left unchanged. If result-sequence is nil, map-into immediately returns nil, since nil is a sequence of length zero.

If *function* has side effects, it can count on being called first on all of the elements with index 0, then on all of those numbered 1, and so on.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq a (list 1 2 3 4) b (list 10 10 10 10)) \rightarrow (10 10 10 10) (map-into a #'+ a b) \rightarrow (11 12 13 14) a \rightarrow (11 12 13 14) b \rightarrow (10 10 10 10) (setq k '(one two three)) \rightarrow (ONE TWO THREE) (map-into a #'cons k a) \rightarrow ((ONE . 11) (TWO . 12) (THREE . 13) 14) (map-into a #'gensym) \rightarrow (#:G9090 #:G9091 #:G9092 #:G9093) a \rightarrow (#:G9090 #:G9091 #:G9091 #:G9093)
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type **type-error** if result-sequence is not a proper sequence. Should be prepared to signal an error of type **type-error** if sequence is not a proper sequence.

#### **Notes:**

map-into differs from map in that it modifies an existing sequence rather than creating a new one. In addition, map-into can be called with only two arguments, while map requires at least three

reduce
Function

### Syntax:

 ${f reduce}$  function sequence &key key from-end start end initial-value ightarrow result

## **Arguments and Values:**

function—a designator for a function that might be called with either zero or two arguments.

sequence—a proper sequence.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

from-end—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

start, end—bounding index designators of sequence. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

initial-value—an object.

result—an object.

#### Description:

**reduce** uses a binary operation, function, to combine the elements of sequence bounded by start and end.

The *function* must accept as *arguments* two *elements* of *sequence* or the results from combining those *elements*. The *function* must also be able to accept no arguments.

If key is supplied, it is used is used to extract the values to reduce. The key function is applied exactly once to each element of sequence in the order implied by the reduction order but not to

the value of *initial-value*, if supplied. The *key* function typically returns part of the *element* of *sequence*. If *key* is not supplied or is **nil**, the *sequence element* itself is used.

The reduction is left-associative, unless from-end is true in which case it is right-associative.

If initial-value is supplied, it is logically placed before the subsequence (or after it if from-end is true) and included in the reduction operation.

In the normal case, the result of **reduce** is the combined result of *function*'s being applied to successive pairs of *elements* of *sequence*. If the subsequence contains exactly one *element* and no *initial-value* is given, then that *element* is returned and *function* is not called. If the subsequence is empty and an *initial-value* is given, then the *initial-value* is returned and *function* is not called. If the subsequence is empty and no *initial-value* is given, then the *function* is called with zero arguments, and **reduce** returns whatever *function* does. This is the only case where the *function* is called with other than two arguments.

#### **Examples:**

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence.

#### See Also:

Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

# count, count-if, count-if-not

# count, count-if, count-if-not

Function

## Syntax:

```
count item sequence &key from-end start end key test test-not \rightarrow n count-if predicate sequence &key from-end start end key \rightarrow n count-if-not predicate sequence &key from-end start end key \rightarrow n
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
item—an object.
```

sequence—a proper sequence.

predicate—a designator for a function of one argument that returns a generalized boolean.

from-end—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

start, end—bounding index designators of sequence. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

*n*—a non-negative *integer* less than or equal to the *length* of *sequence*.

#### **Description:**

count, count-if, and count-if-not count and return the number of *elements* in the *sequence* bounded by *start* and *end* that *satisfy the test*.

The *from-end* has no direct effect on the result. However, if *from-end* is *true*, the *elements* of *sequence* will be supplied as *arguments* to the *test*, *test-not*, and *key* in reverse order, which may change the side-effects, if any, of those functions.

## **Examples:**

```
(count #\a "how many A's are there in here?") \to 2 (count-if-not #'oddp '((1) (2) (3) (4)) :key #'car) \to 2 (count-if #'upper-case-p "The Crying of Lot 49" :start 4) \to 2
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence.

#### See Also:

Section 17.2 (Rules about Test Functions), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### Notes:

The :test-not argument is deprecated.

The function count-if-not is deprecated.

length

#### Syntax:

```
length sequence \rightarrow n
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
sequence—a proper sequence.
```

*n*—a non-negative *integer*.

## **Description:**

Returns the number of *elements* in *sequence*.

If sequence is a vector with a fill pointer, the active length as specified by the fill pointer is returned.

### **Examples:**

```
(length "abc") \to 3 (setq str (make-array '(3) :element-type 'character :initial-contents "abc" :fill-pointer t)) \to "abc" (length str) \to 3 (setf (fill-pointer str) 2) \to 2 (length str) \to 2
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence.

#### See Also:

 ${\bf list\text{-}length},\,{\bf sequence}$ 

## reverse, nreverse

#### reverse, nreverse

*Function* 

## Syntax:

```
reverse sequence 	o reversed-sequence 
nreverse sequence 	o reversed-sequence
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
sequence—a proper sequence.
reversed-sequence—a sequence.
```

## **Description:**

reverse and nreverse return a new sequence of the same kind as sequence, containing the same elements, but in reverse order.

reverse and nreverse differ in that reverse always creates and returns a new sequence, whereas nreverse might modify and return the given sequence. reverse never modifies the given sequence.

For **reverse**, if **sequence** is a **vector**, the result is a **fresh simple array** of **rank** one that has the same **actual array element type** as **sequence**. If **sequence** is a **list**, the result is a **fresh list**.

For **nreverse**, if **sequence** is a **vector**, the result is a **vector** that has the same **actual array element** type as **sequence**. If **sequence** is a **list**, the result is a **list**.

For **nreverse**, **sequence** might be destroyed and re-used to produce the result. The result might or might not be *identical* to **sequence**. Specifically, when **sequence** is a **list**, **nreverse** is permitted to **setf** any part, **car** or **cdr**, of any **cons** that is part of the **list structure** of **sequence**. When **sequence** is a **vector**, **nreverse** is permitted to re-order the elements of **sequence** in order to produce the resulting **vector**.

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq str "abc") \rightarrow "abc"

(reverse str) \rightarrow "cba"

str \rightarrow "abc"

(setq str (copy-seq str)) \rightarrow "abc"

(nreverse str) \rightarrow "cba"

str \rightarrow implementation-dependent

(setq 1 (list 1 2 3)) \rightarrow (1 2 3)

(nreverse 1) \rightarrow (3 2 1)

1 \rightarrow implementation-dependent
```

#### Side Effects:

**nreverse** might either create a new sequence, modify the argument sequence, or both. (reverse does not modify sequence.)

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence.

# sort, stable-sort

**Function** 

## Syntax:

sort sequence predicate %key key o sorted-sequence stable-sort sequence predicate %key key o sorted-sequence

## **Arguments and Values:**

sequence—a proper sequence.

predicate—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

sorted-sequence—a sequence.

## **Description:**

sort and stable-sort destructively sort sequences according to the order determined by the predicate function.

If sequence is a vector, the result is a vector that has the same actual array element type as sequence. If sequence is a list, the result is a list.

sort determines the relationship between two elements by giving keys extracted from the elements to the *predicate*. The first argument to the *predicate* function is the part of one element of *sequence* extracted by the *key* function (if supplied); the second argument is the part of another element of *sequence* extracted by the *key* function (if supplied). *Predicate* should return *true* if and only if the first argument is strictly less than the second (in some appropriate sense). If the first argument is greater than or equal to the second (in the appropriate sense), then the *predicate* should return *false*.

The argument to the *key* function is the *sequence* element. The return value of the *key* function becomes an argument to *predicate*. If *key* is not supplied or nil, the *sequence* element itself is used. There is no guarantee on the number of times the *key* will be called.

If the key and predicate always return, then the sorting operation will always terminate, producing a sequence containing the same elements as sequence (that is, the result is a permutation of sequence). This is guaranteed even if the predicate does not really consistently represent a total order (in which case the elements will be scrambled in some unpredictable way, but no element will be lost). If the key consistently returns meaningful keys, and the predicate does reflect some total ordering criterion on those keys, then the elements of the sorted-sequence will be properly sorted according to that ordering.

## sort, stable-sort

The sorting operation performed by **sort** is not guaranteed stable. Elements considered equal by the *predicate* might or might not stay in their original order. The *predicate* is assumed to consider two elements x and y to be equal if (funcall *predicate* x y) and (funcall *predicate* y x) are both false. **stable-sort** guarantees stability.

The sorting operation can be destructive in all cases. In the case of a *vector* argument, this is accomplished by permuting the elements in place. In the case of a *list*, the *list* is destructively reordered in the same manner as for **nreverse**.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq tester (copy-seq "lkjashd")) \rightarrow "lkjashd"
 (sort tester #'char-lessp) \rightarrow "adhikls"
 (\text{setq tester (list '(1 2 3) '(4 5 6) '(7 8 9))}) \rightarrow ((1 2 3) (4 5 6) (7 8 9))
 (sort tester \#'> :key \#'car) \rightarrow ((7 8 9) (4 5 6) (1 2 3))
 (\mathsf{setq}\ \mathsf{tester}\ (\mathsf{list}\ 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9\ 0))\ \to\ (\mathsf{1}\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9\ 0)
 (stable-sort tester #'(lambda (x y) (and (oddp x) (evenp y))))
\rightarrow (1 3 5 7 9 2 4 6 8 0)
 (sort (setq committee-data
              (vector (list (list "JonL" "White") "Iteration")
                       (list (list "Dick" "Waters") "Iteration")
                       (list (list "Dick" "Gabriel") "Objects")
                       (list (list "Kent" "Pitman") "Conditions")
                       (list (list "Gregor" "Kiczales") "Objects")
                       (list (list "David" "Moon") "Objects")
                       (list (list "Kathy" "Chapman") "Editorial")
                       (list (list "Larry" "Masinter") "Cleanup")
                       (list (list "Sandra" "Loosemore") "Compiler")))
       #'string-lessp :key #'cadar)
→ #((("Kathy" "Chapman") "Editorial")
     (("Dick" "Gabriel") "Objects")
     (("Gregor" "Kiczales") "Objects")
     (("Sandra" "Loosemore") "Compiler")
     (("Larry" "Masinter") "Cleanup")
     (("David" "Moon") "Objects")
     (("Kent" "Pitman") "Conditions")
     (("Dick" "Waters") "Iteration")
     (("JonL" "White") "Iteration"))
 ;; Note that individual alphabetical order within 'committees'
 ;; is preserved.
 (setq committee-data
       (stable-sort committee-data #'string-lessp :key #'cadr))
\rightarrow #((("Larry" "Masinter") "Cleanup")
     (("Sandra" "Loosemore") "Compiler")
     (("Kent" "Pitman") "Conditions")
     (("Kathy" "Chapman") "Editorial")
```

```
(("Dick" "Waters") "Iteration")
(("JonL" "White") "Iteration")
(("Dick" "Gabriel") "Objects")
(("Gregor" "Kiczales") "Objects")
(("David" "Moon") "Objects"))
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence.

#### See Also:

merge, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects), Section 3.7 (Destructive Operations)

#### Notes:

If *sequence* is a *vector*, the result might or might not be simple, and might or might not be *identical* to *sequence*.

# find, find-if, find-if-not

*Function* 

## Syntax:

find item sequence &key from-end test test-not start end key ightarrow element

 $\operatorname{find-if}$  predicate sequence &key from-end start end key ightarrow element

find-if-not predicate sequence &key from-end start end key ightarrow element

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
item—an object.
```

sequence—a proper sequence.

predicate—a designator for a function of one argument that returns a generalized boolean.

from-end—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

start, end—bounding index designators of sequence. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

element—an element of the sequence, or nil.

## **Description:**

find, find-if, and find-if-not each search for an element of the sequence bounded by start and end that satisfies the predicate predicate or that satisfies the test test or test-not, as appropriate.

If from-end is true, then the result is the rightmost element that satisfies the test.

If the sequence contains an element that satisfies the test, then the leftmost or rightmost sequence element, depending on from-end, is returned; otherwise nil is returned.

## **Examples:**

```
(find #\d "here are some letters that can be looked at" :test #'char>) \rightarrow #\Space (find-if #'oddp '(1 2 3 4 5) :end 3 :from-end t) \rightarrow 3 (find-if-not #'complexp '#(3.5 2 #C(1.0 0.0) #C(0.0 1.0)) :start 2) \rightarrow NIL
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence.

#### See Also:

position, Section 17.2 (Rules about Test Functions), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### **Notes:**

The :test-not argument is deprecated.

The function find-if-not is deprecated.

# position, position-if, position-if-not

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

```
position item sequence &key from-end test test-not start end key \rightarrow position position-if predicate sequence &key from-end start end key \rightarrow position position-if-not predicate sequence &key from-end start end key \rightarrow position
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
item—an object.
sequence—a proper sequence.
```

predicate—a designator for a function of one argument that returns a generalized boolean.

from-end—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

start, end—bounding index designators of sequence. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

position—a bounding index of sequence, or nil.

## **Description:**

position, position-if, and position-if-not each search sequence for an element that satisfies the test.

The position returned is the index within sequence of the leftmost (if from-end is true) or of the rightmost (if from-end is false) element that satisfies the test; otherwise nil is returned. The index returned is relative to the left-hand end of the entire sequence, regardless of the value of start, end, or from-end.

### **Examples:**

```
(position #\a "baobab" :from-end t) \rightarrow 4 (position-if #'oddp '((1) (2) (3) (4)) :start 1 :key #'car) \rightarrow 2 (position 595 '()) \rightarrow NIL (position-if-not #'integerp '(1 2 3 4 5.0)) \rightarrow 4
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence.

#### See Also:

find, Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

## Notes:

The :test-not argument is deprecated.

The function **position-if-not** is deprecated.

## search

search

## **Syntax:**

search sequence-1 sequence-2 %key from-end test test-not key start1 start2 end1 end2

 $\rightarrow$  position

## **Arguments and Values:**

Sequence-1—a sequence.

Sequence-2—a sequence.

from-end—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

start1, end1—bounding index designators of sequence-1. The defaults for start1 and end1 are 0 and nil, respectively.

start2, end2—bounding index designators of sequence-2. The defaults for start2 and end2 are 0 and nil, respectively.

position—a bounding index of sequence-2, or nil.

#### **Description:**

Searches sequence-2 for a subsequence that matches sequence-1.

The implementation may choose to search *sequence-2* in any order; there is no guarantee on the number of times the test is made. For example, when *start-end* is *true*, the *sequence* might actually be searched from left to right instead of from right to left (but in either case would return the rightmost matching subsequence). If the search succeeds, **search** returns the offset into *sequence-2* of the first element of the leftmost or rightmost matching subsequence, depending on *from-end*; otherwise **search** returns **nil**.

If from-end is true, the index of the leftmost element of the rightmost matching subsequence is returned.

## **Examples:**

```
(search "dog" "it's a dog's life") \rightarrow 7 (search '(0 1) '(2 4 6 1 3 5) :key #'oddp) \rightarrow 2
```

#### See Also:

Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### Notes:

The :test-not argument is deprecated.

mismatch Function

## Syntax:

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{mismatch sequence-1 sequence-2 \&key from-end test test-not key start1 start2 end1 end2} \\ \rightarrow \textit{position} \end{array}$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

Sequence-1—a sequence.

Sequence-2—a sequence.

from-end—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

start1, end1—bounding index designators of sequence-1. The defaults for start1 and end1 are 0 and nil, respectively.

start2, end2—bounding index designators of sequence-2. The defaults for start2 and end2 are 0 and nil, respectively.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

position—a bounding index of sequence-1, or nil.

#### Description:

The specified subsequences of sequence-1 and sequence-2 are compared element-wise.

The key argument is used for both the sequence-1 and the sequence-2.

If sequence-1 and sequence-2 are of equal length and match in every element, the result is false. Otherwise, the result is a non-negative integer, the index within sequence-1 of the leftmost or rightmost position, depending on from-end, at which the two subsequences fail to match. If one subsequence is shorter than and a matching prefix of the other, the result is the index relative to sequence-1 beyond the last position tested.

If *from-end* is *true*, then one plus the index of the rightmost position in which the *sequences* differ is returned. In effect, the subsequences are aligned at their right-hand ends; then, the last elements are compared, the penultimate elements, and so on. The index returned is an index relative to *sequence-1*.

## **Examples:**

```
(mismatch "abcd" "ABCDE" :test #'char-equal) \rightarrow 4 (mismatch '(3 2 1 1 2 3) '(1 2 3) :from-end t) \rightarrow 3 (mismatch '(1 2 3) '(2 3 4) :test-not #'eq :key #'oddp) \rightarrow NIL (mismatch '(1 2 3 4 5 6) '(3 4 5 6 7) :start1 2 :end2 4) \rightarrow NIL
```

#### See Also:

Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### Notes:

The :test-not argument is deprecated.

replace

# Syntax:

replace sequence-1 sequence-2 kkey start1 end1 start2 end2  $\rightarrow$  sequence-1

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
sequence-1—a sequence.
```

sequence-2—a sequence.

start1, end1—bounding index designators of sequence-1. The defaults for start1 and end1 are 0 and nil, respectively.

start2, end2—bounding index designators of sequence-2. The defaults for start2 and end2 are 0 and nil, respectively.

## **Description:**

Destructively modifies sequence-1 by replacing the elements of subsequence-1 bounded by start1 and end1 with the elements of subsequence-2 bounded by start2 and end2.

Sequence-1 is destructively modified by copying successive elements into it from sequence-2. Elements of the subsequence of sequence-2 bounded by start2 and end2 are copied into the subsequence of sequence-1 bounded by start1 and end1. If these subsequences are not of the same length, then the shorter length determines how many elements are copied; the extra elements near the end of the longer subsequence are not involved in the operation. The number of elements copied can be expressed as:

```
(min (- end1 start1) (- end2 start2))
```

If sequence-1 and sequence-2 are the same object and the region being modified overlaps the region being copied from, then it is as if the entire source region were copied to another place and only then copied back into the target region. However, if sequence-1 and sequence-2 are not the same, but the region being modified overlaps the region being copied from (perhaps because of shared list structure or displaced arrays), then after the replace operation the subsequence of sequence-1 being modified will have unpredictable contents. It is an error if the elements of sequence-2 are not of a type that can be stored into sequence-1.

#### **Examples:**

```
(replace "abcdefghij" "0123456789" :start1 4 :end1 7 :start2 4) \to "abcd456hij" (setq lst "012345678") \to "012345678" (replace lst lst :start1 2 :start2 0) \to "010123456" lst \to "010123456"
```

#### Side Effects:

The *sequence-1* is modified.

#### See Also:

fill

# substitute, substitute-if, substitute-if-not, nsubstitute, nsubstitute-if, nsubstitute-if-not Function

## Syntax:

```
substitute newitem olditem sequence &key from-end test
test-not start
end count key
```

→ result-sequence

 $\textbf{substitute-if} \ \textit{newitem predicate sequence} \ \& \texttt{key} \ \textit{from-end start end count key} \\ \rightarrow \textit{result-sequence}$ 

 $\mathbf{substitute\text{-}if\text{-}not}\ \textit{newitem predicate sequence}\ \&\texttt{key}\ \textit{from\text{-}end start end count key} \\ \rightarrow \textit{result\text{-}sequence}$ 

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{nsubstitute} \ \textit{newitem olditem sequence \&key from-end test test-not start end count key} \\ \rightarrow \textit{sequence} \end{array}$ 

# substitute, substitute-if, substitute-if-not, ...

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} {\bf nsubstitute-if} \ newitem \ predicate \ sequence \ \& {\it key} \ from-end \ start \ end \ count \ key \\ \rightarrow \ sequence \end{tabular}$ 

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{nsubstitute-if-not} \ \textit{newitem predicate sequence \&key} \ \textit{from-end start end count key} \\ \rightarrow \textit{sequence} \end{array}$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

newitem—an object.

olditem—an object.

sequence—a proper sequence.

predicate—a designator for a function of one argument that returns a generalized boolean.

from-end—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

start, end—bounding index designators of sequence. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

count—an integer or nil. The default is nil.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

result-sequence—a sequence.

### **Description:**

substitute, substitute-if, and substitute-if-not return a copy of sequence in which each element that satisfies the test has been replaced with newitem.

nsubstitute, nsubstitute-if, and nsubstitute-if-not are like substitute, substitute-if, and substitute-if-not respectively, but they may modify sequence.

If sequence is a vector, the result is a vector that has the same actual array element type as sequence. If sequence is a list, the result is a list.

Count, if supplied, limits the number of elements altered; if more than count elements satisfy the test, then of these elements only the leftmost or rightmost, depending on from-end, are replaced, as many as specified by count. If count is supplied and negative, the behavior is as if zero had been supplied instead. If count is nil, all matching items are affected.

Supplying a *from-end* of *true* matters only when the *count* is provided (and *non-nil*); in that case, only the rightmost *count* elements satisfying the test are removed (instead of the leftmost).

predicate, test, and test-not might be called more than once for each sequence element, and their side effects can happen in any order.

# substitute, substitute-if, substitute-if-not, ...

The result of all these functions is a *sequence* of the same *type* as *sequence* that has the same elements except that those in the subsequence *bounded* by *start* and *end* and *satisfying the test* have been replaced by *newitem*.

substitute, substitute-if, and substitute-if-not return a sequence which can share with sequence or may be *identical* to the input sequence if no elements need to be changed.

**nsubstitute** and **nsubstitute-if** are required to **setf** any **car** (if **sequence** is a **list**) or **aref** (if **sequence** is a **vector**) of **sequence** that is required to be replaced with **newitem**. If **sequence** is a **list**, none of the **cdrs** of the top-level **list** can be modified.

## **Examples:**

```
(substitute #\. #\SPACE "0 2 4 6") 
ightarrow "0.2.4.6"
(substitute 9 4 '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5)) \rightarrow (1 2 9 1 3 9 5)
(substitute 9 4 '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5) :count 1) 
ightarrow (1 2 9 1 3 4 5)
(substitute 9 4 '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5) :count 1 :from-end t)
\rightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 9 5)
(substitute 9 3 '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5) :test #'>) \rightarrow (9 9 4 9 3 4 5)
(substitute-if 0 #'evenp '((1) (2) (3) (4)) :start 2 :key #'car)
\rightarrow ((1) (2) (3) 0)
(substitute-if 9 #'oddp '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5)) 
ightarrow (9 2 4 9 9 4 9)
(substitute-if 9 #'evenp '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5) :count 1 :from-end t)
\rightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 9 5)
(setq some-things (list 'a 'car 'b 'cdr 'c)) 
ightarrow (A CAR B CDR C)
(nsubstitute-if "function was here" #'fboundp some-things
                   :count 1 :from-end t) 
ightarrow (A CAR B "function was here" C)
some-things 
ightarrow (A CAR B "function was here" C)
(setq alpha-tester (copy-seq "ab ")) 
ightarrow "ab "
(nsubstitute-if-not \ "alpha-char-p alpha-tester) \rightarrow "abz"
alpha-tester 
ightarrow "abz"
```

#### **Side Effects:**

nsubstitute, nsubstitute-if, and nsubstitute-if-not modify sequence.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence.

#### See Also:

subst, nsubst, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### **Notes:**

If sequence is a vector, the result might or might not be simple, and might or might not be identical

to sequence.

The :test-not argument is deprecated.

The functions substitute-if-not and nsubstitute-if-not are deprecated.

nsubstitute and nsubstitute-if can be used in for-effect-only positions in code.

Because the side-effecting variants (e.g., nsubstitute) potentially change the path that is being traversed, their effects in the presence of shared or circular structure may vary in surprising ways when compared to their non-side-effecting alternatives. To see this, consider the following side-effect behavior, which might be exhibited by some implementations:

concatenate

*Function* 

## **Syntax:**

concatenate result-type &rest sequences  $\rightarrow$  result-sequence

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
result-type—a sequence type specifier.
sequences—a sequence.
result-sequence—a proper sequence of type result-type.
```

## Description:

**concatenate** returns a *sequence* that contains all the individual elements of all the *sequences* in the order that they are supplied. The *sequence* is of type *result-type*, which must be a *subtype* of *type* **sequence**.

All of the *sequences* are copied from; the result does not share any structure with any of the *sequences*. Therefore, if only one *sequence* is provided and it is of type *result-type*, **concatenate** is required to copy *sequence* rather than simply returning it.

It is an error if any element of the *sequences* cannot be an element of the *sequence* result.

If the *result-type* is a *subtype* of **list**, the result will be a *list*.

If the *result-type* is a *subtype* of **vector**, then if the implementation can determine the element type specified for the *result-type*, the element type of the resulting array is the result of *upgrading* that element type; or, if the implementation can determine that the element type is unspecified (or \*), the element type of the resulting array is t; otherwise, an error is signaled.

## **Examples:**

```
(concatenate 'string "all" " "together" " " "now") \rightarrow "all together now" (concatenate 'list "ABC" '(d e f) #(1 2 3) #*1011) \rightarrow (#\A #\B #\C D E F 1 2 3 1 0 1 1) (concatenate 'list) \rightarrow NIL (concatenate '(vector * 2) "a" "bc") should signal an error
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

An error is signaled if the *result-type* is neither a *recognizable subtype* of **list**, nor a *recognizable subtype* of **vector**.

An error of *type* **type-error** should be signaled if *result-type* specifies the number of elements and the sum of *sequences* is different from that number.

#### See Also:

append

merge

#### **Syntax:**

merge result-type sequence-1 sequence-2 predicate &key key ightarrow result-sequence

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
result-type—a sequence type specifier.

sequence-1—a sequence.

sequence-2—a sequence.

predicate—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

result-sequence—a proper sequence of type result-type.
```

## Description:

Destructively merges *sequence-1* with *sequence-2* according to an order determined by the *predicate*. **merge** determines the relationship between two elements by giving keys extracted from the sequence elements to the *predicate*.

The first argument to the *predicate* function is an element of *sequence-1* as returned by the *key* (if supplied); the second argument is an element of *sequence-2* as returned by the *key* (if supplied). *Predicate* should return *true* if and only if its first argument is strictly less than the second (in some appropriate sense). If the first argument is greater than or equal to the second (in the appropriate sense), then *predicate* should return *false*. **merge** considers two elements x and y to be equal if (funcall predicate x y) and (funcall predicate y x) both *yield false*.

The argument to the *key* is the *sequence* element. Typically, the return value of the *key* becomes the argument to *predicate*. If *key* is not supplied or **nil**, the sequence element itself is used. The *key* may be executed more than once for each *sequence element*, and its side effects may occur in any order.

If key and predicate return, then the merging operation will terminate. The result of merging two sequences x and y is a new sequence of type result-type z, such that the length of z is the sum of the lengths of x and y, and z contains all the elements of x and y. If x1 and x2 are two elements of x, and x1 precedes x2 in x, then x1 precedes x2 in z, and similarly for elements of y. In short, z is an interleaving of x and y.

If x and y were correctly sorted according to the *predicate*, then z will also be correctly sorted. If x or y is not so sorted, then z will not be sorted, but will nevertheless be an interleaving of x and y.

The merging operation is guaranteed stable; if two or more elements are considered equal by the *predicate*, then the elements from *sequence-1* will precede those from *sequence-2* in the result.

sequence-1 and/or sequence-2 may be destroyed.

If the result-type is a subtype of list, the result will be a list.

If the *result-type* is a *subtype* of **vector**, then if the implementation can determine the element type specified for the *result-type*, the element type of the resulting array is the result of *upgrading* that element type; or, if the implementation can determine that the element type is unspecified (or \*), the element type of the resulting array is t; otherwise, an error is signaled.

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq test1 (list 1 3 4 6 7)) (setq test2 (list 2 5 8)) (merge 'list test1 test2 \#'<) \rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8) (setq test1 (copy-seq "BOY")) (setq test2 (copy-seq :nosy")) (merge 'string test1 test2 \#'char-lessp) \rightarrow "BnOosYy" (setq test1 (vector ((red . 1) (blue . 4))))
```

```
(setq test2 (vector ((yellow . 2) (green . 7))))
(merge 'vector test1 test2 #'< :key #'cdr)
→ #((RED . 1) (YELLOW . 2) (BLUE . 4) (GREEN . 7))

(merge '(vector * 4) '(1 5) '(2 4 6) #'<) should signal an error</pre>
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error must be signaled if the *result-type* is neither a *recognizable subtype* of **list**, nor a *recognizable subtype* of **vector**.

An error of *type* **type-error** should be signaled if *result-type* specifies the number of elements and the sum of the lengths of *sequence-1* and *sequence-2* is different from that number.

### See Also:

sort, stable-sort, Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

# remove, remove-if, remove-if-not, delete, delete-if, delete-if-not

### Syntax:

remove item sequence &key from-end test test-not start end count key  $\rightarrow$  result-sequence remove-if test sequence &key from-end start end count key  $\rightarrow$  result-sequence remove-if-not test sequence &key from-end start end count key  $\rightarrow$  result-sequence delete item sequence &key from-end test test-not start end count key  $\rightarrow$  result-sequence delete-if test sequence &key from-end start end count key  $\rightarrow$  result-sequence delete-if-not test sequence &key from-end start end count key  $\rightarrow$  result-sequence

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
item—an object.
```

sequence—a proper sequence.

test—a designator for a function of one argument that returns a generalized boolean.

from-end—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

# remove, remove-if, remove-if-not, delete, delete-if, ...

test-not—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

start, end—bounding index designators of sequence. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

count—an integer or nil. The default is nil.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

result-sequence—a sequence.

## **Description:**

remove, remove-if, and remove-if-not return a sequence from which the elements that satisfy the test have been removed.

delete, delete-if, and delete-if-not are like remove, remove-if, and remove-if-not respectively, but they may modify *sequence*.

If sequence is a vector, the result is a vector that has the same actual array element type as sequence. If sequence is a list, the result is a list.

Supplying a *from-end* of *true* matters only when the *count* is provided; in that case only the rightmost *count* elements *satisfying the test* are deleted.

Count, if supplied, limits the number of elements removed or deleted; if more than count elements satisfy the test, then of these elements only the leftmost or rightmost, depending on from-end, are deleted or removed, as many as specified by count. If count is supplied and negative, the behavior is as if zero had been supplied instead. If count is nil, all matching items are affected.

For all these functions, elements not removed or deleted occur in the same order in the result as they did in *sequence*.

remove, remove-if, remove-if-not return a sequence of the same type as sequence that has the same elements except that those in the subsequence bounded by start and end and satisfying the test have been removed. This is a non-destructive operation. If any elements need to be removed, the result will be a copy. The result of remove may share with sequence; the result may be identical to the input sequence if no elements need to be removed.

**delete**, **delete-if**, and **delete-if-not** return a *sequence* of the same *type* as *sequence* that has the same elements except that those in the subsequence *bounded* by *start* and *end* and *satisfying the test* have been deleted. *Sequence* may be destroyed and used to construct the result; however, the result might or might not be *identical* to *sequence*.

**delete**, when *sequence* is a *list*, is permitted to **setf** any part, **car** or **cdr**, of the top-level list structure in that *sequence*. When *sequence* is a *vector*, **delete** is permitted to change the dimensions of the *vector* and to slide its elements into new positions without permuting them to produce the resulting *vector*.

delete-if is constrained to behave exactly as follows:

# remove, remove-if, remove-if-not, delete, delete-if, ...

```
(delete nil sequence
          :test #'(lambda (ignore item) (funcall test item))
          ...)
```

## **Examples:**

```
(remove 4 '(1 3 4 5 9)) \rightarrow (1 3 5 9)
 (remove 4 '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5)) \rightarrow (1 2 1 3 5)
 (remove 4 '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5) :count 1) \rightarrow (1 2 1 3 4 5)
 (remove 4 '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5) :count 1 :from-end t) 
ightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 5)
 (remove 3 '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5) :test \#'>) \rightarrow (4 3 4 5)
 (setq lst '(list of four elements)) 
ightarrow (LIST OF FOUR ELEMENTS)
 (setq lst2 (copy-seq lst)) \rightarrow (LIST OF FOUR ELEMENTS)
 (setq lst3 (delete 'four lst)) 
ightarrow (LIST OF ELEMENTS)
 (equal 1st 1st2) \rightarrow false
 (remove-if #'oddp '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5)) 
ightarrow (2 4 4)
 (remove-if #'evenp '(1 2 4 1 3 4 5) :count 1 :from-end t)
\rightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 5)
 (remove-if-not #'evenp '(1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9) :count 2 :from-end t)
\rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6 8)
 (setq tester (list 1 2 4 1 3 4 5)) \rightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 4 5)
 (delete 4 tester) \rightarrow (1 2 1 3 5)
 (setq tester (list 1 2 4 1 3 4 5)) \rightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 4 5)
 (delete 4 tester :count 1) \rightarrow (1 2 1 3 4 5)
 (setq tester (list 1 2 4 1 3 4 5)) \rightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 4 5)
 (delete 4 tester :count 1 :from-end t) \rightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 5)
 (setq tester (list 1 2 4 1 3 4 5)) \rightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 4 5)
 (delete 3 tester :test #'>) \rightarrow (4 3 4 5)
 (setq tester (list 1 2 4 1 3 4 5)) \rightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 4 5)
 (delete-if #'oddp tester) 
ightarrow (2 4 4)
 (setq tester (list 1 2 4 1 3 4 5)) \rightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 4 5)
 (delete-if #'evenp tester :count 1 :from-end t) \rightarrow (1 2 4 1 3 5)
 (setq tester (list 1 2 3 4 5 6)) \rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6)
 (delete-if #'evenp tester) 
ightarrow (1 3 5)
 \texttt{tester} \rightarrow implementation-dependent
 (setq foo (list 'a 'b 'c)) 
ightarrow (A B C)
 (setq bar (cdr foo)) \rightarrow (B C)
 (setq foo (delete 'b foo)) 
ightarrow (A C)
 bar \rightarrow ((C)) or \dots
 (eq (cdr foo) (car bar)) \rightarrow T or ...
```

#### Side Effects:

For **delete**, **delete-if**, and **delete-if-not**, *sequence* may be destroyed and used to construct the result.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence.

#### See Also:

Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

#### **Notes:**

If **sequence** is a **vector**, the result might or might not be simple, and might or might not be **identical** to **sequence**.

The :test-not argument is deprecated.

The functions delete-if-not and remove-if-not are deprecated.

# remove-duplicates, delete-duplicates

Function

## **Syntax:**

remove-duplicates sequence &key from-end test test-not start end key

 $\rightarrow$  result-sequence

delete-duplicates sequence &key from-end test test-not start end key

 $\rightarrow$  result-sequence

## **Arguments and Values:**

sequence—a proper sequence.

from-end—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

test—a designator for a function of two arguments that returns a generalized boolean.

 ${\it test-not}$ —a  ${\it designator}$  for a  ${\it function}$  of two  ${\it arguments}$  that returns a  ${\it generalized}$   ${\it boolean}$ .

start, end—bounding index designators of sequence. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

key—a designator for a function of one argument, or nil.

# remove-duplicates, delete-duplicates

result-sequence—a sequence.

## Description:

**remove-duplicates** returns a modified copy of *sequence* from which any element that matches another element occurring in *sequence* has been removed.

If sequence is a vector, the result is a vector that has the same actual array element type as sequence. If sequence is a list, the result is a list.

delete-duplicates is like remove-duplicates, but delete-duplicates may modify sequence.

The elements of *sequence* are compared *pairwise*, and if any two match, then the one occurring earlier in *sequence* is discarded, unless *from-end* is *true*, in which case the one later in *sequence* is discarded.

**remove-duplicates** and **delete-duplicates** return a *sequence* of the same *type* as *sequence* with enough elements removed so that no two of the remaining elements match. The order of the elements remaining in the result is the same as the order in which they appear in *sequence*.

remove-duplicates returns a sequence that may share with sequence or may be identical to sequence if no elements need to be removed.

**delete-duplicates**, when *sequence* is a *list*, is permitted to **setf** any part, **car** or **cdr**, of the top-level list structure in that *sequence*. When *sequence* is a *vector*, **delete-duplicates** is permitted to change the dimensions of the *vector* and to slide its elements into new positions without permuting them to produce the resulting *vector*.

## **Examples:**

```
(remove-duplicates "aBcDAbCd" :test #'char-equal :from-end t) \rightarrow "aBcD" (remove-duplicates '(a b c b d d e)) \rightarrow (A C B D E) (remove-duplicates '(a b c b d d e) :from-end t) \rightarrow (A B C D E) (remove-duplicates '((foo #\a) (bar #\%) (baz #\A)) :test #'char-equal :key #'cadr) \rightarrow ((BAR #\%) (BAZ #\A)) (remove-duplicates '((foo #\a) (bar #\%) (baz #\A)) :test #'char-equal :key #'cadr :from-end t) \rightarrow ((FOO #\a) (BAR #\%)) (setq tester (list 0 1 2 3 4 5 6)) (delete-duplicates tester :key #'oddp :start 1 :end 6) \rightarrow (0 4 5 6)
```

## Side Effects:

delete-duplicates might destructively modify sequence.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence.

#### See Also:

Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

# remove-duplicates, delete-duplicates

## Notes:

If sequence is a vector, the result might or might not be simple, and might or might not be identical to sequence.

The :test-not argument is deprecated.

These functions are useful for converting sequence into a canonical form suitable for representing a set.

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

18. Hash Tables

# 18.1 Hash Table Concepts

## 18.1.1 Hash-Table Operations

Figure 18–1 lists some defined names that are applicable to hash tables. The following rules apply to hash tables.

- A hash table can only associate one value with a given key. If an attempt is made to add a second value for a given key, the second value will replace the first. Thus, adding a value to a hash table is a destructive operation; the hash table is modified.
- There are four kinds of *hash tables*: those whose keys are compared with **eq**, those whose keys are compared with **equal**, those whose keys are compared with **equal**, and those whose keys are compared with **equal**.
- Hash tables are created by make-hash-table. gethash is used to look up a key and find the
  associated value. New entries are added to hash tables using setf with gethash. remhash
  is used to remove an entry. For example:

```
(setq a (make-hash-table)) \rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 32536573> (setf (gethash 'color a) 'brown) \rightarrow BROWN (setf (gethash 'name a) 'fred) \rightarrow FRED (gethash 'color a) \rightarrow BROWN, true (gethash 'name a) \rightarrow FRED, true (gethash 'pointy a) \rightarrow NIL, false
```

In this example, the symbols color and name are being used as keys, and the symbols brown and fred are being used as the associated values. The *hash table* has two items in it, one of which associates from color to brown, and the other of which associates from name to fred.

- A key or a value may be any *object*.
- The existence of an entry in the *hash table* can be determined from the *secondary value* returned by **gethash**.

clrhash	hash-table-p	remhash
gethash	${f make-hash-table}$	$\operatorname{sxhash}$
hash-table-count	maphash	

Figure 18-1. Hash-table defined names

## 18.1.2 Modifying Hash Table Keys

The function supplied as the :test argument to make-hash-table specifies the 'equivalence test' for the hash table it creates.

An *object* is 'visibly modified' with regard to an equivalence test if there exists some set of *objects* (or potential *objects*) which are equivalent to the *object* before the modification but are no longer equivalent afterwards.

If an object  $O_1$  is used as a key in a hash table H and is then visibly modified with regard to the equivalence test of H, then the consequences are unspecified if  $O_1$ , or any object  $O_2$  equivalent to  $O_1$  under the equivalence test (either before or after the modification), is used as a key in further operations on H. The consequences of using  $O_1$  as a key are unspecified even if  $O_1$  is visibly modified and then later modified again in such a way as to undo the visible modification.

Following are specifications of the modifications which are visible to the equivalence tests which must be supported by *hash tables*. The modifications are described in terms of modification of components, and are defined recursively. Visible modifications of components of the *object* are visible modifications of the *object*.

## 18.1.2.1 Visible Modification of Objects with respect to EQ and EQL

No standardized function is provided that is capable of visibly modifying an object with regard to eq or eql.

## 18.1.2.2 Visible Modification of Objects with respect to EQUAL

As a consequence of the behavior for equal, the rules for visible modification of *objects* not explicitly mentioned in this section are inherited from those in Section 18.1.2.1 (Visible Modification of Objects with respect to EQ and EQL).

#### 18.1.2.2.1 Visible Modification of Conses with respect to EQUAL

Any visible change to the car or the cdr of a cons is considered a visible modification with regard to equal.

#### 18.1.2.2.2 Visible Modification of Bit Vectors and Strings with respect to EQUAL

For a vector of type bit-vector or of type string, any visible change to an active element of the vector, or to the length of the vector (if it is actually adjustable or has a fill pointer) is considered a visible modification with regard to equal.

#### 18.1.2.3 Visible Modification of Objects with respect to EQUALP

As a consequence of the behavior for equalp, the rules for visible modification of *objects* not explicitly mentioned in this section are inherited from those in Section 18.1.2.2 (Visible Modification of Objects with respect to EQUAL).

## 18.1.2.3.1 Visible Modification of Structures with respect to EQUALP

Any visible change to a *slot* of a *structure* is considered a visible modification with regard to **equalp**.

## 18.1.2.3.2 Visible Modification of Arrays with respect to EQUALP

In an array, any visible change to an active element, to the fill pointer (if the array can and does have one), or to the dimensions (if the array is actually adjustable) is considered a visible modification with regard to equalp.

## 18.1.2.3.3 Visible Modification of Hash Tables with respect to EQUALP

In a *hash table*, any visible change to the count of entries in the *hash table*, to the keys, or to the values associated with the keys is considered a visible modification with regard to equalp.

Note that the visibility of modifications to the keys depends on the equivalence test of the *hash* table, not on the specification of equalp.

## 18.1.2.4 Visible Modifications by Language Extensions

Implementations that extend the language by providing additional mutator functions (or additional behavior for existing mutator functions) must document how the use of these extensions interacts with equivalence tests and hash table searches.

Implementations that extend the language by defining additional acceptable equivalence tests for hash tables (allowing additional values for the :test argument to make-hash-table) must document the visible components of these tests.

hash-table System Class

## Class Precedence List:

hash-table, t

## Description:

Hash tables provide a way of mapping any object (a key) to an associated object (a value).

### See Also:

Section 18.1 (Hash Table Concepts), Section 22.1.3.13 (Printing Other Objects)

#### Notes:

The intent is that this mapping be implemented by a hashing mechanism, such as that described in Section 6.4 "Hashing" of *The Art of Computer Programming, Volume 3* (pp506-549). In spite of this intent, no *conforming implementation* is required to use any particular technique to implement the mapping.

# make-hash-table

Function

## Syntax:

make-hash-table &key test size rehash-size rehash-threshold  $\rightarrow$  hash-table

## **Arguments and Values:**

test—a designator for one of the functions eq, eql, equal, or equalp. The default is eql.

size—a non-negative integer. The default is implementation-dependent.

rehash-size—a real of type (or (integer 1 \*) (float (1.0) \*)). The default is implementation-dependent.

rehash-threshold—a real of type (real 0 1). The default is implementation-dependent.

hash-table—a hash table.

## Description:

Creates and returns a new hash table.

test determines how keys are compared. An object is said to be present in the hash-table if that object is the same under the test as the key for some entry in the hash-table.

size is a hint to the *implementation* about how much initial space to allocate in the *hash-table*. This information, taken together with the *rehash-threshold*, controls the approximate number of entries which it should be possible to insert before the table has to grow. The actual size might be

rounded up from *size* to the next 'good' size; for example, some *implementations* might round to the next prime number.

rehash-size specifies a minimum amount to increase the size of the hash-table when it becomes full enough to require rehashing; see rehash-theshold below. If rehash-size is an integer, the expected growth rate for the table is additive and the integer is the number of entries to add; if it is a float, the expected growth rate for the table is multiplicative and the float is the ratio of the new size to the old size. As with size, the actual size of the increase might be rounded up.

rehash-threshold specifies how full the hash-table can get before it must grow. It specifies the maximum desired hash-table occupancy level.

The values of rehash-size and rehash-threshold do not constrain the implementation to use any particular method for computing when and by how much the size of hash-table should be enlarged. Such decisions are implementation-dependent, and these values only hints from the programmer to the implementation, and the implementation is permitted to ignore them.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq table (make-hash-table)) \rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 46142754> (setf (gethash "one" table) 1) \rightarrow 1 (gethash "one" table) \rightarrow NIL, false (setq table (make-hash-table :test 'equal)) \rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQUAL 0/139 46145547> (setf (gethash "one" table) 1) \rightarrow 1 (gethash "one" table) \rightarrow 1, T (make-hash-table :rehash-size 1.5 :rehash-threshold 0.7) \rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 46156620>
```

## See Also:

gethash, hash-table

# hash-table-p

*Function* 

## Syntax:

```
hash-table-p object 	o generalized-boolean
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## Description:

Returns *true* if *object* is of *type* hash-table; otherwise, returns *false*.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq table (make-hash-table)) \rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 32511220> (hash-table-p table) \rightarrow true (hash-table-p 37) \rightarrow false (hash-table-p '((a . 1) (b . 2))) \rightarrow false
```

## Notes:

 $(hash-table-p \ object) \equiv (typep \ object \ 'hash-table)$ 

## hash-table-count

*Function* 

## Syntax:

 $hash-table-count\ \it{hash-table}\ 
ightarrow \it{count}$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

 $\textit{hash-table} \text{---} a \ \textit{hash table}.$ 

count—a non-negative integer.

## Description:

Returns the number of entries in the *hash-table*. If *hash-table* has just been created or newly cleared (see **clrhash**) the entry count is 0.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq table (make-hash-table)) \rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 32115135> (hash-table-count table) \rightarrow 0 (setf (gethash 57 table) "fifty-seven") \rightarrow "fifty-seven" (hash-table-count table) \rightarrow 1 (dotimes (i 100) (setf (gethash i table) i)) \rightarrow NIL (hash-table-count table) \rightarrow 100
```

#### Affected By:

clrhash, remhash, setf of gethash

## See Also:

hash-table-size

## **Notes:**

The following relationships are functionally correct, although in practice using **hash-table-count** is probably much faster:

# hash-table-rehash-size

Function

## Syntax:

hash-table-rehash-size hash-table  $\rightarrow$  rehash-size

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
hash-table—a hash table.

rehash-size—a real of type (or (integer 1 *) (float (1.0) *)).
```

## Description:

Returns the current rehash size of *hash-table*, suitable for use in a call to **make-hash-table** in order to produce a *hash table* with state corresponding to the current state of the *hash-table*.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq table (make-hash-table :size 100 :rehash-size 1.4)) \to #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/100 2556371> (hash-table-rehash-size table) \to 1.4
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if hash-table is not a hash table.

#### See Also:

make-hash-table, hash-table-rehash-threshold

## Notes:

If the hash table was created with an *integer* rehash size, the result is an *integer*, indicating that the rate of growth of the *hash-table* when rehashed is intended to be additive; otherwise, the result

is a *float*, indicating that the rate of growth of the *hash-table* when rehashed is intended to be multiplicative. However, this value is only advice to the *implementation*; the actual amount by which the *hash-table* will grow upon rehash is *implementation-dependent*.

## hash-table-rehash-threshold

**Function** 

## Syntax:

 $hash-table-rehash-threshold\ \it hash-table\ 
ightarrow \it rehash-threshold$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

hash-table—a hash table.

rehash-threshold—a real of type (real 0 1).

## **Description:**

Returns the current rehash threshold of hash-table, which is suitable for use in a call to make-hash-table in order to produce a hash table with state corresponding to the current state of the hash-table.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq table (make-hash-table :size 100 :rehash-threshold 0.5))
\rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/100 2562446>
 (hash-table-rehash-threshold table) 
ightarrow 0.5
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if hash-table is not a hash table.

#### See Also:

make-hash-table, hash-table-rehash-size

# hash-table-size

Function

## Syntax:

 $hash-table-size\ \it{hash-table}\ 
ightarrow \it{size}$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

hash-table—a hash table.

*size*—a non-negative *integer*.

## **Description:**

Returns the current size of *hash-table*, which is suitable for use in a call to **make-hash-table** in order to produce a *hash table* with state corresponding to the current state of the *hash-table*.

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if hash-table is not a hash table.

## See Also:

hash-table-count, make-hash-table

## hash-table-test

Function

## **Syntax:**

hash-table-test  $hash-table \rightarrow test$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

hash-table—a hash table.

test—a function designator. For the four standardized hash table test functions (see make-hash-table), the test value returned is always a symbol. If an implementation permits additional tests, it is implementation-dependent whether such tests are returned as function objects or function names.

## **Description:**

Returns the test used for comparing keys in hash-table.

## **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if hash-table is not a hash table.

## See Also:

make-hash-table

gethash

## Syntax:

```
gethash key hash-table &optional default \rightarrow value, present-p (setf (gethash key hash-table &optional default) new-value)
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
key—an object.

hash-table—a hash table.

default—an object. The default is nil.

value—an object.

present-p—a generalized boolean.
```

## **Description:**

Value is the object in hash-table whose key is the same as key under the hash-table's equivalence test. If there is no such entry, value is the default.

*Present-p* is *true* if an entry is found; otherwise, it is *false*.

setf may be used with gethash to modify the *value* associated with a given *key*, or to add a new entry. When a gethash *form* is used as a setf *place*, any *default* which is supplied is evaluated according to normal left-to-right evaluation rules, but its *value* is ignored.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq table (make-hash-table)) \rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 32206334> (gethash 1 table) \rightarrow NIL, false (gethash 1 table 2) \rightarrow 2, false (setf (gethash 1 table) "one") \rightarrow "one" (setf (gethash 2 table "two") "two") \rightarrow "two" (gethash 1 table) \rightarrow "one", true (gethash 2 table) \rightarrow "two", true (gethash 2 table) \rightarrow NIL, false (setf (gethash nil table) \rightarrow NIL, false (setf (gethash nil table) \rightarrow NIL, true (defvar *counters* (make-hash-table)) \rightarrow *COUNTERS* (gethash 'foo *counters*) \rightarrow NIL, false (gethash 'foo *counters* 0) \rightarrow 0, false
```

```
(defmacro how-many (obj) '(values (gethash ,obj *counters* 0))) \rightarrow HOW-MANY (defun count-it (obj) (incf (how-many obj))) \rightarrow COUNT-IT (dolist (x '(bar foo foo bar bar baz)) (count-it x)) (how-many 'foo) \rightarrow 2 (how-many 'bar) \rightarrow 3 (how-many 'quux) \rightarrow 0
```

#### See Also:

remhash

## Notes:

The *secondary value*, *present-p*, can be used to distinguish the absence of an entry from the presence of an entry that has a value of *default*.

remhash Function

## Syntax:

 $\mathbf{remhash}$  key hash-table  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
key—an object.
```

hash-table—a hash table.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## **Description:**

Removes the entry for key in hash-table, if any. Returns true if there was such an entry, or false otherwise.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq table (make-hash-table)) \rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 32115666> (setf (gethash 100 table) "C") \rightarrow "C" (gethash 100 table) \rightarrow "C", true (remhash 100 table) \rightarrow true (gethash 100 table) \rightarrow NIL, false (remhash 100 table) \rightarrow false
```

## Side Effects:

The *hash-table* is modified.

# maphash

maphash Function

## Syntax:

maphash function hash-table  $\rightarrow$  nil

## **Arguments and Values:**

function—a designator for a function of two arguments, the key and the value.

hash-table—a hash table.

## **Description:**

Iterates over all entries in the *hash-table*. For each entry, the *function* is called with two *arguments*—the *key* and the *value* of that entry.

The consequences are unspecified if any attempt is made to add or remove an entry from the *hash-table* while a **maphash** is in progress, with two exceptions: the *function* can use can use **setf** of **gethash** to change the *value* part of the entry currently being processed, or it can use **remhash** to remove that entry.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq table (make-hash-table)) 
ightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 32304110>
 (dotimes (i 10) (setf (gethash i table) i)) 
ightarrow NIL
 (let ((sum-of-squares 0))
    (maphash #'(lambda (key val)
                   (let ((square (* val val)))
                      (incf sum-of-squares square)
                      (setf (gethash key table) square)))
               table)
    sum-of-squares) \rightarrow 285
 (hash-table-count table) \rightarrow 10
 (maphash #'(lambda (key val)
                 (when (oddp val) (remhash key table)))
            \texttt{table)} \, \to \, \texttt{NIL}
 (hash-table-count table) \rightarrow 5
 (maphash #'(lambda (k v) (print (list k v))) table)
(0\ 0)
(864)
(24)
(636)
(4 16)

ightarrow NIL
```

#### Side Effects:

None, other than any which might be done by the function.

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#### See Also:

loop, with-hash-table-iterator, Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

## with-hash-table-iterator

Macro

## Syntax:

with-hash-table-iterator (name hash-table)  $\{declaration\}^* \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

name—a name suitable for the first argument to macrolet.

hash-table—a form, evaluated once, that should produce a hash table.

declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.

forms—an implicit progn.

results—the values returned by forms.

## **Description:**

Within the lexical scope of the body, *name* is defined via **macrolet** such that successive invocations of (*name*) return the items, one by one, from the *hash table* that is obtained by evaluating *hash-table* only once.

An invocation (name) returns three values as follows:

- 1. A generalized boolean that is true if an entry is returned.
- 2. The key from the *hash-table* entry.
- 3. The value from the *hash-table* entry.

After all entries have been returned by successive invocations of (name), then only one value is returned, namely nil.

It is unspecified what happens if any of the implicit interior state of an iteration is returned outside the dynamic extent of the **with-hash-table-iterator** form such as by returning some closure over the invocation form.

Any number of invocations of **with-hash-table-iterator** can be nested, and the body of the innermost one can invoke all of the locally  $established\ macros$ , provided all of those macros have distinct names.

## **Examples:**

The following function should return **t** on any *hash table*, and signal an error if the usage of **with-hash-table-iterator** does not agree with the corresponding usage of **maphash**.

```
(defun test-hash-table-iterator (hash-table)
   (let ((all-entries '())
         (generated-entries '())
         (unique (list nil)))
     (maphash #'(lambda (key value) (push (list key value) all-entries))
             hash-table)
     (with-hash-table-iterator (generator-fn hash-table)
         (multiple-value-bind (more? key value) (generator-fn)
           (unless more? (return))
           (unless (eql value (gethash key hash-table unique))
             (error "Key ~S not found for value ~S" key value))
           (push (list key value) generated-entries))))
     (unless (= (length all-entries)
                (length generated-entries)
                (length (union all-entries generated-entries
                               :key #'car :test (hash-table-test hash-table))))
       (error "Generated entries and Maphash entries don't correspond"))
     t))
The following could be an acceptable definition of maphash, implemented by
with-hash-table-iterator.
 (defun maphash (function hash-table)
   (with-hash-table-iterator (next-entry hash-table)
     (loop (multiple-value-bind (more key value) (next-entry)
             (unless more (return nil))
             (funcall function key value)))))
```

## **Exceptional Situations:**

The consequences are undefined if the local function named *name established* by with-hash-table-iterator is called after it has returned *false* as its *primary value*.

## See Also:

Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

clrhash

## Syntax:

clrhash hash-table  $\rightarrow$  hash-table

## **Arguments and Values:**

hash-table—a hash table.

## **Description:**

Removes all entries from *hash-table*, and then returns that empty *hash table*.

## **Examples:**

```
(setq table (make-hash-table)) \rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 32004073> (dotimes (i 100) (setf (gethash i table) (format nil "~R" i))) \rightarrow NIL (hash-table-count table) \rightarrow 100 (gethash 57 table) \rightarrow "fifty-seven", true (clrhash table) \rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 32004073> (hash-table-count table) \rightarrow 0 (gethash 57 table) \rightarrow NIL, false
```

#### Side Effects:

The *hash-table* is modified.

sxhash

## Syntax:

sxhash  $object \rightarrow hash-code$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

object—an object.

hash-code—a non-negative fixnum.

## Description:

sxhash returns a hash code for object.

The manner in which the hash code is computed is *implementation-dependent*, but subject to certain constraints:

- 1. (equal x y) implies (= (sxhash x) (sxhash y)).
- 2. For any two objects, x and y, both of which are bit vectors, characters, conses, numbers, pathnames, strings, or symbols, and which are similar, (sxhash x) and (sxhash y) yield the same mathematical value even if x and y exist in different Lisp images of the same implementation. See Section 3.2.4 (Literal Objects in Compiled Files).
- 3. The *hash-code* for an *object* is always the *same* within a single *session* provided that the *object* is not visibly modified with regard to the equivalence test **equal**. See Section 18.1.2 (Modifying Hash Table Keys).

## sxhash

- 4. The hash-code is intended for hashing. This places no verifiable constraint on a conforming implementation, but the intent is that an implementation should make a good-faith effort to produce hash-codes that are well distributed within the range of non-negative fixnums.
- 5. Computation of the *hash-code* must terminate, even if the *object* contains circularities.

## **Examples:**

```
(= (sxhash (list 'list "ab")) (sxhash (list 'list "ab"))) \rightarrow true (= (sxhash "a") (sxhash (make-string 1 :initial-element #\a))) \rightarrow true (let ((r (make-random-state))) (= (sxhash r) (sxhash (make-random-state r)))) \rightarrow implementation-dependent
```

## Affected By:

The implementation.

#### Notes:

Many common hashing needs are satisfied by **make-hash-table** and the related functions on *hash tables*. **sxhash** is intended for use where the pre-defined abstractions are insufficient. Its main intent is to allow the user a convenient means of implementing more complicated hashing paradigms than are provided through *hash tables*.

The hash codes returned by sxhash are not necessarily related to any hashing strategy used by any other function in Common Lisp.

For *objects* of *types* that **equal** compares with **eq**, item 3 requires that the *hash-code* be based on some immutable quality of the identity of the object. Another legitimate implementation technique would be to have **sxhash** assign (and cache) a random hash code for these *objects*, since there is no requirement that *similar* but non-**eq** objects have the same hash code.

Although *similarity* is defined for *symbols* in terms of both the *symbol*'s *name* and the *packages* in which the *symbol* is *accessible*, item 3 disallows using *package* information to compute the hash code, since changes to the package status of a symbol are not visible to *equal*.

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

19. Filenames

## 19.1 Overview of Filenames

There are many kinds of *file systems*, varying widely both in their superficial syntactic details, and in their underlying power and structure. The facilities provided by Common Lisp for referring to and manipulating *files* has been chosen to be compatible with many kinds of *file systems*, while at the same time minimizing the program-visible differences between kinds of *file systems*.

Since file systems vary in their conventions for naming files, there are two distinct ways to represent filenames: as namestrings and as pathnames.

## 19.1.1 Namestrings as Filenames

A namestring is a string that represents a filename.

In general, the syntax of namestrings involves the use of implementation-defined conventions, usually those customary for the file system in which the named file resides. The only exception is the syntax of a logical pathname namestring, which is defined in this specification; see Section 19.3.1 (Syntax of Logical Pathname Namestrings).

A conforming program must never unconditionally use a literal namestring other than a logical pathname namestring because Common Lisp does not define any namestring syntax other than that for logical pathnames that would be guaranteed to be portable. However, a conforming program can, if it is careful, successfully manipulate user-supplied data which contains or refers to non-portable namestrings.

A namestring can be coerced to a pathname by the functions pathname or parse-namestring.

## 19.1.2 Pathnames as Filenames

**Pathnames** are structured *objects* that can represent, in an *implementation-independent* way, the *filenames* that are used natively by an underlying *file system*.

In addition, *pathnames* can also represent certain partially composed *filenames* for which an underlying *file system* might not have a specific *namestring* representation.

A pathname need not correspond to any file that actually exists, and more than one pathname can refer to the same file. For example, the pathname with a version of :newest might refer to the same file as a pathname with the same components except a certain number as the version. Indeed, a pathname with version :newest might refer to different files as time passes, because the meaning of such a pathname depends on the state of the file system.

Some file systems naturally use a structural model for their filenames, while others do not. Within the Common Lisp pathname model, all filenames are seen as having a particular structure, even if that structure is not reflected in the underlying file system. The nature of the mapping between structure imposed by pathnames and the structure, if any, that is used by the underlying file system is implementation-defined.

Every *pathname* has six components: a host, a device, a directory, a name, a type, and a version. By naming *files* with *pathnames*, Common Lisp programs can work in essentially the same way even in *file systems* that seem superficially quite different. For a detailed description of these components, see Section 19.2.1 (Pathname Components).

The mapping of the pathname components into the concepts peculiar to each file system is implementation-defined. There exist conceivable pathnames for which there is no mapping to a syntactically valid filename in a particular implementation. An implementation may use various strategies in an attempt to find a mapping; for example, an implementation may quietly truncate filenames that exceed length limitations imposed by the underlying file system, or ignore certain pathname components for which the file system provides no support. If such a mapping cannot be found, an error of type file-error is signaled.

The time at which this mapping and associated error signaling occurs is *implementation-dependent*. Specifically, it may occur at the time the *pathname* is constructed, when coercing a *pathname* to a *namestring*, or when an attempt is made to *open* or otherwise access the *file* designated by the *pathname*.

Figure 19–1 lists some defined names that are applicable to pathnames.

*default-pathname-defaults*	namestring	pathname-name
directory-namestring	open	pathname-type
enough-namestring	parse-namestring	pathname-version
file-namestring	pathname	pathnamep
file-string-length	${f pathname-device}$	translate-pathname
host-namestring	pathname-directory	truename
make-pathname	${f pathname-host}$	user-homedir-pathname
merge-pathnames	pathname-match-p	wild-pathname-p

Figure 19-1. Pathname Operations

# 19.1.3 Parsing Namestrings Into Pathnames

Parsing is the operation used to convert a namestring into a pathname. Except in the case of parsing logical pathname namestrings, this operation is implementation-dependent, because the format of namestrings is implementation-dependent.

A conforming implementation is free to accommodate other file system features in its pathname representation and provides a parser that can process such specifications in namestrings. Conforming programs must not depend on any such features, since those features will not be portable.

## 19.2 Pathnames

## 19.2.1 Pathname Components

A pathname has six components: a host, a device, a directory, a name, a type, and a version.

## 19.2.1.1 The Pathname Host Component

The name of the file system on which the file resides, or the name of a logical host.

## 19.2.1.2 The Pathname Device Component

Corresponds to the "device" or "file structure" concept in many host file systems: the name of a logical or physical device containing files.

## 19.2.1.3 The Pathname Directory Component

Corresponds to the "directory" concept in many host file systems: the name of a group of related files.

## 19.2.1.4 The Pathname Name Component

The "name" part of a group of files that can be thought of as conceptually related.

## 19.2.1.5 The Pathname Type Component

Corresponds to the "filetype" or "extension" concept in many host file systems. This says what kind of file this is. This component is always a *string*, nil, :wild, or :unspecific.

## 19.2.1.6 The Pathname Version Component

Corresponds to the "version number" concept in many host file systems.

The version is either a positive *integer* or a *symbol* from the following list: **nil**, :wild, :unspecific, or :newest (refers to the largest version number that already exists in the file system when reading a file, or to a version number greater than any already existing in the file system when writing a new file). Implementations can define other special version *symbols*.

# 19.2.2 Interpreting Pathname Component Values

## 19.2.2.1 Strings in Component Values

## 19.2.2.1.1 Special Characters in Pathname Components

Strings in pathname component values never contain special characters that represent separation between pathname fields, such as slash in Unix filenames. Whether separator characters are permitted as part of a string in a pathname component is implementation-defined; however, if the implementation does permit it, it must arrange to properly "quote" the character for the file system when constructing a namestring. For example,

```
;; In a TOPS-20 implementation, which uses ^V to quote (NAMESTRING (MAKE-PATHNAME :HOST "OZ" :NAME "<TEST>")) 
 \rightarrow #P"0Z:PS:^V<TEST^V>" 
 \stackrel{not}{\rightarrow} #P"0Z:PS:<TEST>"
```

## 19.2.2.1.2 Case in Pathname Components

Namestrings always use local file system case conventions, but Common Lisp functions that manipulate pathname components allow the caller to select either of two conventions for representing case in component values by supplying a value for the :case keyword argument. Figure 19–2 lists the functions relating to pathnames that permit a :case argument:

make-pathname	pathname-directory	pathname-name	
pathname-device	pathname-host	pathname-type	

Figure 19–2. Pathname functions using a :CASE argument

## 19.2.2.1.2.1 Local Case in Pathname Components

For the functions in Figure 19–2, a value of :local for the :case argument (the default for these functions) indicates that the functions should receive and yield *strings* in component values as if they were already represented according to the host *file system*'s convention for *case*.

If the *file system* supports both *cases*, *strings* given or received as *pathname* component values under this protocol are to be used exactly as written. If the file system only supports one *case*, the *strings* will be translated to that *case*.

## 19.2.2.1.2.2 Common Case in Pathname Components

For the functions in Figure 19–2, a value of :common for the :case argument that these functions should receive and yield strings in component values according to the following conventions:

- All *uppercase* means to use a file system's customary *case*.
- All lowercase means to use the opposite of the customary case.
- Mixed *case* represents itself.

Note that these conventions have been chosen in such a way that translation from :local to :common and back to :local is information-preserving.

## 19.2.2.2 Special Pathname Component Values

## 19.2.2.2.1 NIL as a Component Value

As a *pathname* component value, **nil**represents that the component is "unfilled"; see Section 19.2.3 (Merging Pathnames).

The value of any pathname component can be nil.

When constructing a *pathname*, **nil** in the host component might mean a default host rather than an actual **nil** in some *implementations*.

#### 19.2.2.2.2 :WILD as a Component Value

If :wild is the value of a *pathname* component, that component is considered to be a wildcard, which matches anything.

A conforming program must be prepared to encounter a value of :wild as the value of any pathname component, or as an element of a list that is the value of the directory component.

When constructing a *pathname*, a *conforming program* may use :wild as the value of any or all of the directory, name, type, or version component, but must not use :wild as the value of the host, or device component.

If :wild is used as the value of the directory component in the construction of a *pathname*, the effect is equivalent to specifying the list (:absolute :wild-inferiors), or the same as (:absolute :wild) in a *file system* that does not support :wild-inferiors.

## 19.2.2.2.3 :UNSPECIFIC as a Component Value

If :unspecific is the value of a pathname component, the component is considered to be "absent" or to "have no meaning" in the filename being represented by the pathname.

Whether a value of :unspecific is permitted for any component on any given file system accessible to the implementation is implementation-defined. A conforming program must never unconditionally use a :unspecific as the value of a pathname component because such a value is not guaranteed to be permissible in all implementations. However, a conforming program can, if it is careful, successfully manipulate user-supplied data which contains or refers to non-portable pathname components. And certainly a conforming program should be prepared for the possibility that any components of a pathname could be :unspecific.

When  $reading_1$  the value of any pathname component,  $conforming \ programs$  should be prepared for the value to be :unspecific.

When  $writing_1$  the value of any pathname component, the consequences are undefined if :unspecific is given for a pathname in a file system for which it does not make sense.

## 19.2.2.3.1 Relation between component values NIL and :UNSPECIFIC

If a *pathname* is converted to a *namestring*, the *symbols* **nil** and :unspecific cause the field to be treated as if it were empty. That is, both **nil** and :unspecific cause the component not to appear in the *namestring*.

However, when merging a *pathname* with a set of defaults, only a **nil** value for a component will be replaced with the default for that component, while a value of :unspecific will be left alone as if the field were "filled"; see the *function* merge-pathnames and Section 19.2.3 (Merging Pathnames).

#### 19.2.2.3 Restrictions on Wildcard Pathnames

Wildcard *pathnames* can be used with **directory** but not with **open**, and return true from **wild-pathname-p**. When examining wildcard components of a wildcard *pathname*, conforming programs must be prepared to encounter any of the following additional values in any component or any element of a *list* that is the directory component:

- The *symbol*: wild, which matches anything.
- A string containing implementation-dependent special wildcard characters.
- Any object, representing an implementation-dependent wildcard pattern.

## 19.2.2.4 Restrictions on Examining Pathname Components

The space of possible *objects* that a *conforming program* must be prepared to  $read_1$  as the value of a *pathname* component is substantially larger than the space of possible *objects* that a *conforming program* is permitted to  $write_1$  into such a component.

While the values discussed in the subsections of this section, in Section 19.2.2.2 (Special Pathname Component Values), and in Section 19.2.2.3 (Restrictions on Wildcard Pathnames) apply to values that might be seen when reading the component values, substantially more restrictive rules apply to constructing pathnames; see Section 19.2.2.5 (Restrictions on Constructing Pathnames).

When examining *pathname* components, *conforming programs* should be aware of the following restrictions.

## 19.2.2.4.1 Restrictions on Examining a Pathname Host Component

It is *implementation-dependent* what *object* is used to represent the host.

## 19.2.2.4.2 Restrictions on Examining a Pathname Device Component

The device might be a string, :wild, :unspecific, or nil.

Note that :wild might result from an attempt to  $read_1$  the pathname component, even though portable programs are restricted from  $writing_1$  such a component value; see Section 19.2.2.3 (Restrictions on Wildcard Pathnames) and Section 19.2.2.5 (Restrictions on Constructing Pathnames).

## 19.2.2.4.3 Restrictions on Examining a Pathname Directory Component

The directory might be a string, :wild, :unspecific, or nil.

The directory can be a *list* of *strings* and *symbols*. The *car* of the *list* is one of the symbols :absolute or :relative, meaning:

#### :absolute

A list whose car is the symbol :absolute represents a directory path starting from the root directory. The list (:absolute) represents the root directory. The list (:absolute "foo" "bar" "baz") represents the directory called "/foo/bar/baz" in Unix (except possibly for case).

#### :relative

A *list* whose *car* is the symbol :relative represents a directory path starting from a default directory. The list (:relative) has the same meaning as nil and hence is not used. The list (:relative "foo" "bar") represents the directory named "bar" in the directory named "foo" in the default directory.

Each remaining element of the *list* is a *string* or a *symbol*.

Each string names a single level of directory structure. The strings should contain only the directory names themselves—no punctuation characters.

In place of a string, at any point in the list, symbols can occur to indicate special file notations. Figure 19–3 lists the symbols that have standard meanings. Implementations are permitted to add additional objects of any type that is disjoint from string if necessary to represent features of their file systems that cannot be represented with the standard strings and symbols.

Supplying any non-string, including any of the symbols listed below, to a file system for which it does not make sense signals an error of type file-error. For example, Unix does not support :wild-inferiors in most implementations.

Symbol	Meaning
:wild	Wildcard match of one level of directory structure
:wild-inferiors	Wildcard match of any number of directory levels
:up	Go upward in directory structure (semantic)
:back	Go upward in directory structure (syntactic)

Figure 19-3. Special Markers In Directory Component

The following notes apply to the previous figure:

## Invalid Combinations

Using :absolute or :wild-inferiors immediately followed by :up or :back signals an error of type file-error.

## Syntactic vs Semantic

"Syntactic" means that the action of :back depends only on the pathname and not on the contents of the file system.

"Semantic" means that the action of :up depends on the contents of the file system; to resolve a pathname containing :up to a pathname whose directory component contains only :absolute and *strings* requires probing the file system.

:up differs from :back only in file systems that support multiple names for directories, perhaps via symbolic links. For example, suppose that there is a directory (:absolute "X" "Y" "Z") linked to (:absolute "A" "B" "C") and there also exist directories (:absolute "A" "B" "Q") and (:absolute "X" "Y" "Q"). Then (:absolute "X" "Y" "Z" :up "Q") designates (:absolute "A" "B" "Q") while (:absolute "X" "Y" "Z" :back "Q") designates (:absolute "X" "Y" "Q")

#### 19.2.2.4.3.1 Directory Components in Non-Hierarchical File Systems

In non-hierarchical file systems, the only valid list values for the directory component of a pathname are (:absolute string) and (:absolute :wild). :relative directories and the keywords :wild-inferiors, :up, and :back are not used in non-hierarchical file systems.

## 19.2.2.4.4 Restrictions on Examining a Pathname Name Component

The name might be a string, :wild, :unspecific, or nil.

## 19.2.2.4.5 Restrictions on Examining a Pathname Type Component

The type might be a string, :wild, :unspecific, or nil.

## 19.2.2.4.6 Restrictions on Examining a Pathname Version Component

The version can be any *symbol* or any *integer*.

The symbol :newest refers to the largest version number that already exists in the *file system* when reading, overwriting, appending, superseding, or directory listing an existing *file*. The symbol :newest refers to the smallest version number greater than any existing version number when creating a new file.

The symbols nil, :unspecific, and :wild have special meanings and restrictions; see Section 19.2.2.2 (Special Pathname Component Values) and Section 19.2.2.5 (Restrictions on Constructing Pathnames).

Other symbols and integers have implementation-defined meaning.

## 19.2.2.4.7 Notes about the Pathname Version Component

It is suggested, but not required, that implementations do the following:

- Use positive *integers* starting at 1 as version numbers.
- Recognize the symbol :oldest to designate the smallest existing version number.
- ullet Use keywords for other special versions.

## 19.2.2.5 Restrictions on Constructing Pathnames

When constructing a pathname from components, conforming programs must follow these rules:

- Any component can be nil. nil in the host might mean a default host rather than an actual nil in some implementations.
- The host, device, directory, name, and type can be *strings*. There are *implementation-dependent* limits on the number and type of *characters* in these *strings*.
- The directory can be a *list* of *strings* and *symbols*. There are *implementation-dependent* limits on the *list*'s length and contents.
- The version can be :newest.
- Any component can be taken from the corresponding component of another *pathname*. When the two *pathnames* are for different file systems (in implementations that support multiple file systems), an appropriate translation occurs. If no meaningful translation is possible, an error is signaled. The definitions of "appropriate" and "meaningful" are *implementation-dependent*.
- An implementation might support other values for some components, but a portable
  program cannot use those values. A conforming program can use implementation-dependent
  values but this can make it non-portable; for example, it might work only with Unix file
  systems.

# 19.2.3 Merging Pathnames

Merging takes a *pathname* with unfilled components and supplies values for those components from a source of defaults.

If a component's value is **nil**, that component is considered to be unfilled. If a component's value is any *non-nil object*, including :unspecific, that component is considered to be filled.

Except as explicitly specified otherwise, for functions that manipulate or inquire about *files* in the *file system*, the pathname argument to such a function is merged with \*default-pathname-defaults\* before accessing the *file system* (as if by merge-pathnames).

## 19.2.3.1 Examples of Merging Pathnames

Although the following examples are possible to execute only in *implementations* which permit :unspecific in the indicated position andwhich permit four-letter type components, they serve to illustrate the basic concept of *pathname* merging.

# 19.3 Logical Pathnames

## 19.3.1 Syntax of Logical Pathname Namestrings

The syntax of a *logical pathname namestring* is as follows. (Note that unlike many notational descriptions in this document, this is a syntactic description of character sequences, not a structural description of *objects*.)

```
logical-pathname::=[↓host host-marker]
                       [\prelative-directory-marker] {\psi directory directory-marker}*
                       [\plant name | [type-marker \priv type [version-marker \priv version]]
  host:=\downarrow word
  directory::=↓word | ↓wildcard-word | ↓wild-inferiors-word
  name::=↓word | ↓wildcard-word
  type:= \downarrow word \mid \downarrow wildcard-word
  version::=↓pos-int | newest-word | wildcard-version
host-marker—a colon.
relative-directory-marker—a semicolon.
directory-marker—a semicolon.
type-marker—a dot.
version-marker—a dot.
wild-inferiors-word—The two character sequence "**" (two asterisks).
newest-word—The six character sequence "newest" or the six character sequence "NEWEST".
wildcard-version—an asterisk.
wildcard-word—one or more asterisks, uppercase letters, digits, and hyphens, including at least one
asterisk, with no two asterisks adjacent.
word—one or more uppercase letters, digits, and hyphens.
pos-int—a positive integer.
```

## 19.3.1.1 Additional Information about Parsing Logical Pathname Namestrings

## 19.3.1.1.1 The Host part of a Logical Pathname Namestring

The *host* must have been defined as a *logical pathname* host; this can be done by using **setf** of **logical-pathname-translations**.

The logical pathname host name "SYS" is reserved for the implementation. The existence and meaning of SYS: logical pathnames is implementation-defined.

## 19.3.1.1.2 The Device part of a Logical Pathname Namestring

There is no syntax for a *logical pathname* device since the device component of a *logical pathname* is always :unspecific; see Section 19.3.2.1 (Unspecific Components of a Logical Pathname).

## 19.3.1.1.3 The Directory part of a Logical Pathname Namestring

If a *relative-directory-marker* precedes the *directories*, the directory component parsed is as *relative*; otherwise, the directory component is parsed as *absolute*.

If a wild-inferiors-marker is specified, it parses into :wild-inferiors.

## 19.3.1.1.4 The Type part of a Logical Pathname Namestring

The *type* of a *logical pathname* for a *source file* is "LISP". This should be translated into whatever type is appropriate in a physical pathname.

## 19.3.1.1.5 The Version part of a Logical Pathname Namestring

Some file systems do not have versions. Logical pathname translation to such a file system ignores the version. This implies that a program cannot rely on being able to store more than one version of a file named by a logical pathname.

If a wildcard-version is specified, it parses into :wild.

## 19.3.1.1.6 Wildcard Words in a Logical Pathname Namestring

Each asterisk in a wildcard-word matches a sequence of zero or more characters. The wildcard-word "\*" parses into :wild; other wildcard-words parse into strings.

## 19.3.1.1.7 Lowercase Letters in a Logical Pathname Namestring

When parsing words and wildcard-words, lowercase letters are translated to uppercase.

## 19.3.1.1.8 Other Syntax in a Logical Pathname Namestring

The consequences of using characters other than those specified here in a  $logical\ pathname\ namestring$  are unspecified.

The consequences of using any value not specified here as a  $logical\ pathname$  component are unspecified.

# 19.3.2 Logical Pathname Components

## 19.3.2.1 Unspecific Components of a Logical Pathname

The device component of a *logical pathname* is always :unspecific; no other component of a *logical pathname* can be :unspecific.

## 19.3.2.2 Null Strings as Components of a Logical Pathname

The null string, "", is not a valid value for any component of a  $logical\ pathname$ .

# pathname

System Class

## Class Precedence List:

pathname, t

## **Description:**

A pathname is a structured object which represents a filename.

There are two kinds of pathnames—physical pathnames and logical pathnames.

# logical-pathname

 $System\ Class$ 

## Class Precedence List:

 ${\bf logical\text{-}pathname,\ pathname,\ t}$ 

## **Description:**

A pathname that uses a namestring syntax that is implementation-independent, and that has component values that are implementation-independent. Logical pathnames do not refer directly to filenames

## See Also:

Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 2.4.8.14 (Sharpsign P), Section 22.1.3.11 (Printing Pathnames)

# pathname

Function

## Syntax:

pathname pathspec  $\rightarrow$  pathname

## **Arguments and Values:**

pathspec—a pathname designator.

pathname—a pathname.

## **Description:**

Returns the *pathname* denoted by *pathspec*.

# pathname

If the *pathspec designator* is a *stream*, the *stream* can be either open or closed; in both cases, the **pathname** returned corresponds to the *filename* used to open the *file*. **pathname** returns the same *pathname* for a *file stream* after it is closed as it did when it was open.

If the pathspec designator is a file stream created by opening a logical pathname, a logical pathname is returned.

## **Examples:**

```
;; There is a great degree of variability permitted here. The next
 ;; several examples are intended to illustrate just a few of the many
 ;; possibilities. Whether the name is canonicalized to a particular
 ;; case (either upper or lower) depends on both the file system and the
 ;; implementation since two different implementations using the same
 ;; file system might differ on many issues. How information is stored
 ;; internally (and possibly presented in #S notation) might vary,
 ;; possibly requiring 'accessors' such as PATHNAME-NAME to perform case
 ;; conversion upon access. The format of a namestring is dependent both
 ;; on the file system and the implementation since, for example, one
 ;; implementation might include the host name in a namestring, and
 ;; another might not. #S notation would generally only be used in a
 ;; situation where no appropriate namestring could be constructed for use
 ;; with #P.
 (setq p1 (pathname "test"))
\rightarrow #P"CHOCOLATE:TEST"; with case canonicalization (e.g., VMS)
\stackrel{\mathit{or}}{	o} #P"VANILLA:test" ; without case canonicalization (e.g., Unix)
\overset{or}{
ightarrow} #P"test"
\stackrel{
ightarrow}{
ightarrow} #F test \stackrel{
ightarrow}{
ightarrow} #S(PATHNAME :HOST "STRAWBERRY" :NAME "TEST")
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} #S(PATHNAME :HOST "BELGIAN-CHOCOLATE" :NAME "test")
 (setq p2 (pathname "test"))

ightarrow #P"CHOCOLATE:TEST"
\stackrel{\longrightarrow}{or} #P"VANILLA:test"
\stackrel{\overrightarrow{or}}{\rightarrow} #P"test"
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} #S(PATHNAME :HOST "STRAWBERRY" :NAME "TEST")
\stackrel{or}{
ightarrow} #S(PATHNAME :HOST "BELGIAN-CHOCOLATE" :NAME "test")
 (pathnamep p1) 
ightarrow true
 (eq p1 (pathname p1)) 
ightarrow true
 (eq p1 p2)
 \rightarrow true
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} false
 (with-open-file (stream "test" :direction :output)
   (pathname stream))

ightarrow #P"ORANGE-CHOCOLATE:>Gus>test.lisp.newest"
```

#### See Also:

pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as

Filenames)

# make-pathname

**Function** 

## Syntax:

 $\mathbf{make-pathname}$  &key host device directory name type version defaults case  $\rightarrow$  pathname

## **Arguments and Values:**

host—a valid physical pathname host. Complicated defaulting behavior; see below.

device—a valid pathname device. Complicated defaulting behavior; see below.

directory—a valid pathname directory. Complicated defaulting behavior; see below.

name—a valid pathname name. Complicated defaulting behavior; see below.

type—a valid pathname type. Complicated defaulting behavior; see below.

version—a valid pathname version. Complicated defaulting behavior; see below.

defaults—a pathname designator. The default is a pathname whose host component is the same as the host component of the value of \*default-pathname-defaults\*, and whose other components are all nil.

case—one of :common or :local. The default is :local.

pathname—a pathname.

## **Description:**

Constructs and returns a pathname from the supplied keyword arguments.

After the components supplied explicitly by *host*, *device*, *directory*, *name*, *type*, and *version* are filled in, the merging rules used by **merge-pathnames** are used to fill in any unsupplied components from the defaults supplied by *defaults*.

Whenever a *pathname* is constructed the components may be canonicalized if appropriate. For the explanation of the arguments that can be supplied for each component, see Section 19.2.1 (Pathname Components).

If *case* is supplied, it is treated as described in Section 19.2.2.1.2 (Case in Pathname Components).

The resulting *pathname* is a *logical pathname* if and only its host component is a *logical host* or a *string* that names a defined *logical host*.

# make-pathname

If the *directory* is a *string*, it should be the name of a top level directory, and should not contain any punctuation characters; that is, specifying a *string*, *str*, is equivalent to specifying the list (:absolute *str*). Specifying the symbol :wild is equivalent to specifying the list (:absolute :wild-inferiors), or (:absolute :wild) in a file system that does not support :wild-inferiors.

## **Examples:**

```
;; Implementation A - an implementation with access to a single
 ;; Unix file system. This implementation happens to never display
 ;; the 'host' information in a namestring, since there is only one host.
 (make-pathname :directory '(:absolute "public" "games")
                :name "chess" :type "db")
→ #P"/public/games/chess.db"
 ;; Implementation B - an implementation with access to one or more
 ;; VMS file systems. This implementation displays 'host' information
 ;; in the namestring only when the host is not the local host.
 ;; It uses a double colon to separate a host name from the host's local
 ;; file name.
 (make-pathname :directory '(:absolute "PUBLIC" "GAMES")
                :name "CHESS" :type "DB")
→ #P"SYS$DISK: [PUBLIC.GAMES] CHESS.DB"
 (make-pathname :host "BOBBY"
                :directory '(:absolute "PUBLIC" "GAMES")
                :name "CHESS" :type "DB")
→ #P"BOBBY::SYS$DISK:[PUBLIC.GAMES]CHESS.DB"
 ;; Implementation C - an implementation with simultaneous access to
 ;; multiple file systems from the same Lisp image. In this
 ;; implementation, there is a convention that any text preceding the
 ;; first colon in a pathname namestring is a host name.
 (dolist (case '(:common :local))
   (dolist (host '("MY-LISPM" "MY-VAX" "MY-UNIX"))
     (print (make-pathname :host host :case case
                           :directory '(:absolute "PUBLIC" "GAMES")
                           :name "CHESS" :type "DB"))))
▷ #P"MY-LISPM:>public>games>chess.db"
▶ #P"MY-VAX:SYS$DISK: [PUBLIC.GAMES] CHESS.DB"
▷ #P"MY-UNIX:/public/games/chess.db"
▷ #P"MY-LISPM:>public>games>chess.db"
▶ #P"MY-VAX:SYS$DISK: [PUBLIC.GAMES] CHESS.DB"
```

```
\begin{tabular}{ll} $ & $\mathsf{PP''MY-UNIX:/PUBLIC/GAMES/CHESS.DB''} \\ \to & \mathsf{NIL} \\ \end{tabular}
```

## Affected By:

The file system.

#### See Also:

merge-pathnames, pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

## Notes:

Portable programs should not supply :unspecific for any component. See Section 19.2.2.2.3 (:UNSPECIFIC as a Component Value).

# pathnamep

Function

## Syntax:

 $pathnamep\ object\ o generalized-boolean$ 

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

## Description:

Returns *true* if *object* is of *type* **pathname**; otherwise, returns *false*.

## **Examples:**

```
\label{eq:control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_co
```

## Notes:

```
(pathnamep object) ≡ (typep object 'pathname)
```

# pathname-host, pathname-device, pathname-directory, pathname-name, pathname-type, pathname-version Function

## Syntax:

```
pathname-host pathname &key case \rightarrow host
pathname-device pathname &key case \rightarrow device
pathname-directory pathname &key case \rightarrow directory
pathname-name pathname &key case \rightarrow name
pathname-type pathname &key case \rightarrow type
pathname-version pathname \rightarrow version
```

## **Arguments and Values:**

```
pathname—a pathname designator.

case—one of :local or :common. The default is :local.

host—a valid pathname host.

device—a valid pathname device.

directory—a valid pathname directory.

name—a valid pathname name.

type—a valid pathname type.

version—a valid pathname version.
```

## Description:

These functions return the components of pathname.

If the *pathname* designator is a *pathname*, it represents the name used to open the file. This may be, but is not required to be, the actual name of the file.

If case is supplied, it is treated as described in Section 19.2.2.1.2 (Case in Pathname Components).

## **Examples:**

# pathname-host, pathname-device, ...

```
(setq q (make-pathname :host "KATHY"
                          :directory "CHAPMAN"
                          :name "LOGIN" :type "COM"))
→ #P"KATHY::[CHAPMAN]LOGIN.COM"
 (pathname-host q) \rightarrow "KATHY"
 (pathname-name q) \rightarrow "LOGIN"
 (pathname-type q) \rightarrow "COM"
 ;; Because namestrings are used, the results shown in the remaining
 ;; examples are not necessarily the only possible results. Mappings
 ;; from namestring representation to pathname representation are
 ;; dependent both on the file system involved and on the implementation
 ;; (since there may be several implementations which can manipulate the
 ;; the same file system, and those implementations are not constrained
 ;; to agree on all details). Consult the documentation for each
 ;; implementation for specific information on how namestrings are treated
 ;; that implementation.
 ;; VMS
 (pathname-directory (parse-namestring "[FOO.*.BAR]BAZ.LSP"))
\rightarrow (:ABSOLUTE "FOO" "BAR")
 (pathname-directory (parse-namestring "[FOO.*.BAR]BAZ.LSP") :case :common)
\rightarrow (:ABSOLUTE "FOO" "BAR")
 ;; Unix
 (pathname-directory "foo.1") 
ightarrow NIL
 (pathname-device "foo.1") 
ightarrow :UNSPECIFIC
 (pathname-name "foo.1") 
ightarrow "foo"
 (pathname-name "foo.1" :case :local) 
ightarrow "foo"
 (pathname-name "foo.1" :case :common) 
ightarrow "F00"
 (pathname-type "foo.1") \rightarrow "1"
 (pathname-type "foo.1" :case :local) \rightarrow "1"
 (pathname-type "foo.1" :case :common) \rightarrow "L"
 (pathname-type "foo") 
ightarrow :UNSPECIFIC
 (pathname-type "foo" :case :common) 
ightarrow :UNSPECIFIC
 (pathname-type "foo.") \rightarrow ""
 (pathname-type "foo." :case :common) \rightarrow ""
 (pathname-directory (parse-namestring "/foo/bar/baz.lisp") :case :local)

ightarrow (:ABSOLUTE "foo" "bar")
 (pathname-directory (parse-namestring "/foo/bar/baz.lisp") :case :local)

ightarrow (:ABSOLUTE "FOO" "BAR")
 (pathname-directory (parse-namestring "../baz.lisp"))
\rightarrow (:RELATIVE :UP)
 (PATHNAME-DIRECTORY (PARSE-NAMESTRING "/foo/BAR/../Mum/baz"))

ightarrow (:ABSOLUTE "foo" "BAR" :UP "Mum")
```

```
(PATHNAME-DIRECTORY (PARSE-NAMESTRING "/foo/BAR/../Mum/baz") :case :common)
→ (:ABSOLUTE "F00" "bar" :UP "Mum")
(PATHNAME-DIRECTORY (PARSE-NAMESTRING "/foo/*/bar/baz.1"))
→ (:ABSOLUTE "foo" :WILD "bar")
(PATHNAME-DIRECTORY (PARSE-NAMESTRING "/foo/*/bar/baz.1") :case :common)
→ (:ABSOLUTE "F00" :WILD "BAR")

;; Symbolics LMFS
(pathname-directory (parse-namestring ">foo>**>bar>baz.lisp"))
→ (:ABSOLUTE "foo" :WILD-INFERIORS "bar")
(pathname-directory (parse-namestring ">foo>**>bar>baz.lisp"))
→ (:ABSOLUTE "foo" :WILD "bar")
(pathname-directory (parse-namestring ">foo>*>bar>baz.lisp") :case :common)
→ (:ABSOLUTE "F00" :WILD "BAR")
(pathname-device (parse-namestring ">foo>baz.lisp")) → :UNSPECIFIC
```

# Affected By:

The implementation and the host file system.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if its first argument is not a pathname.

#### See Also:

pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

# load-logical-pathname-translations

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

load-logical-pathname-translations  $host \rightarrow just-loaded$ 

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
host—a string.
```

just-loaded—a generalized boolean.

# **Description:**

Searches for and loads the definition of a *logical host* named *host*, if it is not already defined. The specific nature of the search is *implementation-defined*.

If the *host* is already defined, no attempt to find or load a definition is attempted, and *false* is returned. If the *host* is not already defined, but a definition is successfully found and loaded, *true* is returned. Otherwise, an error is signaled.

### **Examples:**

```
\label{eq:continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous_continuous
```

# **Exceptional Situations:**

If no definition is found, an error of type **error** is signaled.

#### See Also:

logical-pathname

#### Notes:

Logical pathname definitions will be created not just by *implementors* but also by *programmers*. As such, it is important that the search strategy be documented. For example, an *implementation* might define that the definition of a *host* is to be found in a file called "*host*.translations" in some specifically named directory.

# logical-pathname-translations

Accessor

### Syntax:

```
logical-pathname-translations host \rightarrow translations (setf (logical-pathname-translations host) new-translations)
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
host-a logical host designator.
```

translations, new-translations—a list.

# logical-pathname-translations

# **Description:**

Returns the host's *list* of translations. Each translation is a *list* of at least two elements: from-wildcard and to-wildcard. Any additional elements are implementation-defined. From-wildcard is a logical pathname whose host is host. To-wildcard is a pathname.

(setf (logical-pathname-translations host) translations) sets a logical pathname host's list of translations. If host is a string that has not been previously used as a logical pathname host, a new logical pathname host is defined; otherwise an existing host's translations are replaced. logical pathname host names are compared with string-equal.

When setting the translations list, each from-wildcard can be a logical pathname whose host is host or a logical pathname namestring parseable by (parse-namestring string host), where host represents the appropriate object as defined by parse-namestring. Each to-wildcard can be anything coercible to a pathname by (pathname to-wildcard). If to-wildcard coerces to a logical pathname, translate-logical-pathname will perform repeated translation steps when it uses it.

host is either the host component of a *logical pathname* or a *string* that has been defined as a *logical pathname* host name by **setf** of **logical-pathname-translations**.

# **Examples:**

```
;;;A very simple example of setting up a logical pathname host. No
;;;translations are necessary to get around file system restrictions, so
;;;all that is necessary is to specify the root of the physical directory
;;;tree that contains the logical file system.
;;; The namestring syntax on the right-hand side is implementation-dependent.
(setf (logical-pathname-translations "foo")
       ,(("**:*.*.*"
                                  "MY-LISPM:>library>foo>**>")))
;;;Sample use of that logical pathname. The return value
;;;is implementation-dependent.
(translate-logical-pathname "foo:bar;baz;mum.quux.3")
→ #P"MY-LISPM:>library>foo>bar>baz>mum.quux.3"
;;;A more complex example, dividing the files among two file servers
;;;and several different directories. This Unix doesn't support
;;;:WILD-INFERIORS in the directory, so each directory level must
;;; be translated individually. No file name or type translations
;;; are required except for .MAIL to .MBX.
;;;The namestring syntax on the right-hand side is implementation-dependent.
        - PLOS /
"MY-UNIX:/sys/bin/my-prog/")
("RELEASED;*;*.*.*" "MY-UNIX:/c--/" '
(setf (logical-pathname-translations "prog")
       '(("RELEASED;*.*.*"
                                 "MY-UNIX:/sys/bin/my-prog/*/")
         ("EXPERIMENTAL; *.*.*" "MY-UNIX:/usr/Joe/development/prog/")
```

# logical-pathname-translations

```
("EXPERIMENTAL; DOCUMENTATION; *.*.*"
                                  "MY-VAX:SYS$DISK:[JOE.DOC]")
         ("EXPERIMENTAL; *; *. *. *" "MY-UNIX: /usr/Joe/development/prog/*/")
         ("MAIL; **; *. MAIL"
                                 "MY-VAX:SYS$DISK:[JOE.MAIL.PROG...]*.MBX")))
;;;Sample use of that logical pathname. The return value
;;;is implementation-dependent.
(translate-logical-pathname "prog:mail;save;ideas.mail.3")
→ #P"MY-VAX:SYS$DISK:[JOE.MAIL.PROG.SAVE]IDEAS.MBX.3"
;;; Example translations for a program that uses three files main.lisp,
;;;auxiliary.lisp, and documentation.lisp. These translations might be
;;;supplied by a software supplier as examples.
;;;For Unix with long file names
(setf (logical-pathname-translations "prog")
       '(("CODE;*.*.*"
                                  "/lib/prog/")))
;;;Sample use of that logical pathname. The return value
;;;is implementation-dependent.
(translate-logical-pathname "prog:code;documentation.lisp")
→ #P"/lib/prog/documentation.lisp"
;;;For Unix with 14-character file names, using .lisp as the type
(setf (logical-pathname-translations "prog")
       '(("CODE; DOCUMENTATION.*.*" "/lib/prog/docum.*")
                                   "/lib/prog/")))
         ("CODE; *. *. *"
;;;Sample use of that logical pathname. The return value
;;;is implementation-dependent.
(translate-logical-pathname "prog:code;documentation.lisp")
→ #P"/lib/prog/docum.lisp"
;;;For Unix with 14-character file names, using .1 as the type
;;;The second translation shortens the compiled file type to .b
(setf (logical-pathname-translations "prog")
                                   ,(logical-pathname "PROG:**;*.L.*"))
       '(("**;*.LISP.*"
        (,(compile-file-pathname (logical-pathname "PROG:**;*.LISP.*"))
```

# logical-pathname-translations

```
,(logical-pathname "PROG:**;*.B.*"))
         ("CODE; DOCUMENTATION.*.*" "/lib/prog/documentatio.*")
         ("CODE; *. *. *"
                                   "/lib/prog/")))
;;;Sample use of that logical pathname. The return value
;;;is implementation-dependent.
(translate-logical-pathname "prog:code;documentation.lisp")
→ #P"/lib/prog/documentatio.1"
;;; For a Cray with 6 character names and no directories, types, or versions.
(setf (logical-pathname-translations "prog")
       (let ((1 '(("MAIN" "PGMN")
                  ("AUXILIARY" "PGAUX")
                  ("DOCUMENTATION" "PGDOC")))
             (logpath (logical-pathname "prog:code;"))
             (phypath (pathname "XXX")))
           ;; Translations for source files
           (mapcar #'(lambda (x)
                       (let ((log (first x))
                             (phy (second x)))
                         (list (make-pathname :name log
                                               :type "LISP"
                                               :version :wild
                                               :defaults logpath)
                               (make-pathname :name phy
                                               :defaults phypath))))
                   1)
           ;; Translations for compiled files
           (mapcar #'(lambda (x)
                       (let* ((log (first x))
                              (phy (second x))
                              (com (compile-file-pathname
                                     (make-pathname :name log
                                                     :type "LISP"
                                                     :version :wild
                                                     :defaults logpath))))
                         (setq phy (concatenate 'string phy "B"))
                         (list com
                               (make-pathname :name phy
                                               :defaults phypath))))
                   1))))
```

```
;;;Sample use of that logical pathname. The return value ;;;is implementation-dependent. (translate-logical-pathname "prog:code;documentation.lisp") \rightarrow #P"PGDOC"
```

# **Exceptional Situations:**

If *host* is incorrectly supplied, an error of *type* **type-error** is signaled.

#### See Also:

logical-pathname, Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

#### Notes:

Implementations can define additional functions that operate on logical pathname hosts, for example to specify additional translation rules or options.

# logical-pathname

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

logical-pathname pathspec ightarrow logical-pathname

# **Arguments and Values:**

pathspec—a logical pathname, a logical pathname namestring, or a stream.

logical-pathname—a logical pathname.

#### **Description:**

**logical-pathname** converts *pathspec* to a *logical pathname* and returns the new *logical pathname*. If *pathspec* is a *logical pathname namestring*, it should contain a host component and its following *colon*. If *pathspec* is a *stream*, it should be one for which **pathname** returns a *logical pathname*.

If pathspec is a stream, the stream can be either open or closed. logical-pathname returns the same logical pathname after a file is closed as it did when the file was open. It is an error if pathspec is a stream that is created with make-two-way-stream, make-echo-stream, make-broadcast-stream, make-concatenated-stream, make-string-input-stream, or make-string-output-stream.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Signals an error of type type-error if pathspec isn't supplied correctly.

#### See Also:

logical-pathname, translate-logical-pathname, Section 19.3 (Logical Pathnames)

# \*default-pathname-defaults\*

Variable

### Value Type:

a pathname object.

#### **Initial Value:**

An *implementation-dependent pathname*, typically in the working directory that was current when Common Lisp was started up.

### **Description:**

a pathname, used as the default whenever a function needs a default pathname and one is not supplied.

# **Examples:**

```
;; This example illustrates a possible usage for a hypothetical Lisp running on a
;; DEC TOPS-20 file system. Since pathname conventions vary between Lisp
;; implementations and host file system types, it is not possible to provide a
;; general-purpose, conforming example.
*default-pathname-defaults* \rightarrow #P"PS:<FRED>"
(merge-pathnames (make-pathname :name "CALENDAR"))
\rightarrow #P"PS:<FRED>CALENDAR"
(let ((*default-pathname-defaults* (pathname "<MARY>")))
    (merge-pathnames (make-pathname :name "CALENDAR")))
\rightarrow #P"<MARY>CALENDAR"
```

#### Affected By:

The implementation.

# namestring, file-namestring, directory-namestring, host-namestring, enough-namestring Function

#### Syntax:

```
namestring pathname \rightarrow namestring

file-namestring pathname \rightarrow namestring

directory-namestring pathname \rightarrow namestring

host-namestring pathname \rightarrow namestring

enough-namestring pathname &optional defaults \rightarrow namestring
```

# namestring, file-namestring, directory-namestring, ...

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
pathname—a pathname designator.

defaults—a pathname designator. The default is the value of *default-pathname-defaults*.

namestring—a string or nil.
```

# **Description:**

These functions convert *pathname* into a namestring. The name represented by *pathname* is returned as a *namestring* in an *implementation-dependent* canonical form.

namestring returns the full form of pathname.

file-namestring returns just the name, type, and version components of pathname.

directory-namestring returns the directory name portion.

host-namestring returns the host name.

**enough-namestring** returns an abbreviated namestring that is just sufficient to identify the file named by *pathname* when considered relative to the *defaults*. It is required that

```
(merge-pathnames (enough-namestring pathname defaults) defaults)

= (merge-pathnames (parse-namestring pathname nil defaults) defaults)
```

in all cases, and the result of **enough-namestring** is the shortest reasonable string that will satisfy this criterion.

It is not necessarily possible to construct a valid *namestring* by concatenating some of the three shorter *namestrings* in some order.

#### **Examples:**

```
(namestring
   (translate-pathname "/usr/dmr/hacks/frob.1"
                       "/usr/d*/hacks/*.1"
                       "/usr/d*/backup/hacks/backup-*.*"))
→ "/usr/dmr/backup/hacks/backup-frob.1"
 (namestring
   (translate-pathname "/usr/dmr/hacks/frob.1"
                       "/usr/d*/hacks/fr*.1"
                       "/usr/d*/backup/hacks/backup-*.*"))
→ "/usr/dmr/backup/hacks/backup-ob.1"
 ;;;This is similar to the above example but uses two different hosts,
 ;;;U: which is a Unix and V: which is a VMS. Note the translation
 ;;;of file type and alphabetic case conventions.
 (namestring
   (translate-pathname "U:/usr/dmr/hacks/frob.1"
                       "U:/usr/d*/hacks/*.1"
                       "V:SYS$DISK: [D*.BACKUP.HACKS]BACKUP-*.*"))

ightarrow "V:SYS$DISK:[DMR.BACKUP.HACKS]BACKUP-FROB.LSP"
 (namestring
   (translate-pathname "U:/usr/dmr/hacks/frob.1"
                       "U:/usr/d*/hacks/fr*.1"
                       "V:SYS$DISK: [D*.BACKUP.HACKS]BACKUP-*.*"))
→ "V:SYS$DISK: [DMR.BACKUP.HACKS]BACKUP-OB.LSP"
```

#### See Also:

truename, merge-pathnames, pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

# parse-namestring

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

parse-namestring thing &optional host default-pathname &key start end junk-allowed  $\rightarrow$  pathname, position

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
thing—a string, a pathname, or a stream associated with a file.
```

host—a  $valid\ pathname\ host$ , a  $logical\ host$ , or nil.

default-pathname—a pathname designator. The default is the value of \*default-pathname-defaults\*.

# parse-namestring

start, end—bounding index designators of thing. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

junk-allowed—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

pathname—a pathname, or nil.

position—a bounding index designator for thing.

#### **Description:**

Converts thing into a pathname.

The *host* supplies a host name with respect to which the parsing occurs.

If thing is a stream associated with a file, processing proceeds as if the pathname used to open that file had been supplied instead.

If thing is a pathname, the host and the host component of thing are compared. If they match, two values are immediately returned: thing and start; otherwise (if they do not match), an error is signaled.

Otherwise (if *thing* is a *string*), **parse-namestring** parses the name of a *file* within the substring of *thing* bounded by *start* and *end*.

If thing is a string then the substring of thing bounded by start and end is parsed into a pathname as follows:

- If host is a logical host then thing is parsed as a logical pathname namestring on the host.
- If host is nil and thing is a syntactically valid logical pathname namestring containing an explicit host, then it is parsed as a logical pathname namestring.
- If host is nil, default-pathname is a logical pathname, and thing is a syntactically valid logical pathname namestring without an explicit host, then it is parsed as a logical pathname namestring on the host that is the host component of default-pathname.
- Otherwise, the parsing of *thing* is *implementation-defined*.

In the first of these cases, the host portion of the *logical pathname* namestring and its following *colon* are optional.

If the host portion of the namestring and *host* are both present and do not match, an error is signaled.

If junk-allowed is true, then the primary value is the pathname parsed or, if no syntactically correct pathname was seen, nil. If junk-allowed is false, then the entire substring is scanned, and the primary value is the pathname parsed.

In either case, the secondary value is the index into thing of the delimiter that terminated the

parse, or the index beyond the substring if the parse terminated at the end of the substring (as will always be the case if *junk-allowed* is *false*).

Parsing a  $null\ string$  always succeeds, producing a pathname with all components (except the host) equal to nil.

If *thing* contains an explicit host name and no explicit device name, then it is *implementation-defined* whether **parse-namestring** will supply the standard default device for that host as the device component of the resulting *pathname*.

### **Examples:**

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

If *junk-allowed* is *false*, an error of *type* **parse-error** is signaled if *thing* does not consist entirely of the representation of a *pathname*, possibly surrounded on either side by *whitespace*<sub>1</sub> characters if that is appropriate to the cultural conventions of the implementation.

If *host* is supplied and not **nil**, and *thing* contains a manifest host name, an error of *type* **error** is signaled if the hosts do not match.

If thing is a logical pathname namestring and if the host portion of the namestring and host are both present and do not match, an error of type error is signaled.

#### See Also:

pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.2.2.2.3 (:UNSPE-CIFIC as a Component Value), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

# wild-pathname-p

# wild-pathname-p

*Function* 

# Syntax:

wild-pathname-p pathname & optional field-key  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
pathname—a pathname designator.
Field-key—one of :host, :device :directory, :name, :type, :version, or nil.
generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

# **Description:**

wild-pathname-p tests pathname for the presence of wildcard components.

If *pathname* is a *pathname* (as returned by **pathname**) it represents the name used to open the file. This may be, but is not required to be, the actual name of the file.

If *field-key* is not supplied or **nil**, **wild-pathname-p** returns true if *pathname* has any wildcard components, **nil** if *pathname* has none. If *field-key* is *non-nil*, **wild-pathname-p** returns true if the indicated component of *pathname* is a wildcard, **nil** if the component is not a wildcard.

# **Examples:**

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

If pathname is not a pathname, a string, or a stream associated with a file an error of type type-error is signaled.

#### See Also:

pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

#### **Notes:**

Not all implementations support wildcards in all fields. See Section 19.2.2.2.2 (:WILD as a

Component Value) and Section 19.2.2.3 (Restrictions on Wildcard Pathnames).

# pathname-match-p

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

pathname-match-p pathname wildcard  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

# **Arguments and Values:**

pathname—a pathname designator.

wildcard—a designator for a wild pathname.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

# Description:

pathname-match-p returns true if pathname matches wildcard, otherwise nil. The matching rules are implementation-defined but should be consistent with directory. Missing components of wildcard default to :wild.

It is valid for *pathname* to be a wild *pathname*; a wildcard field in *pathname* only matches a wildcard field in *wildcard* (*i.e.*, **pathname-match-p** is not commutative). It is valid for *wildcard* to be a non-wild *pathname*.

# **Exceptional Situations:**

If pathname or wildcard is not a pathname, string, or stream associated with a file an error of type type-error is signaled.

#### See Also:

directory, pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

# translate-logical-pathname

# translate-logical-pathname

Function

# **Syntax:**

translate-logical-pathname pathname &key o physical-pathname

### Arguments and Values:

pathname—a pathname designator, or a logical pathname namestring.

physical-pathname—a physical pathname.

# Description:

Translates pathname to a physical pathname, which it returns.

If pathname is a stream, the stream can be either open or closed. translate-logical-pathname returns the same physical pathname after a file is closed as it did when the file was open. It is an error if pathname is a stream that is created with make-two-way-stream, make-echo-stream, make-broadcast-stream, make-concatenated-stream, make-string-input-stream, make-string-output-stream.

If *pathname* is a *logical pathname* namestring, the host portion of the *logical pathname* namestring and its following *colon* are required.

Pathname is first coerced to a pathname. If the coerced pathname is a physical pathname, it is returned. If the coerced pathname is a logical pathname, the first matching translation (according to pathname-match-p) of the logical pathname host is applied, as if by calling translate-pathname. If the result is a logical pathname, this process is repeated. When the result is finally a physical pathname, it is returned. If no translation matches, an error is signaled.

translate-logical-pathname might perform additional translations, typically to provide translation of file types to local naming conventions, to accommodate physical file systems with limited length names, or to deal with special character requirements such as translating hyphens to underscores or uppercase letters to lowercase. Any such additional translations are *implementation-defined*. Some implementations do no additional translations.

There are no specified keyword arguments for **translate-logical-pathname**, but implementations are permitted to extend it by adding keyword arguments.

#### **Examples:**

See logical-pathname-translations.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

If pathname is incorrectly supplied, an error of type type-error is signaled.

If no translation matches, an error of type file-error is signaled.

#### See Also:

logical-pathname, logical-pathname-translations, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

# translate-pathname

*Function* 

# Syntax:

translate-pathname source from-wildcard to-wildcard &key  $\rightarrow$  translated-pathname

# **Arguments and Values:**

source—a pathname designator.

from-wildcard—a pathname designator.

to-wildcard—a pathname designator.

translated-pathname—a pathname.

# **Description:**

translate-pathname translates source (that matches from-wildcard) into a corresponding pathname that matches to-wildcard, and returns the corresponding pathname.

The resulting pathname is to-wildcard with each wildcard or missing field replaced by a portion of source. A "wildcard field" is a pathname component with a value of :wild, a :wild element of a list-valued directory component, or an implementation-defined portion of a component, such as the "\*" in the complex wildcard string "foo\*bar" that some implementations support. An implementation that adds other wildcard features, such as regular expressions, must define how translate-pathname extends to those features. A "missing field" is a pathname component with a value of nil.

The portion of *source* that is copied into the resulting *pathname* is *implementation-defined*. Typically it is determined by the user interface conventions of the file systems involved. Usually it is the portion of *source* that matches a wildcard field of *from-wildcard* that is in the same position as the wildcard or missing field of *to-wildcard*. If there is no wildcard field in *from-wildcard* at that position, then usually it is the entire corresponding *pathname* component of *source*, or in the case of a *list-*valued directory component, the entire corresponding *list* element.

During the copying of a portion of *source* into the resulting *pathname*, additional *implementation-defined* translations of *case* or file naming conventions might occur, especially when *from-wildcard* and *to-wildcard* are for different hosts.

It is valid for *source* to be a wild *pathname*; in general this will produce a wild result. It is valid for *from-wildcard* and/or *to-wildcard* to be non-wild *pathnames*.

# translate-pathname

There are no specified keyword arguments for **translate-pathname**, but implementations are permitted to extend it by adding keyword arguments.

translate-pathname maps customary case in source into customary case in the output pathname.

# **Examples:**

```
;; The results of the following five forms are all implementation-dependent.
 ;; The second item in particular is shown with multiple results just to
 ;; emphasize one of many particular variations which commonly occurs.
 (pathname-name (translate-pathname "foobar" "foo*" "*baz")) 
ightarrow "barbaz"
 (pathname-name (translate-pathname "foobar" "foo*" "*"))

ightarrow "foobar"
\overset{or^{'}}{
ightarrow} "bar"
 (pathname-name (translate-pathname "foobar" "*"
                                                     "foo*")) 
ightarrow "foofoobar"
 (pathname-name (translate-pathname "bar" "*"
                                                     "foo*")) 
ightarrow "foobar"
 (pathname-name (translate-pathname "foobar" "foo*" "baz*")) 
ightarrow "bazbar"
 (defun translate-logical-pathname-1 (pathname rules)
   (let ((rule (assoc pathname rules :test #'pathname-match-p)))
     (unless rule (error "No translation rule for ~A" pathname))
     (translate-pathname pathname (first rule) (second rule))))
 (translate-logical-pathname-1 "FOO:CODE; BASIC.LISP"
                        '(("FOO:DOCUMENTATION;" "MY-UNIX:/doc/foo/")
                          ("FOO:CODE;"
                                                "MY-UNIX:/lib/foo/")
                          ("FOO:PATCHES;*;"
                                                "MY-UNIX:/lib/foo/patch/*/")))
→ #P"MY-UNIX:/lib/foo/basic.1"
;;;This example assumes one particular set of wildcard conventions
;;;Not all file systems will run this example exactly as written
 (defun rename-files (from to)
   (dolist (file (directory from))
     (rename-file file (translate-pathname file from to))))
 (rename-files "/usr/me/*.lisp" "/dev/her/*.l")
   ;Renames /usr/me/init.lisp to /dev/her/init.l
 (rename-files "/usr/me/pcl*/*" "/sys/pcl/*/")
   ;Renames /usr/me/pcl-5-may/low.lisp to /sys/pcl/pcl-5-may/low.lisp
   ;In some file systems the result might be /sys/pcl/5-may/low.lisp
 (rename-files "/usr/me/pcl*/*" "/sys/library/*/")
   ;Renames /usr/me/pcl-5-may/low.lisp to /sys/library/pcl-5-may/low.lisp
   ;In some file systems the result might be /sys/library/5-may/low.lisp
 (rename-files "/usr/me/foo.bar" "/usr/me2/")
   ;Renames /usr/me/foo.bar to /usr/me2/foo.bar
 (rename-files "/usr/joe/*-recipes.text" "/usr/jim/cookbook/joe's-*-rec.text")
   ;Renames /usr/joe/lamb-recipes.text to /usr/jim/cookbook/joe's-lamb-rec.text
   ;Renames /usr/joe/pork-recipes.text to /usr/jim/cookbook/joe's-pork-rec.text
```

;Renames /usr/joe/veg-recipes.text to /usr/jim/cookbook/joe's-veg-rec.text

# **Exceptional Situations:**

If any of source, from-wildcard, or to-wildcard is not a pathname, a string, or a stream associated with a file an error of type-error is signaled.

(pathname-match-p source from-wildcard) must be true or an error of type error is signaled.

#### See Also:

namestring, pathname-host, pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

#### Notes:

The exact behavior of **translate-pathname** cannot be dictated by the Common Lisp language and must be allowed to vary, depending on the user interface conventions of the file systems involved.

The following is an implementation guideline. One file system performs this operation by examining each piece of the three pathnames in turn, where a piece is a pathname component or a list element of a structured component such as a hierarchical directory. Hierarchical directory elements in from-wildcard and to-wildcard are matched by whether they are wildcards, not by depth in the directory hierarchy. If the piece in to-wildcard is present and not wild, it is copied into the result. If the piece in to-wildcard is:wild or nil, the piece in source is copied into the result. Otherwise, the piece in to-wildcard might be a complex wildcard such as "foo\*bar" and the piece in from-wildcard should be wild; the portion of the piece in source that matches the wildcard portion of the piece in from-wildcard and the value produced is used in the result.

# merge-pathnames

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} merge-pathnames pathname & \verb| & optional| default-pathname default-version \\ \rightarrow merged-pathname \\ \end{tabular}$ 

#### **Arguments and Values:**

pathname—a pathname designator.

default-version—a valid pathname version. The default is :newest.

merged-pathname—a pathname.

# merge-pathnames

# **Description:**

Constructs a *pathname* from *pathname* by filling in any unsupplied components with the corresponding values from *default-pathname* and *default-version*.

Defaulting of pathname components is done by filling in components taken from another *pathname*. This is especially useful for cases such as a program that has an input file and an output file. Unspecified components of the output pathname will come from the input pathname, except that the type should not default to the type of the input pathname but rather to the appropriate default type for output from the program; for example, see the *function* compile-file-pathname.

If no version is supplied, *default-version* is used. If *default-version* is **nil**, the version component will remain unchanged.

If pathname explicitly specifies a host and not a device, and if the host component of default-pathname matches the host component of pathname, then the device is taken from the default-pathname; otherwise the device will be the default file device for that host. If pathname does not specify a host, device, directory, name, or type, each such component is copied from default-pathname. If pathname does not specify a name, then the version, if not provided, will come from default-pathname, just like the other components. If pathname does specify a name, then the version is not affected by default-pathname. If this process leaves the version missing, the default-version is used. If the host's file name syntax provides a way to input a version without a name or type, the user can let the name and type default but supply a version different from the one in default-pathname.

If pathname is a stream, pathname effectively becomes (pathname pathname). merge-pathnames can be used on either an open or a closed stream.

If *pathname* is a *pathname* it represents the name used to open the file. This may be, but is not required to be, the actual name of the file.

merge-pathnames recognizes a logical pathname namestring when default-pathname is a logical pathname, or when the namestring begins with the name of a defined logical host followed by a colon. In the first of these two cases, the host portion of the logical pathname namestring and its following colon are optional.

merge-pathnames returns a logical pathname if and only if its first argument is a logical pathname, or its first argument is a logical pathname namestring with an explicit host, or its first argument does not specify a host and the default-pathname is a logical pathname.

Pathname merging treats a relative directory specially. If (pathname-directory pathname) is a list whose car is :relative, and (pathname-directory default-pathname) is a list, then the merged directory is the value of

except that if the resulting list contains a string or :wild immediately followed by :back,

# merge-pathnames

both of them are removed. This removal of redundant :back keywords is repeated as many times as possible. If (pathname-directory default-pathname) is not a list or (pathname-directory pathname) is not a list whose car is :relative, the merged directory is (or (pathname-directory pathname) (pathname-directory default-pathname))

merge-pathnames maps customary case in pathname into customary case in the output pathname.

# **Examples:**

### See Also:

\*default-pathname-defaults\*, pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

#### **Notes:**

The net effect is that if just a name is supplied, the host, device, directory, and type will come from *default-pathname*, but the version will come from *default-version*. If nothing or just a directory is supplied, the name, type, and version will come from *default-pathname* together.

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

20. Files

# 20.1 File System Concepts

This section describes the Common Lisp interface to file systems. The model used by this interface assumes that **files** are named by **filenames**, that a **filename** can be represented by a **pathname** object, and that given a **pathname** a **stream** can be constructed that connects to a **file** whose **filename** it represents.

For information about opening and closing *files*, and manipulating their contents, see Chapter 21 (Streams).

Figure 20–1 lists some operators that are applicable to files and directories.

compile-file	file-length	open	
delete-file	file-position	probe-file	
directory	file-write-date	rename-file	
file-author	load	with-open-file	

Figure 20-1. File and Directory Operations

### 20.1.1 Coercion of Streams to Pathnames

A stream associated with a file is either a file stream or a synonym stream whose target is a stream associated with a file. Such streams can be used as pathname designators.

Normally, when a stream associated with a file is used as a pathname designator, it denotes the pathname used to open the file; this may be, but is not required to be, the actual name of the file.

Some functions, such as **truename** and **delete-file**, coerce *streams* to *pathnames* in a different way that involves referring to the actual *file* that is open, which might or might not be the file whose name was opened originally. Such special situations are always notated specifically and are not the default.

# 20.1.2 File Operations on Open and Closed Streams

Many functions that perform file operations accept either open or closed streams as arguments; see Section 21.1.3 (Stream Arguments to Standardized Functions).

Of these, the functions in Figure 20–2 treat open and closed streams differently.

delete-file	file-author	probe-file	
${f directory}$	${f file-write-date}$	${f truename}$	

Figure 20-2. File Functions that Treat Open and Closed Streams Differently

Since treatment of open streams by the file system may vary considerably between implementations, however, a closed stream might be the most reliable kind of argument for some of these functions—in particular, those in Figure 20–3. For example, in some file systems, open files are written under temporary names and not renamed until closed and/or are held invisible until closed. In general, any code that is intended to be portable should use such functions carefully.

directory probe-file truename

Figure 20-3. File Functions where Closed Streams Might Work Best

# 20.1.3 Truenames

Many file systems permit more than one filename to designate a particular file.

Even where multiple names are possible, most *file systems* have a convention for generating a canonical *filename* in such situations. Such a canonical *filename* (or the *pathname* representing such a *filename*) is called a *truename*.

The truename of a file may differ from other filenames for the file because of symbolic links, version numbers, logical device translations in the file system, logical pathname translations within Common Lisp, or other artifacts of the file system.

The truename for a file is often, but not necessarily, unique for each file. For instance, a Unix file with multiple hard links could have several truenames.

#### 20.1.3.1 Examples of Truenames

For example, a DEC TOPS-20 system with files PS:<JOE>FOO.TXT.1 and PS:<JOE>FOO.TXT.2 might permit the second file to be referred to as PS:<JOE>FOO.TXT.0, since the ".0" notation denotes "newest" version of several files. In the same file system, a "logical device" "JOE:" might be taken to refer to PS:<JOE>" and so the names JOE:FOO.TXT.2 or JOE:FOO.TXT.0 might refer to PS:<JOE>FOO.TXT.2. In all of these cases, the truename of the file would probably be PS:<JOE>FOO.TXT.2.

If a file is a symbolic link to another file (in a file system permitting such a thing), it is conventional for the truename to be the canonical name of the file after any symbolic links have been followed; that is, it is the canonical name of the file whose contents would become available if an input stream to that file were opened.

In the case of a file still being created (that is, of an output stream open to such a file), the exact truename of the file might not be known until the stream is closed. In this case, the function truename might return different values for such a stream before and after it was closed. In fact, before it is closed, the name returned might not even be a valid name in the file system—for example, while a file is being written, it might have version: newest and might only take on a specific numeric value later when the file is closed even in a file system where all files have numeric versions.

directory

# Syntax:

directory pathspec &key  $\rightarrow$  pathnames

#### **Arguments and Values:**

pathspec—a pathname designator, which may contain wild components.

pathnames—a list of physical pathnames.

### **Description:**

Determines which, if any, files that are present in the file system have names matching pathspec, and returns a fresh list of pathnames corresponding to the truenames of those files.

An implementation may be extended to accept implementation-defined keyword arguments to directory.

#### Affected By:

The host computer's file system.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

If the attempt to obtain a directory listing is not successful, an error of type file-error is signaled.

#### See Also:

pathname, logical-pathname, ensure-directories-exist, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 21.1.1.1.2 (Open and Closed Streams), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

#### Notes:

If the *pathspec* is not *wild*, the resulting list will contain either zero or one elements.

Common Lisp specifies "&key" in the argument list to directory even though no *standardized* keyword arguments to directory are defined. ":allow-other-keys t" may be used in *conforming* programs in order to quietly ignore any additional keywords which are passed by the program but not supported by the *implementation*.

probe-file Function

#### Syntax:

probe-file pathspec  $\rightarrow$  truename

#### **Arguments and Values:**

pathspec—a pathname designator.

truename—a physical pathname or nil.

# Description:

**probe-file** tests whether a file exists.

**probe-file** returns false if there is no file named pathspec, and otherwise returns the truename of pathspec.

If the *pathspec designator* is an open *stream*, then **probe-file** produces the *truename* of its associated *file*. If *pathspec* is a *stream*, whether open or closed, it is coerced to a *pathname* as if by the *function* **pathname**.

#### Affected By:

The host computer's file system.

# **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of *type* **file-error** is signaled if **pathspec** is wild.

An error of type file-error is signaled if the file system cannot perform the requested operation.

#### See Also:

truename, open, ensure-directories-exist, pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 21.1.1.1.2 (Open and Closed Streams), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

# ensure-directories-exist

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

ensure-directories-exist pathspec &key verbose o pathspec, created

### **Arguments and Values:**

pathspec—a pathname designator.

verbose—a generalized boolean.

created—a generalized boolean.

#### Description:

Tests whether the directories containing the specified *file* actually exist, and attempts to create them if they do not.

If the containing directories do not exist and if *verbose* is *true*, then the *implementation* is permitted (but not required) to perform output to *standard output* saying what directories were created. If the containing directories exist, or if *verbose* is *false*, this function performs no output.

The *primary value* is the given *pathspec* so that this operation can be straightforwardly composed with other file manipulation expressions. The *secondary value*, *created*, is *true* if any directories were created.

# Affected By:

The host computer's file system.

# **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of type file-error is signaled if the host, device, or directory part of pathspec is wild.

If the directory creation attempt is not successful, an error of *type* file-error is signaled; if this occurs, it might be the case that none, some, or all of the requested creations have actually occurred within the *file system*.

#### See Also:

probe-file, open, Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

truename Function

# **Syntax:**

truename filespec  $\rightarrow$  truename

#### **Arguments and Values:**

filespec—a pathname designator.

truename—a physical pathname.

#### **Description:**

truename tries to find the *file* indicated by *filespec* and returns its *truename*. If the *filespec* designator is an open stream, its associated *file* is used. If *filespec* is a stream, truename can be used whether the stream is open or closed. It is permissible for truename to return more specific information after the stream is closed than when the stream was open. If *filespec* is a pathname it represents the name used to open the file. This may be, but is not required to be, the actual name of the file.

# **Examples:**

```
;; An example involving version numbers. Note that the precise nature of
;; the truename is implementation-dependent while the file is still open.
(with-open-file (stream ">vistor>test.text.newest")
  (values (pathname stream)
```

```
(truename stream)))
→ #P"S:>vistor>test.text.newest", #P"S:>vistor>test.text.1"
\stackrel{r}{\rightarrow} \text{ #P"S:>vistor>test.text.newest"}, \text{ #P"S:>vistor>test.text.newest"}
\stackrel{\longrightarrow}{\rightarrow} #P"S:>vistor>test.text.newest", #P"S:>vistor>_temp_._temp_.1"
;; In this case, the file is closed when the truename is tried, so the
;; truename information is reliable.
 (with-open-file (stream ">vistor>test.text.newest")
   (close stream)
   (values (pathname stream)
            (truename stream)))
→ #P"S:>vistor>test.text.newest", #P"S:>vistor>test.text.1"
;; An example involving TOP-20's implementation-dependent concept
;; of logical devices - in this case, "DOC:" is shorthand for
;; "PS:<DOCUMENTATION>" ...
 (with-open-file (stream "CMUC::DOC:DUMPER.HLP")
   (values (pathname stream)
            (truename stream)))
\rightarrow #P"CMUC::DOC:DUMPER.HLP", #P"CMUC::PS:<DOCUMENTATION>DUMPER.HLP.13"
```

# **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of type file-error is signaled if an appropriate file cannot be located within the file system for the given filespec, or if the file system cannot perform the requested operation.

An error of type file-error is signaled if pathname is wild.

#### See Also:

pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

#### Notes:

truename may be used to account for any filename translations performed by the file system.

file-author Function

#### Syntax:

file-author pathspec  $\rightarrow$  author

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
pathspec—a pathname designator.
author—a string or nil.
```

# **Description:**

Returns a *string* naming the author of the *file* specified by *pathspec*, or **nil** if the author's name cannot be determined.

# **Examples:**

```
(with-open-file (stream ">relativity>general.text")
  (file-author s))
→ "albert"
```

# Affected By:

The host computer's file system.

Other users of the file named by pathspec.

# **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of type file-error is signaled if pathspec is wild.

An error of type file-error is signaled if the file system cannot perform the requested operation.

#### See Also:

pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

# file-write-date

Function

#### Syntax:

file-write-date pathspec  $\rightarrow$  date

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
pathspec—a pathname designator.

date—a universal time or nil.
```

### **Description:**

Returns a *universal time* representing the time at which the *file* specified by *pathspec* was last written (or created), or returns **nil** if such a time cannot be determined.

#### **Examples:**

```
~2%attachments: milk, cookies~%")
(truename s))

→ #P"CUPID:/susan/noel.text"
(with-open-file (s "noel.text")
(file-write-date s))

→ 2902600800
```

# Affected By:

The host computer's file system.

# **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of *type* file-error is signaled if *pathspec* is *wild*.

An error of type file-error is signaled if the file system cannot perform the requested operation.

#### See Also:

Section 25.1.4.2 (Universal Time), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

rename-file Function

# Syntax:

 $\mathbf{rename\text{-}file} \ \textit{filespec new-name} \ \rightarrow \textit{defaulted-new-name, old-truename, new-truename}$ 

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
filespec—a pathname designator.

new-name—a pathname designator other than a stream.

defaulted-new-name—a pathname
old-truename—a physical pathname.

new-truename—a physical pathname.
```

#### **Description:**

**rename-file** modifies the file system in such a way that the file indicated by *filespec* is renamed to *defaulted-new-name*.

It is an error to specify a filename containing a *wild* component, for *filespec* to contain a **nil** component where the file system does not permit a **nil** component, or for the result of defaulting missing components of *new-name* from *filespec* to contain a **nil** component where the file system does not permit a **nil** component.

If new-name is a logical pathname, rename-file returns a logical pathname as its primary value.

rename-file returns three values if successful. The primary value, defaulted-new-name, is the resulting name which is composed of new-name with any missing components filled in by performing a merge-pathnames operation using filespec as the defaults. The secondary value, old-truename, is the truename of the file before it was renamed. The tertiary value, new-truename, is the truename of the file after it was renamed.

If the *filespec designator* is an open *stream*, then the *stream* itself and the file associated with it are affected (if the *file system* permits).

#### **Examples:**

### **Exceptional Situations:**

If the renaming operation is not successful, an error of type file-error is signaled.

An error of type file-error might be signaled if filespec is wild.

#### See Also:

truename, pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

delete-file Function

# Syntax:

 $\mathbf{delete\text{-}file} \; \textit{filespec} \quad \rightarrow \mathbf{t}$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

filespec—a pathname designator.

#### Description:

Deletes the *file* specified by *filespec*.

If the *filespec designator* is an open *stream*, then *filespec* and the file associated with it are affected (if the file system permits), in which case *filespec* might be closed immediately, and the deletion

might be immediate or delayed until *filespec* is explicitly closed, depending on the requirements of the file system.

It is *implementation-dependent* whether an attempt to delete a nonexistent file is considered to be successful.

delete-file returns true if it succeeds, or signals an error of type file-error if it does not.

The consequences are undefined if *filespec* has a *wild* component, or if *filespec* has a **nil** component and the file system does not permit a **nil** component.

# **Examples:**

```
(with-open-file (s "delete-me.text" :direction :output :if-exists :error)) \rightarrow NIL (setq p (probe-file "delete-me.text")) \rightarrow #P"R:>fred>delete-me.text.1" (delete-file p) \rightarrow T (probe-file "delete-me.text") \rightarrow false (with-open-file (s "delete-me.text" :direction :output :if-exists :error) (delete-file s)) \rightarrow T (probe-file "delete-me.text") \rightarrow false
```

# **Exceptional Situations:**

If the deletion operation is not successful, an error of type file-error is signaled.

An error of type file-error might be signaled if filespec is wild.

#### See Also:

pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

file-error Condition Type

#### Class Precedence List:

file-error, error, serious-condition, condition, t

#### Description:

The *type* file-error consists of error conditions that occur during an attempt to open or close a file, or during some low-level transactions with a file system. The "offending pathname" is initialized by the :pathname initialization argument to make-condition, and is *accessed* by the *function* file-error-pathname.

#### See Also:

file-error-pathname, open, probe-file, directory, ensure-directories-exist

# file-error-pathname

*Function* 

# Syntax:

file-error-pathname condition  $\rightarrow$  pathspec

# **Arguments and Values:**

condition—a condition of type file-error.

pathspec—a  $pathname\ designator$ .

# Description:

Returns the "offending path name" of a condition of  $type\ {\bf file-error}.$ 

# **Exceptional Situations:**

# See Also:

file-error, Chapter 9 (Conditions)

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

21. Streams

# 21.1 Stream Concepts

### 21.1.1 Introduction to Streams

A **stream** is an *object* that can be used with an input or output function to identify an appropriate source or sink of *characters* or *bytes* for that operation. A **character stream** is a source or sink of *characters*. A **binary stream** is a source or sink of *bytes*.

Some operations may be performed on any kind of stream; Figure 21–1 provides a list of standardized operations that are potentially useful with any kind of stream.

close	stream-element-type
input-stream-p	$\operatorname{streamp}$
interactive-stream-p	with-open-stream
output-stream-p	

Figure 21-1. Some General-Purpose Stream Operations

Other operations are only meaningful on certain *stream types*. For example, **read-char** is only defined for *character streams* and **read-byte** is only defined for *binary streams*.

#### 21.1.1.1 Abstract Classifications of Streams

### 21.1.1.1.1 Input, Output, and Bidirectional Streams

A stream, whether a character stream or a binary stream, can be an **input stream** (source of data), an **output stream** (sink for data), both, or (e.g., when ":direction :probe" is given to **open**) neither.

Figure 21–2 shows operators relating to input streams.

clear-input	read-byte	read-from-string
listen	read-char	read-line
peek-char	read-char-no-hang	read-preserving-whitespace
read	${f read-delimited-list}$	unread-char

Figure 21–2. Operators relating to Input Streams.

Figure 21–3 shows operators relating to output streams.

clear-output	prin1	write
finish-output	${f prin 1-to-string}$	write-byte
force-output	princ	write-char
format	${f princ-to-string}$	write-line
fresh-line	print	write-string
pprint	terpri	write-to-string

Figure 21-3. Operators relating to Output Streams.

A stream that is both an *input stream* and an *output stream* is called a **bidirectional stream**. See the *functions* **input-stream-p** and **output-stream-p**.

Any of the *operators* listed in Figure 21–2 or Figure 21–3 can be used with *bidirectional streams*. In addition, Figure 21–4 shows a list of *operators* that relate specifically to *bidirectional streams*.

$\overline{}$			
1	y-or-n-p	yes-or-no-p	
		-	

Figure 21-4. Operators relating to Bidirectional Streams.

#### 21.1.1.1.2 Open and Closed Streams

Streams are either **open** or **closed**.

Except as explicitly specified otherwise, operations that create and return streams return open streams.

The action of *closing* a *stream* marks the end of its use as a source or sink of data, permitting the *implementation* to reclaim its internal data structures, and to free any external resources which might have been locked by the *stream* when it was opened.

Except as explicitly specified otherwise, the consequences are undefined when a  $closed\ stream$  is used where a stream is called for.

Coercion of *streams* to *pathnames* is permissible for *closed streams*; in some situations, such as for a *truename* computation, the result might be different for an *open stream* and for that same *stream* once it has been *closed*.

#### 21.1.1.1.3 Interactive Streams

An *interactive stream* is one on which it makes sense to perform interactive querying.

The precise meaning of an *interactive stream* is *implementation-defined*, and may depend on the underlying operating system. Some examples of the things that an *implementation* might choose to use as identifying characteristics of an *interactive stream* include:

- The *stream* is connected to a person (or equivalent) in such a way that the program can prompt for information and expect to receive different input depending on the prompt.
- The program is expected to prompt for input and support "normal input editing".
- read-char might wait for the user to type something before returning instead of immediately returning a character or end-of-file.

The general intent of having some *streams* be classified as *interactive streams* is to allow them to be distinguished from streams containing batch (or background or command-file) input. Output to batch streams is typically discarded or saved for later viewing, so interactive queries to such streams might not have the expected effect.

Terminal I/O might or might not be an interactive stream.

#### 21.1.1.2 Abstract Classifications of Streams

#### 21.1.1.2.1 File Streams

Some *streams*, called *file streams*, provide access to *files*. An *object* of *class* **file-stream** is used to represent a *file stream*.

The basic operation for opening a *file* is **open**, which typically returns a *file stream* (see its dictionary entry for details). The basic operation for closing a *stream* is **close**. The macro **with-open-file** is useful to express the common idiom of opening a *file* for the duration of a given body of *code*, and assuring that the resulting *stream* is closed upon exit from that body.

#### 21.1.1.3 Other Subclasses of Stream

The  $class\ {\bf stream}$  has a number of subclasses defined by this specification. Figure 21–5 shows some information about these subclasses.

Class	Related Operators	
broadcast-stream	make-broadcast-stream	
	broadcast-stream-streams	
concatenated-stream	make-concatenated-stream	
	concatenated-stream-streams	
echo-stream	make-echo-stream	
	echo-stream-input-stream	
	echo-stream-output-stream	
string-stream	make-string-input-stream	
	with-input-from-string	
	make-string-output-stream	
	with-output-to-string	
	get-output-stream-string	
synonym-stream	make-synonym-stream	
	synonym-stream-symbol	
two-way-stream	make-two-way-stream	
	two-way-stream-input-stream	
	two-way-stream-output-stream	

Figure 21-5. Defined Names related to Specialized Streams

### 21.1.2 Stream Variables

Variables whose values must be streams are sometimes called stream variables.

Certain *stream variables* are defined by this specification to be the proper source of input or output in various *situations* where no specific *stream* has been specified instead. A complete list of such *standardized stream variables* appears in Figure 21–6. The consequences are undefined if at any time the *value* of any of these *variables* is not an *open stream*.

Glossary Term	Variable Name
debug I/O	*debug-io*
error output	*error-output $*$
query I/O	*query-io*
standard input	*standard-input $*$
$standard\ output$	*standard-output $*$
terminal I/O	*terminal-io $*$
trace output	$*trace ext{-}output*$

Figure 21-6. Standardized Stream Variables

Note that, by convention, standardized stream variables have names ending in "-input\*" if they

must be *input streams*, ending in "-output\*" if they must be *output streams*, or ending in "-io\*" if they must be *bidirectional streams*.

User programs may assign or bind any standardized stream variable except \*terminal-io\*.

## 21.1.3 Stream Arguments to Standardized Functions

The operators in Figure 21–7 accept stream arguments that might be either open or closed streams.

broadcast-stream-streams	file-author	pathnamep
close	file-namestring	probe-file
compile-file	file-write-date	rename-file
compile-file-pathname	host-namestring	streamp
concatenated-stream-streams	load	synonym-stream-symbol
delete-file	logical-pathname	${\it translate-logical-pathname}$
directory	merge-pathnames	${\it translate} ext{-pathname}$
directory-namestring	${f namestring}$	truename
dribble	open	${\it two-way-stream-input-stream}$
echo-stream-input-stream	open-stream-p	${\it two-way-stream-output-stream}$
echo-stream-ouput-stream	parse-namestring	wild-pathname-p
ed	pathname	with-open-file
enough-namestring	path name-match-p	

Figure 21–7. Operators that accept either Open or Closed Streams

The operators in Figure 21–8 accept stream arguments that must be open streams.

clear-input	output-stream-p	read-char-no-hang
clear-output	peek-char	read-delimited-list
file-length	${f pprint}$	read-line
file-position	pprint-fill	read-preserving-whitespace
file-string-length	pprint-indent	stream-element-type
finish-output	pprint-linear	stream-external-format
force-output	pprint-logical-block	terpri
format	pprint-newline	unread-char
fresh-line	pprint-tab	$ with \hbox{-} open \hbox{-} stream \\$
get-output-stream-string	pprint-tabular	write
input-stream-p	prin1	write-byte
interactive-stream-p	princ	write-char
listen	$\mathbf{print}$	write-line
make-broadcast-stream	print-object	write-string
make-concatenated-stream	print-unreadable-object	y-or-n-p
make-echo-stream	$\operatorname{read}$	yes-or-no-p
make-synonym-stream	${f read-byte}$	
make-two-way-stream	read-char	

Figure 21-8. Operators that accept Open Streams only

## 21.1.4 Restrictions on Composite Streams

The consequences are undefined if any component of a composite stream is closed before the composite stream is closed.

The consequences are undefined if the  $synonym\ stream\ symbol$  is not bound to an  $open\ stream$  from the time of the  $synonym\ stream$ 's creation until the time it is closed.

stream System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

stream, t

#### **Description:**

A *stream* is an *object* that can be used with an input or output function to identify an appropriate source or sink of *characters* or *bytes* for that operation.

For more complete information, see Section 21.1 (Stream Concepts).

#### See Also:

Section 21.1 (Stream Concepts), Section 22.1.3.13 (Printing Other Objects), Chapter 22 (Printer), Chapter 23 (Reader)

## broadcast-stream

 $System\ Class$ 

#### Class Precedence List:

broadcast-stream, stream, t

### Description:

A broadcast stream is an output stream which has associated with it a set of zero or more output streams such that any output sent to the broadcast stream gets passed on as output to each of the associated output streams. (If a broadcast stream has no component streams, then all output to the broadcast stream is discarded.)

The set of operations that may be performed on a  $broadcast\ stream$  is the intersection of those for its associated  $output\ streams$ .

Some output operations (e.g., fresh-line) return values based on the state of the stream at the time of the operation. Since these values might differ for each of the component streams, it is necessary to describe their return value specifically:

- **stream-element-type** returns the value from the last component stream, or **t** if there are no component streams.
- **fresh-line** returns the value from the last component stream, or **nil** if there are no component streams.

- The functions file-length, file-position, file-string-length, and stream-external-format return the value from the last component stream; if there are no component streams, file-length and file-position return 0, file-string-length returns 1, and stream-external-format returns :default.
- The functions streamp and output-stream-p always return true for broadcast streams.
- The functions **open-stream-p** tests whether the *broadcast stream* is  $open_2$ , not whether its component streams are open.
- The functions **input-stream-p** and *interactive-stream-p* return an *implementation-defined*, generalized boolean value.
- For the input operations **clear-input listen**, **peek-char**, **read-byte**, **read-char-no-hang**, **read-char**, **read-line**, and **unread-char**, the consequences are undefined if the indicated operation is performed. However, an *implementation* is permitted to define such a behavior as an *implementation-dependent* extension.

For any output operations not having their return values explicitly specified above or elsewhere in this document, it is defined that the *values* returned by such an operation are the *values* resulting from performing the operation on the last of its *component streams*; the *values* resulting from performing the operation on all preceding *streams* are discarded. If there are no *component streams*, the value is *implementation-dependent*.

#### See Also:

broadcast-streams, make-broadcast-stream

## concatenated-stream

System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

concatenated-stream, stream, t

#### Description:

A concatenated stream is an input stream which is a composite stream of zero or more other input streams, such that the sequence of data which can be read from the concatenated stream is the same as the concatenation of the sequences of data which could be read from each of the constituent streams.

Input from a concatenated stream is taken from the first of the associated input streams until it reaches end of file<sub>1</sub>; then that stream is discarded, and subsequent input is taken from the next input stream, and so on. An end of file on the associated input streams is always managed invisibly by the concatenated stream—the only time a client of a concatenated stream sees an end of file is

when an attempt is made to obtain data from the *concatenated stream* but it has no remaining *input streams* from which to obtain such data.

#### See Also:

 $concatenated \hbox{-} stream \hbox{-} stream \hbox{-} make-concatenated-stream$ 

## echo-stream

 $System\ Class$ 

#### Class Precedence List:

echo-stream, stream, t

### **Description:**

An echo stream is a bidirectional stream that gets its input from an associated input stream and sends its output to an associated output stream.

All input taken from the *input stream* is echoed to the *output stream*. Whether the input is echoed immediately after it is encountered, or after it has been read from the *input stream* is *implementation-dependent*.

#### See Also:

echo-stream-input-stream, echo-stream-output-stream, make-echo-stream

## file-stream

System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

file-stream, stream, t

### Description:

An *object* of *type* **file-stream** is a *stream* the direct source or sink of which is a *file*. Such a *stream* is created explicitly by **open** and **with-open-file**, and implicitly by *functions* such as **load** that process *files*.

#### See Also:

load, open, with-open-file

# string-stream

System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

string-stream, stream, t

### Description:

A string stream is a stream which reads input from or writes output to an associated string.

The stream element type of a string stream is always a subtype of type character.

#### See Also:

 $\label{lem:make-string-output-stream} \mbox{ make-string-output-stream}, \mbox{ with-input-from-string}, \\ \mbox{ with-output-to-string}$ 

## synonym-stream

 $System\ Class$ 

#### Class Precedence List:

synonym-stream, stream, t

### Description:

A stream that is an alias for another stream, which is the value of a dynamic variable whose name is the synonym stream symbol of the synonym stream.

Any operations on a *synonym stream* will be performed on the *stream* that is then the *value* of the *dynamic variable* named by the *synonym stream symbol*. If the *value* of the *variable* should change, or if the *variable* should be *bound*, then the *stream* will operate on the new *value* of the *variable*.

#### See Also:

 ${\bf make\hbox{-}synonym\hbox{-}stream\hbox{-}symbol}$ 

## two-way-stream

System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

two-way-stream, stream, t

### **Description:**

A bidirectional composite stream that receives its input from an associated input stream and sends its output to an associated output stream.

#### See Also:

make-two-way-stream, two-way-stream-input-stream, two-way-stream-output-stream

# input-stream-p, output-stream-p

Function

### Syntax:

```
	ext{input-stream-p stream} 	o 	ext{generalized-boolean} 	ext{output-stream-p stream} 	o 	ext{generalized-boolean}
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
stream—a stream.
generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

### **Description:**

input-stream-p returns true if stream is an input stream; otherwise, returns false.

output-stream-p returns true if stream is an output stream; otherwise, returns false.

### **Examples:**

```
(input-stream-p *standard-input*) \rightarrow true

(input-stream-p *terminal-io*) \rightarrow true

(input-stream-p (make-string-output-stream)) \rightarrow false

(output-stream-p *standard-output*) \rightarrow true

(output-stream-p *terminal-io*) \rightarrow true

(output-stream-p (make-string-input-stream "jr")) \rightarrow false
```

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if stream is not a stream.

# interactive-stream-p

*Function* 

### Syntax:

interactive-stream-p stream  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

### **Arguments and Values:**

stream—a stream.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

### Description:

Returns true if stream is an interactive stream; otherwise, returns false.

### **Examples:**

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if stream is not a stream.

### See Also:

Section 21.1 (Stream Concepts)

## open-stream-p

Function

#### Syntax:

open-stream-p stream  $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

### **Arguments and Values:**

stream—a stream.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

### **Description:**

Returns true if stream is an open stream; otherwise, returns false.

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Streams are open until they have been explicitly closed with close, or until they are implicitly closed due to exit from a with-output-to-string, with-open-file, with-input-from-string, or with-open-stream form.

### **Examples:**

```
(open-stream-p *standard-input*) \rightarrow true
```

#### Affected By:

close.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if stream is not a stream.

# stream-element-type

**Function** 

### Syntax:

 $\mathbf{stream\text{-}element\text{-}type} \ \textit{stream} \ \ \rightarrow \ \textit{typespec}$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
stream—a stream.
typespec—a type specifier.
```

### **Description:**

stream-element-type returns a type specifier that indicates the types of objects that may be read from or written to stream.

Streams created by open have an element type restricted to integer or a subtype of type character.

### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{c} (\texttt{stream-element-type s})) \\ \to & \texttt{INTEGER} \\ \xrightarrow{or} & (\texttt{UNSIGNED-BYTE 16}) \\ \xrightarrow{or} & (\texttt{UNSIGNED-BYTE 8}) \\ \xrightarrow{or} & \texttt{BIT} \\ \xrightarrow{or} & (\texttt{UNSIGNED-BYTE 1}) \\ \xrightarrow{or} & (\texttt{INTEGER 0 1}) \\ \xrightarrow{or} & (\texttt{INTEGER 0 (2)}) \end{array}
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if stream is not a stream.

streamp Function

### **Syntax:**

```
streamp object \rightarrow generalized-boolean
```

## Arguments and Values:

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

### **Description:**

Returns true if object is of type stream; otherwise, returns false.

**streamp** is unaffected by whether *object*, if it is a *stream*, is *open* or closed.

### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{ll} \text{(streamp *terminal-io*)} \ \to \ true \\ \text{(streamp 1)} \ \to \ false \end{array}
```

#### Notes:

```
(streamp \ object) \equiv (typep \ object \ 'stream)
```

read-byte Function

### Syntax:

 ${f read-byte}$  stream &optional eof-error-p eof-value ightarrow byte

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
stream—a binary input stream.

eof-error-p—a generalized boolean. The default is true.

eof-value—an object. The default is nil.

byte—an integer, or the eof-value.
```

### Description:

read-byte reads and returns one byte from stream.

If an end of file<sub>2</sub> occurs and eof-error-p is false, the eof-value is returned.

### **Examples:**

#### **Side Effects:**

Modifies stream.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if stream is not a stream.

Should signal an error of type error if stream is not a binary input stream.

If there are no bytes remaining in the stream and eof-error-p is true, an error of type end-of-file is signaled.

#### See Also:

read-char, read-sequence, write-byte

# write-byte

Function

### Syntax:

write-byte byte stream  $\rightarrow$  byte

### Arguments and Values:

byte—an integer of the stream element type of stream.

stream—a binary output stream.

### **Description:**

write-byte writes one byte, byte, to stream.

### **Examples:**

```
(with-open-file (s "temp-bytes" : direction :output :element-type 'unsigned-byte) (write-byte 101 s)) \rightarrow 101
```

#### Side Effects:

stream is modified.

### Affected By:

The element type of the stream.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if stream is not a stream. Should signal an error of type error if stream is not a binary output stream.

Might signal an error of type type-error if byte is not an integer of the stream element type of stream.

### See Also:

read-byte, write-char, write-sequence

## peek-char

# peek-char

*Function* 

### Syntax:

 $ext{peek-char \&optional } peek-type input-stream eof-error-p 
ightarrow char eof-value recursive-p$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
peek-type—a character or t or nil.

input-stream—input stream designator. The default is standard input.

eof-error-p—a generalized boolean. The default is true.

eof-value—an object. The default is nil.

recursive-p—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

char—a character or the eof-value.
```

### Description:

**peek-char** obtains the next character in *input-stream* without actually reading it, thus leaving the character to be read at a later time. It can also be used to skip over and discard intervening characters in the *input-stream* until a particular character is found.

If peek-type is not supplied or nil, peek-char returns the next character to be read from input-stream, without actually removing it from input-stream. The next time input is done from input-stream, the character will still be there. If peek-type is t, then peek-char skips over whitespace<sub>2</sub> characters, but not comments, and then performs the peeking operation on the next character. The last character examined, the one that starts an object, is not removed from input-stream. If peek-type is a character, then peek-char skips over input characters until a character that is char= to that character is found; that character is left in input-stream.

If an end of file<sub>2</sub> occurs and eof-error-p is false, eof-value is returned.

If recursive-p is true, this call is expected to be embedded in a higher-level call to read or a similar function used by the  $Lisp\ reader$ .

When *input-stream* is an *echo stream*, characters that are only peeked at are not echoed. In the case that *peek-type* is not **nil**, the characters that are passed by **peek-char** are treated as if by **read-char**, and so are echoed unless they have been marked otherwise by **unread-char**.

### **Examples:**

```
(peek-char #\4 input-stream) (peek-char nil input-stream))) \rhd #\1 #\4 #\4 \rightarrow NIL
```

### Affected By:

\*readtable\*, \*standard-input\*, \*terminal-io\*.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

If eof-error-p is true and an end of file<sub>2</sub> occurs an error of type end-of-file is signaled.

If peek-type is a character, an end of file<sub>2</sub> occurs, and eof-error-p is true, an error of type end-of-file is signaled.

If recursive-p is true and an end of file occurs, an error of type end-of-file is signaled.

read-char Function

### Syntax:

 ${f read-char}$  &optional input-stream eof-error-p eof-value recursive-p ightarrow char

### **Arguments and Values:**

input-stream—an input stream designator. The default is standard input.

eof-error-p—a generalized boolean. The default is true.

eof-value—an object. The default is nil.

recursive-p—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

char—a character or the eof-value.

#### **Description:**

read-char returns the next character from input-stream.

When *input-stream* is an *echo stream*, the character is echoed on *input-stream* the first time the character is seen. Characters that are not echoed by **read-char** are those that were put there by **unread-char** and hence are assumed to have been echoed already by a previous call to **read-char**.

If *recursive-p* is *true*, this call is expected to be embedded in a higher-level call to **read** or a similar *function* used by the *Lisp reader*.

If an end of file<sub>2</sub> occurs and eof-error-p is false, eof-value is returned.

### **Examples:**

```
(with-input-from-string (is "0123")
      (do ((c (read-char is) (read-char is nil 'the-end)))
            ((not (characterp c)))
            (format t "~S " c)))
▷ #\0 #\1 #\2 #\3
→ NIL
```

### Affected By:

\*standard-input\*, \*terminal-io\*.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

If an end of file<sub>2</sub> occurs before a character can be read, and eof-error-p is true, an error of type end-of-file is signaled.

### See Also:

read-byte, read-sequence, write-char, read

#### **Notes:**

The corresponding output function is write-char.

# read-char-no-hang

Function

#### Syntax:

```
read-char-no-hang &optional input-stream eof-error-p 
ightarrow char eof-value recursive-p
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
input-stream — an input stream designator. The default is standard input.

eof-error-p—a generalized boolean. The default is true.

eof-value—an object. The default is nil.

recursive-p—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

char—a character or nil or the eof-value.
```

### **Description:**

**read-char-no-hang** returns a character from *input-stream* if such a character is available. If no character is available, **read-char-no-hang** returns **nil**.

If recursive-p is true, this call is expected to be embedded in a higher-level call to read or a similar function used by the  $Lisp\ reader$ .

If an end of file<sub>2</sub> occurs and eof-error-p is false, eof-value is returned.

### **Examples:**

```
;; This code assumes an implementation in which a newline is not
;; required to terminate input from the console.
 (defun test-it ()
   (unread-char (read-char))
   (list (read-char-no-hang)
          (read-char-no-hang)
          (read-char-no-hang)))
;; Implementation A, where a Newline is not required to terminate
;; interactive input on the console.
 (test-it)
▷ a
\rightarrow (#\a NIL NIL)
;; Implementation B, where a Newline is required to terminate
;; interactive input on the console, and where that Newline remains
;; on the input stream.
 (test-it)
▷ <u>a</u>←

ightarrow (#\a #\Newline NIL)
```

#### Affected By:

\*standard-input\*, \*terminal-io\*.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

If an end of file 2 occurs when eof-error-p is true, an error of type end-of-file is signaled.

#### See Also:

listen

#### **Notes:**

read-char-no-hang is exactly like read-char, except that if it would be necessary to wait in order to get a character (as from a keyboard), nil is immediately returned without waiting.

# terpri, fresh-line

# terpri, fresh-line

*Function* 

### Syntax:

```
terpri &optional output-stream 
ightarrow nil fresh-line &optional output-stream 
ightarrow generalized-boolean
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

output-stream – an output stream designator. The default is standard output. generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

### **Description:**

terpri outputs a newline to output-stream.

fresh-line is similar to terpri but outputs a *newline* only if the *output-stream* is not already at the start of a line. If for some reason this cannot be determined, then a *newline* is output anyway. fresh-line returns *true* if it outputs a *newline*; otherwise it returns *false*.

### **Examples:**

```
(with-output-to-string (s)
    (write-string "some text" s)
    (terpri s)
    (terpri s)
    (write-string "more text" s))

→ "some text

more text"
(with-output-to-string (s)
    (write-string "some text" s)
    (fresh-line s)
    (fresh-line s)
    (write-string "more text" s))

→ "some text
more text"
```

#### Side Effects:

The *output-stream* is modified.

#### Affected By:

\*standard-output\*, \*terminal-io\*.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

None.

#### Notes:

```
terpri is identical in effect to
  (write-char #\Newline output-stream)
```

unread-char

**Function** 

### Syntax:

unread-char character &optional input-stream ightarrow nil

### **Arguments and Values:**

character—a character; must be the last character that was read from input-stream.

input-stream—an input stream designator. The default is standard input.

### **Description:**

**unread-char** places *character* back onto the front of *input-stream* so that it will again be the next character in *input-stream*.

When *input-stream* is an *echo stream*, no attempt is made to undo any echoing of the character that might already have been done on *input-stream*. However, characters placed on *input-stream* by **unread-char** are marked in such a way as to inhibit later re-echo by **read-char**.

It is an error to invoke **unread-char** twice consecutively on the same *stream* without an intervening call to **read-char** (or some other input operation which implicitly reads characters) on that *stream*.

Invoking **peek-char** or **read-char** commits all previous characters. The consequences of invoking **unread-char** on any character preceding that which is returned by **peek-char** (including those passed over by **peek-char** that has a *non-nil peek-type*) are unspecified. In particular, the consequences of invoking **unread-char** after **peek-char** are unspecified.

### **Examples:**

## Affected By:

\*standard-input\*, \*terminal-io\*.

#### See Also:

peek-char, read-char, Section 21.1 (Stream Concepts)

#### **Notes:**

**unread-char** is intended to be an efficient mechanism for allowing the *Lisp reader* and other parsers to perform one-character lookahead in *input-stream*.

write-char Function

### **Syntax:**

write-char character &optional output-stream ightarrow character

### **Arguments and Values:**

character—a character.

output-stream – an output stream designator. The default is standard output.

### **Description:**

write-char outputs character to output-stream.

### **Examples:**

```
(write-char #\a)
> a
  → #\a
(with-output-to-string (s)
  (write-char #\a s)
  (write-char #\Space s)
  (write-char #\b s))
  → "a b"
```

#### Side Effects:

The *output-stream* is modified.

### Affected By:

\*standard-output\*, \*terminal-io\*.

#### See Also:

 ${\bf read\text{-}char},\,{\bf write\text{-}byte},\,{\bf write\text{-}sequence}$ 

## read-line

read-line Function

### Syntax:

read-line &optional input-stream eof-error-p eof-value recursive-p  $\rightarrow$  line, missing-newline-p

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
input-stream—an input stream designator. The default is standard input.

eof-error-p—a generalized boolean. The default is true.

eof-value—an object. The default is nil.

recursive-p—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

line—a string or the eof-value.

missing-newline-p—a generalized boolean.
```

### **Description:**

Reads from input-stream a line of text that is terminated by a newline or end of file.

If recursive-p is true, this call is expected to be embedded in a higher-level call to read or a similar function used by the  $Lisp\ reader$ .

The primary value, line, is the line that is read, represented as a string (without the trailing newline, if any). If eof-error-p is false and the end of file for input-stream is reached before any characters are read, eof-value is returned as the line.

The secondary value, missing-newline-p, is a generalized boolean that is false if the line was terminated by a newline, or true if the line was terminated by the end of file for input-stream (or if the line is the eof-value).

### **Examples:**

```
(setq a "line 1 line2") \rightarrow \text{ "line 1 } line2" (read-line (setq input-stream (make-string-input-stream a))) \rightarrow \text{ "line 1", } false (read-line input-stream) \rightarrow \text{ "line2", } true (read-line input-stream nil nil) \rightarrow \text{ NIL, } true
```

### Affected By:

\*standard-input\*, \*terminal-io\*.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

If an end of file<sub>2</sub> occurs before any characters are read in the line, an error is signaled if eof-error-p is true.

#### See Also:

read

#### Notes:

The corresponding output function is write-line.

# write-string, write-line

**Function** 

### Syntax:

```
write-string string &optional output-stream &key start end \rightarrow string write-line string &optional output-stream &key start end \rightarrow string
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
string—a string.
```

output-stream – an output stream designator. The default is standard output.

start, end—bounding index designators of string. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

#### **Description:**

write-string writes the *characters* of the subsequence of *string bounded* by *start* and *end* to *output-stream*. write-line does the same thing, but then outputs a newline afterwards.

### **Examples:**

```
ho *test2 
ho * 
ho NIL
```

### Affected By:

\*standard-output\*, \*terminal-io\*.

#### See Also:

read-line, write-char

#### Notes:

write-line and write-string return string, not the substring bounded by start and end.

```
(write-string string)

\[ \equiv (\text{dotimes (i (length string)} \\ (\text{write-char (char string i)))} \]

(write-line string)

\[ \equiv (\text{prog1 (write-string string) (terpri)}) \]
```

# read-sequence

**Function** 

### Syntax:

read-sequence sequence stream &key start end  $\rightarrow$  position

sequence—a sequence.

stream—an input stream.

start, end—bounding index designators of sequence. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

position—an integer greater than or equal to zero, and less than or equal to the length of the sequence.

#### Description:

Destructively modifies sequence by replacing the elements of sequence bounded by start and end with elements read from stream.

Sequence is destructively modified by copying successive elements into it from stream. If the end of file for stream is reached before copying all elements of the subsequence, then the extra elements near the end of sequence are not updated.

**Position** is the index of the first *element* of **sequence** that was not updated, which might be less than **end** because the **end** of **file** was reached.

### **Examples:**

```
(defvar *data* (make-array 15 :initial-element nil)) (values (read-sequence *data* (make-string-input-stream "test string")) *data*) \rightarrow 11, #(#\t #\e #\s #\t #\Space #\s #\t #\r #\i #\n #\g NIL NIL NIL NIL)
```

#### **Side Effects:**

Modifies *stream* and *sequence*.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type type-error if sequence is not a proper sequence. Should signal an error of type type-error if start is not a non-negative integer. Should signal an error of type type-error if end is not a non-negative integer or nil.

Might signal an error of type type-error if an element read from the stream is not a member of the element type of the sequence.

### See Also:

Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), write-sequence, read-line

#### Notes:

**read-sequence** is identical in effect to iterating over the indicated subsequence and reading one *element* at a time from *stream* and storing it into *sequence*, but may be more efficient than the equivalent loop. An efficient implementation is more likely to exist for the case where the *sequence* is a *vector* with the same *element type* as the *stream*.

## write-sequence

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

```
\mathbf{write}\text{-}\mathbf{sequence}\,\,\textit{sequence}\,\,\textit{stream}\,\,\textit{\&key}\,\,\textit{start}\,\,\textit{end}\quad\rightarrow\,\textit{sequence}
```

```
sequence—a sequence.
```

stream—an output stream.

start, end—bounding index designators of sequence. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

## Description:

write-sequence writes the *elements* of the subsequence of *sequence bounded* by *start* and *end* to *stream*.

### **Examples:**

```
(write-sequence "bookworms" *standard-output* :end 4) \triangleright book \rightarrow "bookworms"
```

#### Side Effects:

Modifies stream.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should be prepared to signal an error of type **type-error** if **sequence** is not a proper sequence. Should signal an error of type **type-error** if **start** is not a non-negative integer. Should signal an error of type **type-error** if **end** is not a non-negative integer or **nil**.

Might signal an error of type type-error if an element of the bounded sequence is not a member of the stream element type of the stream.

#### See Also:

Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology), read-sequence, write-string, write-line

#### Notes:

write-sequence is identical in effect to iterating over the indicated subsequence and writing one *element* at a time to *stream*, but may be more efficient than the equivalent loop. An efficient implementation is more likely to exist for the case where the *sequence* is a *vector* with the same *element type* as the *stream*.

# file-length

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

file-length stream  $\rightarrow$  length

#### **Arguments and Values:**

stream—a stream associated with a file.

length—a non-negative integer or nil.

### Description:

file-length returns the length of stream, or nil if the length cannot be determined.

For a binary file, the length is measured in units of the *element type* of the *stream*.

### **Examples:**

```
(with-open-file (s "decimal-digits.text"
```

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```
:direction :output :if-exists :error)
  (princ "0123456789" s)
   (truename s))
    #P"A:>Joe>decimal-digits.text.1"
  (with-open-file (s "decimal-digits.text")
    (file-length s))
    10
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if stream is not a stream associated with a file.

#### See Also:

open

# file-position

**Function** 

### Syntax:

```
file-position stream 	o position file-position stream position-spec 	o success-p
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
stream—a stream.

position-spec—a file position designator.

position—a file position or nil.

success-p—a generalized boolean.
```

### Description:

Returns or changes the current position within a *stream*.

When *position-spec* is not supplied, **file-position** returns the current *file position* in the *stream*, or **nil** if this cannot be determined.

When *position-spec* is supplied, the *file position* in *stream* is set to that *file position* (if possible). **file-position** returns *true* if the repositioning is performed successfully, or *false* if it is not.

An *integer* returned by **file-position** of one argument should be acceptable as *position-spec* for use with the same file.

For a character file, performing a single read-char or write-char operation may cause the file position to be increased by more than 1 because of character-set translations (such as translating between the Common Lisp #\Newline character and an external ASCII carriage-return/line-feed

## file-position

sequence) and other aspects of the implementation. For a binary file, every **read-byte** or **write-byte** operation increases the file position by 1.

### **Examples:**

```
(defun tester ()
    (let ((noticed '()) file-written)
      (flet ((notice (x) (push x noticed) x))
        (with-open-file (s "test.bin"
                              :element-type '(unsigned-byte 8)
                              :direction :output
                              :if-exists :error)
            (notice (file-position s)) ;1
            (write-byte 5 s)
            (write-byte 6 s)
            (let ((p (file-position s)))
              (notice p);2
              (notice (when p (file-position s (1- p)))));3
            (write-byte 7 s)
            (notice (file-position s));4
            (setq file-written (truename s)))
         (with-open-file (s file-written
                               :element-type '(unsigned-byte 8)
                               :direction :input)
            (notice (file-position s)) ;5
            (let ((length (file-length s)))
              (notice length);6
              (when length
                (dotimes (i length)
                  (notice (read-byte s))))) ;7,...
         (nreverse noticed))))

ightarrow tester
 (tester)
\rightarrow (0 2 T 2 0 2 5 7)
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} (0 \ 2 \ \text{NIL} \ 3 \ 0 \ 3 \ 5 \ 6 \ 7)
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \text{ (NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL)}
```

#### Side Effects:

When the position-spec argument is supplied, the file position in the stream might be moved.

## Affected By:

The value returned by **file-position** increases monotonically as input or output operations are performed.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

If *position-spec* is supplied, but is too large or otherwise inappropriate, an error is signaled.

#### See Also:

file-length, file-string-length, open

#### Notes:

Implementations that have character files represented as a sequence of records of bounded size might choose to encode the file position as, for example,  $\langle\langle record\text{-}number\rangle\rangle^* \langle\langle max\text{-}record\text{-}size\rangle\rangle + \langle\langle character\text{-}within\text{-}record\rangle\rangle$ . This is a valid encoding because it increases monotonically as each character is read or written, though not necessarily by 1 at each step. An *integer* might then be considered "inappropriate" as *position-spec* to file-position if, when decoded into record number and character number, it turned out that the supplied record was too short for the specified character number.

# file-string-length

**Function** 

### Syntax:

file-string-length stream object  $\rightarrow$  length

## **Arguments and Values:**

stream—an output character file stream.

object—a string or a character.

length—a non-negative integer, or nil.

#### Description:

file-string-length returns the difference between what (file-position stream) would be after writing object and its current value, or nil if this cannot be determined.

The returned value corresponds to the current state of *stream* at the time of the call and might not be the same if it is called again when the state of the *stream* has changed.

## open

**open** Function

### Syntax:

open filespec &key direction element-type
if-exists if-does-not-exist external-format

 $\rightarrow$  stream

### **Arguments and Values:**

filespec—a pathname designator.

direction—one of :input, :output, :io, or :probe. The default is :input.

element-type—a type specifier for recognizable subtype of character; or a type specifier for a finite recognizable subtype of integer; or one of the symbols signed-byte, unsigned-byte, or :default. The default is character.

if-exists—one of :error, :new-version, :rename, :rename-and-delete, :overwrite, :append,
:supersede, or nil. The default is :new-version if the version component of filespec is :newest, or
:error otherwise.

if-does-not-exist—one of :error, :create, or nil. The default is :error if direction is :input or if-exists is :overwrite or :append; :create if direction is :output or :io, and if-exists is neither :overwrite nor :append; or nil when direction is :probe.

external-format—an external file format designator. The default is :default.

stream—a file stream or nil.

### Description:

**open** creates, opens, and returns a *file stream* that is connected to the file specified by *filespec*. *Filespec* is the name of the file to be opened. If the *filespec designator* is a *stream*, that *stream* is not closed first or otherwise affected.

The keyword arguments to **open** specify the characteristics of the *file stream* that is returned, and how to handle errors.

If direction is :input or :probe, or if if-exists is not :new-version and the version component of the filespec is :newest, then the file opened is that file already existing in the file system that has a version greater than that of any other file in the file system whose other pathname components are the same as those of filespec.

An implementation is required to recognize all of the **open** keyword options and to do something reasonable in the context of the host operating system. For example, if a file system does not support distinct file versions and does not distinguish the notions of deletion and expunging, :new-version might be treated the same as :rename or :supersede, and :rename-and-delete might be treated the same as :supersede.

#### :direction

These are the possible values for *direction*, and how they affect the nature of the *stream* that is created:

#### :input

Causes the creation of an *input file stream*.

### :output

Causes the creation of an output file stream.

:io

Causes the creation of a bidirectional file stream.

#### :probe

Causes the creation of a "no-directional" *file stream*; in effect, the *file stream* is created and then closed prior to being returned by **open**.

#### :element-type

The *element-type* specifies the unit of transaction for the *file stream*. If it is :default, the unit is determined by *file system*, possibly based on the *file*.

#### :if-exists

if-exists specifies the action to be taken if direction is :output or :io and a file of the name filespec already exists. If direction is :input, not supplied, or :probe, if-exists is ignored. These are the results of open as modified by if-exists:

#### :error

An error of type file-error is signaled.

#### :new-version

A new file is created with a larger version number.

#### :rename

The existing file is renamed to some other name and then a new file is created.

#### :rename-and-delete

The existing file is renamed to some other name, then it is deleted but not expunged, and then a new file is created.

## open

#### :overwrite

Output operations on the *stream* destructively modify the existing file. If *direction* is :io the file is opened in a bidirectional mode that allows both reading and writing. The file pointer is initially positioned at the beginning of the file; however, the file is not truncated back to length zero when it is opened.

### :append

Output operations on the *stream* destructively modify the existing file. The file pointer is initially positioned at the end of the file.

If *direction* is :io, the file is opened in a bidirectional mode that allows both reading and writing.

#### :supersede

The existing file is superseded; that is, a new file with the same name as the old one is created. If possible, the implementation should not destroy the old file until the new *stream* is closed.

nil

No file or *stream* is created; instead, **nil** is returned to indicate failure.

#### :if-does-not-exist

*if-does-not-exist* specifies the action to be taken if a file of name *filespec* does not already exist. These are the results of **open** as modified by *if-does-not-exist*:

#### :error

An error of *type* file-error is signaled.

#### :create

An empty file is created. Processing continues as if the file had already existed but no processing as directed by *if-exists* is performed.

nil

No file or *stream* is created; instead, **nil** is returned to indicate failure.

#### :external-format

This option selects an external file format for the file: The only standardized value for this option is :default, although implementations are permitted to define additional external file formats and implementation-dependent values returned by stream-external-format can also be used by conforming programs.

The external-format is meaningful for any kind of file stream whose element type is a subtype of character. This option is ignored for streams for which it is not meaningful; however, implementations may define other element types for which it is meaningful. The consequences are unspecified if a character is written that cannot be represented by the given external file format.

When a file is opened, a *file stream* is constructed to serve as the file system's ambassador to the Lisp environment; operations on the *file stream* are reflected by operations on the file in the file system.

A file can be deleted, renamed, or destructively modified by **open**.

For information about opening relative pathnames, see Section 19.2.3 (Merging Pathnames).

### **Examples:**

```
(open filespec: direction: probe) \rightarrow #<Closed Probe File Stream...> (setq q (merge-pathnames (user-homedir-pathname) "test")) \rightarrow #<PATHNAME: HOST NIL: DEVICE device-name: DIRECTORY directory-name: NAME "test": TYPE NIL: VERSION: NEWEST> (open filespec: if-does-not-exist: create) \rightarrow #<Input File Stream...> (setq s (open filespec: direction: probe)) \rightarrow #<Closed Probe File Stream...> (truename s) \rightarrow #<PATHNAME: HOST NIL: DEVICE device-name: DIRECTORY directory-name: NAME: filespec: TYPE: extension: VERSION: 1> (open s: direction: output: if-exists: nil) \rightarrow NIL
```

#### Affected By:

The nature and state of the host computer's file system.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

If *if-exists* is :error, (subject to the constraints on the meaning of *if-exists* listed above), an error of *type* file-error is signaled.

If *if-does-not-exist* is :error (subject to the constraints on the meaning of *if-does-not-exist* listed above), an error of *type* **file-error** is signaled.

If it is impossible for an implementation to handle some option in a manner close to what is specified here, an error of *type* **error** might be signaled.

An error of type file-error is signaled if (wild-pathname-p filespec) returns true.

An error of type error is signaled if the external-format is not understood by the implementation.

The various file systems in existence today have widely differing capabilities, and some aspects of the file system are beyond the scope of this specification to define. A given implementation might not be able to support all of these options in exactly the manner stated. An implementation is required to recognize all of these option keywords and to try to do something "reasonable" in the context of the host file system. Where necessary to accommodate the file system, an implementation

deviate slightly from the semantics specified here without being disqualified for consideration as a *conforming implementation*. If it is utterly impossible for an *implementation* to handle some option in a manner similar to what is specified here, it may simply signal an error.

With regard to the :element-type option, if a type is requested that is not supported by the file system, a substitution of types such as that which goes on in upgrading is permissible. As a minimum requirement, it should be the case that opening an output stream to a file in a given element type and later opening an input stream to the same file in the same element type should work compatibly.

#### See Also:

with-open-file, close, pathname, logical-pathname, Section 19.2.3 (Merging Pathnames), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

#### Notes:

open does not automatically close the file when an abnormal exit occurs.

When *element-type* is a *subtype* of **character**, **read-char** and/or **write-char** can be used on the resulting *file stream*.

When *element-type* is a *subtype* of *integer*, **read-byte** and/or **write-byte** can be used on the resulting *file stream*.

When element-type is :default, the type can be determined by using stream-element-type.

# stream-external-format

Function

#### **Syntax:**

stream-external-format  $stream \rightarrow format$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

stream—a file stream.

format—an external file format.

#### Description:

Returns an external file format designator for the stream.

#### **Examples:**

(with-open-file (stream "test" :direction :output)

```
\begin{array}{c} ({\tt stream-external-format\ stream}))\\ \to : {\tt DEFAULT}\\ \stackrel{or}{\to} : {\tt IS08859/1-1987}\\ \stackrel{or}{\to} (:{\tt ASCII\ :SAIL})\\ \stackrel{or}{\to} {\tt ACME::PROPRIETARY-FILE-FORMAT-17}\\ \stackrel{or}{\to} {\tt \#<FILE-FORMAT\ :IS0646-1983\ 2343673}> \end{array}
```

#### See Also:

the :external-format argument to the function open and the with-open-file macro.

### Notes:

The format returned is not necessarily meaningful to other implementations.

# with-open-file

macro

### Syntax:

```
with-open-file (stream filespec {options}*) {declaration}* {form}* \rightarrow results
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
stream – a variable.

filespec—a pathname designator.

options – forms; evaluated.

declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.

forms—an implicit progn.

results—the values returned by the forms.
```

#### Description:

with-open-file uses open to create a *file stream* to *file* named by *filespec*. *Filespec* is the name of the file to be opened. *Options* are used as keyword arguments to open.

The stream object to which the stream variable is bound has dynamic extent; its extent ends when the form is exited.

with-open-file evaluates the *forms* as an *implicit progn* with *stream* bound to the value returned by open.

When control leaves the body, either normally or abnormally (such as by use of **throw**), the file is automatically closed. If a new output file is being written, and control leaves abnormally, the file is aborted and the file system is left, so far as possible, as if the file had never been opened.

# with-open-file

It is possible by the use of :if-exists nil or :if-does-not-exist nil for *stream* to be bound to nil. Users of :if-does-not-exist nil should check for a valid *stream*.

The consequences are undefined if an attempt is made to assign the stream variable. The compiler may choose to issue a warning if such an attempt is detected.

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq p (merge-pathnames "test"))
\rightarrow #<PATHNAME :HOST NIL :DEVICE device-name :DIRECTORY directory-name
    :NAME "test" :TYPE NIL :VERSION :NEWEST>
 (with-open-file (s p :direction :output :if-exists :supersede)
    (format s "Here are a couple~%of test data lines~%")) 
ightarrow NIL
 (with-open-file (s p)
    (do ((1 (read-line s) (read-line s nil 'eof)))
        ((eq 1 'eof) "Reached end of file.")
     (format t "~&*** ~A~%" 1)))
> *** Here are a couple
▷ *** of test data lines

ightarrow "Reached end of file."
;; Normally one would not do this intentionally because it is
;; not perspicuous, but beware when using :IF-DOES-NOT-EXIST NIL
;; that this doesn't happen to you accidentally...
 (with-open-file (foo "no-such-file" :if-does-not-exist nil)
   (read foo))
▷ hello?

ightarrow HELLO? ;This value was read from the terminal, not a file!
;; Here's another bug to avoid...
 (with-open-file (foo "no-such-file" :direction :output :if-does-not-exist nil)
   (format foo "Hello"))

ightarrow "Hello" ;FORMAT got an argument of NIL!
```

#### **Side Effects:**

Creates a *stream* to the *file* named by *filename* (upon entry), and closes the *stream* (upon exit). In some *implementations*, the *file* might be locked in some way while it is open. If the *stream* is an *output stream*, a *file* might be created.

#### Affected By:

The host computer's file system.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

See the function open.

#### See Also:

open, close, pathname, logical-pathname, Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

close

# Syntax:

close stream &key abort  $\rightarrow$  result

# **Arguments and Values:**

stream—a stream (either open or closed).

abort—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

result—t if the stream was open at the time it was received as an argument, or implementation-dependent otherwise.

# **Description:**

close closes stream. Closing a stream means that it may no longer be used in input or output operations. The act of closing a file stream ends the association between the stream and its associated file; the transaction with the file system is terminated, and input/output may no longer be performed on the stream.

If abort is true, an attempt is made to clean up any side effects of having created stream. If stream performs output to a file that was created when the stream was created, the file is deleted and any previously existing file is not superseded.

It is permissible to close an already closed stream, but in that case the result is implementation-dependent.

After *stream* is closed, it is still possible to perform the following query operations upon it: streamp, pathname, truename, merge-pathnames, pathname-host, pathname-device, pathname-directory,pathname-name, pathname-type, pathname-version, namestring, file-namestring, directory-namestring, host-namestring, enough-namestring, open, probe-file, and directory.

The effect of **close** on a constructed stream is to close the argument stream only. There is no effect on the constituents of composite streams.

For a *stream* created with **make-string-output-stream**, the result of **get-output-stream-string** is unspecified after **close**.

# **Examples:**

```
(setq s (make-broadcast-stream)) \to #<BROADCAST-STREAM> (close s) \to T (output-stream-p s) \to true
```

#### **Side Effects:**

The stream is closed (if necessary). If abort is true and the stream is an output file stream, its associated file might be deleted.

#### See Also:

open

# with-open-stream

Macro

# Syntax:

```
with-open-stream (var stream) {declaration}* {form}* \rightarrow {result}*
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
var—a variable name.
```

stream—a form; evaluated to produce a stream.

declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.

forms—an implicit progn.

results—the values returned by the forms.

### **Description:**

with-open-stream performs a series of operations on stream, returns a value, and then closes the stream

Var is bound to the value of stream, and then forms are executed as an implicit progn. stream is automatically closed on exit from with-open-stream, no matter whether the exit is normal or abnormal. The stream has dynamic extent; its extent ends when the form is exited.

The consequences are undefined if an attempt is made to assign the the variable var with the forms.

#### **Examples:**

```
(with-open-stream (s (make-string-input-stream "1 2 3 4")) (+ (read s) (read s) (read s))) \rightarrow 6
```

#### Side Effects:

The *stream* is closed (upon exit).

#### See Also:

close

**listen** Function

### Syntax:

 $\mathbf{listen} \ \mathtt{\&optional} \ \mathit{input-stream} \ \ \rightarrow \ \mathit{generalized-boolean}$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

 $input\mbox{-stream}\mbox{--}an\ input\ stream\ designator.$  The default is  $standard\ input.$ 

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

# **Description:**

Returns true if there is a character immediately available from input-stream; otherwise, returns false. On a non-interactive input-stream, listen returns true except when at end of  $file_1$ . If an end of file is encountered, listen returns false. listen is intended to be used when input-stream obtains characters from an interactive device such as a keyboard.

#### **Examples:**

```
(progn (unread-char (read-char)) (list (listen) (read-char))) \triangleright \underline{1} \rightarrow (T #\1) (progn (clear-input) (listen)) \rightarrow NIL ;Unless you're a very fast typist!
```

#### Affected By:

\*standard-input\*

#### See Also:

interactive-stream-p, read-char-no-hang

# clear-input

# clear-input

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

clear-input &optional input-stream  $\rightarrow$  nil

### **Arguments and Values:**

input-stream—an input stream designator. The default is standard input.

# **Description:**

Clears any available input from input-stream.

If clear-input does not make sense for input-stream, then clear-input does nothing.

### **Examples:**

```
;; The exact I/O behavior of this example might vary from implementation
;; to implementation depending on the kind of interactive buffering that
;; occurs. (The call to SLEEP here is intended to help even out the
;; differences in implementations which do not do line-at-a-time buffering.)
(defun read-sleepily (&optional (clear-p nil) (zzz 0))
  (list (progn (print '>) (read))
        ;; Note that input typed within the first ZZZ seconds
        ;; will be discarded.
        (progn (print '>)
                (if zzz (sleep zzz))
                (print '»)
                (if clear-p (clear-input))
                (read))))
(read-sleepily)
> 10
> >
> ≫ 20

ightarrow (10 20)
(read-sleepily t)
> 10
> >
⊳ » <u>20</u>

ightarrow (10 20)
(read-sleepily t 10)
⊳ > 10
\triangleright > 20 ; Some implementations won't echo typeahead here.
```

#### Side Effects:

The *input-stream* is modified.

#### Affected By:

\*standard-input\*

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if input-stream is not a stream designator.

#### See Also:

clear-output

# finish-output, force-output, clear-output

Function

# Syntax:

```
\begin{array}{ll} {\rm finish-output~\& optional~\it output-stream} & \to {\rm nil} \\ {\rm force-output~\& optional~\it output-stream} & \to {\rm nil} \\ {\rm clear-output~\& optional~\it output-stream} & \to {\rm nil} \\ \end{array}
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

output-stream—an output stream designator. The default is standard output.

#### Description:

finish-output, force-output, and clear-output exercise control over the internal handling of buffered stream output.

finish-output attempts to ensure that any buffered output sent to *output-stream* has reached its destination, and then returns.

**force-output** initiates the emptying of any internal buffers but does not wait for completion or acknowledgment to return.

**clear-output** attempts to abort any outstanding output operation in progress in order to allow as little output as possible to continue to the destination.

If any of these operations does not make sense for *output-stream*, then it does nothing. The precise actions of these *functions* are *implementation-dependent*.

# **Examples:**

```
;; Implementation A
  (progn (princ "am i seen?") (clear-output))
  → NIL

;; Implementation B
  (progn (princ "am i seen?") (clear-output))
  ▷ am i seen?
  → NIL
```

# Affected By:

\*standard-output\*

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if output-stream is not a stream designator.

#### See Also:

clear-input

# y-or-n-p, yes-or-no-p

Function

# Syntax:

```
y-or-n-p &optional control &rest arguments \rightarrow generalized-boolean
yes-or-no-p &optional control &rest arguments \rightarrow generalized-boolean
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
control—a format control.

arguments—format arguments for control.
generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

# Description:

These functions ask a question and parse a response from the user. They return true if the answer is affirmative, or false if the answer is negative.

**y-or-n-p** is for asking the user a question whose answer is either "yes" or "no." It is intended that the reply require the user to answer a yes-or-no question with a single character. **yes-or-no-p** is also for asking the user a question whose answer is either "Yes" or "No." It is intended that the reply require the user to take more action than just a single keystroke, such as typing the full word **yes** or **no** followed by a newline.

y-or-n-p types out a message (if supplied), reads an answer in some *implementation-dependent* manner (intended to be short and simple, such as reading a single character such as Y or N). yes-or-no-p types out a message (if supplied), attracts the user's attention (for example, by ringing the terminal's bell), and reads an answer in some *implementation-dependent* manner (intended to be multiple characters, such as YES or NO).

If format-control is supplied and not nil, then a fresh-line operation is performed; then a message is printed as if format-control and arguments were given to format. In any case, yes-or-no-p and y-or-n-p will provide a prompt such as "(Y or N)" or "(Yes or No)" if appropriate.

All input and output are performed using query I/O.

# **Examples:**

```
(y-or-n-p "(t or nil) given by") 

▷ (t or nil) given by (Y or N) \underline{Y} 

→ true 

(yes-or-no-p "a ~S message" 'frightening) 

▷ a FRIGHTENING message (Yes or No) \underline{no} 

→ false 

(y-or-n-p "Produce listing file?") 

▷ Produce listing file? 

▷ Please respond with Y or N. \underline{n} 

→ false
```

#### Side Effects:

Output to and input from query I/O will occur.

#### Affected By:

\*query-io\*.

#### See Also:

format

#### **Notes:**

yes-or-no-p and yes-or-no-p do not add question marks to the end of the prompt string, so any desired question mark or other punctuation should be explicitly included in the text query.

# make-synonym-stream

Function

# Syntax:

make-synonym-stream  $symbol \rightarrow synonym-stream$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

symbol—a symbol that names a  $dynamic\ variable$ .

synonym-stream—a synonym stream.

# **Description:**

Returns a synonym stream whose synonym stream symbol is symbol.

### **Examples:**

# **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal **type-error** if its argument is not a *symbol*.

#### See Also:

Section 21.1 (Stream Concepts)

# synonym-stream-symbol

*Function* 

#### **Syntax:**

synonym-stream-symbol synonym-stream o symbol

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
\textit{synonym-stream} \\ -\text{a} \ \textit{synonym} \ \textit{stream}.
```

symbol—a symbol.

# Description:

Returns the *symbol* whose **symbol-value** the *synonym-stream* is using.

#### See Also:

make-synonym-stream

# broadcast-stream-streams

Function

### **Syntax:**

broadcast-stream-streams broadcast-stream  $\rightarrow$  streams

# **Arguments and Values:**

broadcast-stream—a broadcast stream.

streams—a list of streams.

#### **Description:**

Returns a list of output streams that constitute all the streams to which the broadcast-stream is broadcasting.

# make-broadcast-stream

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

make-broadcast-stream &rest streams  $\rightarrow$  broadcast-stream

#### **Arguments and Values:**

stream—an output stream.

broadcast-stream—a broadcast stream.

### **Description:**

Returns a broadcast stream.

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq a-stream (make-string-output-stream) b-stream (make-string-output-stream)) \rightarrow #<String Output Stream> (format (make-broadcast-stream a-stream b-stream) "this will go to both streams") \rightarrow NIL (get-output-stream-string a-stream) \rightarrow "this will go to both streams"
```

(get-output-stream-string b-stream) ightarrow "this will go to both streams"

# **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if any stream is not an output stream.

#### See Also:

 $broadcast\hbox{-}stream\hbox{-}streams$ 

# make-two-way-stream

Function

### **Syntax:**

make-two-way-stream input-stream output-stream o two-way-stream

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
input-stream—a stream.
output-stream—a stream.
two-way-stream—a two-way stream.
```

# Description:

Returns a two-way stream that gets its input from input-stream and sends its output to output-stream.

#### Examples:

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of *type* type-error if *input-stream* is not an *input stream*. Should signal an error of *type* type-error if *output-stream* is not an *output stream*.

# $\begin{array}{c} \textbf{two-way-stream-input-stream, two-way-stream-} \\ \textbf{output-stream} & \textit{Function} \end{array}$

# Syntax:

two-way-stream-input-stream two-way-stream o input-stream two-way-stream o output-stream

# **Arguments and Values:**

two-way-stream—a two-way stream.

input-stream—an input stream.

output-stream—an output stream.

# **Description:**

two-way-stream returns the *stream* from which *two-way-stream* receives input. two-way-stream-output-stream returns the *stream* to which *two-way-stream* sends output.

# ${f echo-stream-input-stream, echo-stream-output-stream}$

#### Syntax:

echo-stream-input-stream echo-stream ightarrow input-stream echo-stream ightarrow output-stream ightarrow output-stream

#### **Arguments and Values:**

echo-stream—an echo stream.
input-stream—an input stream.
output-stream—an output stream.

#### Description:

echo-stream-input-stream returns the *input stream* from which echo-stream receives input. echo-stream output-stream returns the output stream to which echo-stream sends output.

# make-echo-stream

Function

### Syntax:

make-echo-stream input-stream output-stream  $\rightarrow$  echo-stream

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
input-stream—an input stream.
output-stream—an output stream.
echo-stream—an echo stream.
```

# Description:

Creates and returns an  $echo\ stream$  that takes input from input-stream and sends output to output-stream.

#### **Examples:**

# See Also:

 $echo-stream-input-stream,\ echo-stream-output-stream,\ make-two-way-stream$ 

# concatenated-stream-streams

Function

# Syntax:

concatenated-stream-streams concatenated-stream  $\rightarrow$  streams

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
concatenated-stream – a concatenated stream.
```

streams—a list of input streams.

# **Description:**

Returns a *list* of *input streams* that constitute the ordered set of *streams* the *concatenated-stream* still has to read from, starting with the current one it is reading from. The list may be *empty* if no more *streams* remain to be read.

The consequences are undefined if the *list structure* of the *streams* is ever modified.

# make-concatenated-stream

Function

#### Syntax:

make-concatenated-stream &rest input-streams ightarrow concatenated-stream

# Arguments and Values:

input-stream—an input stream.

 ${\it concatenated-stream} {\it --} a\ {\it concatenated\ stream}.$ 

#### **Description:**

Returns a concatenated stream that has the indicated input-streams initially associated with it.

# **Examples:**

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal **type-error** if any argument is not an *input stream*.

### See Also:

concatenated-stream-streams

# get-output-stream-string

Function

# Syntax:

get-output-stream-string string-output-stream o string

# Arguments and Values:

```
\textit{string-output-stream} \\ -\text{a} \ \textit{stream}.
```

string—a string.

# **Description:**

Returns a *string* containing, in order, all the *characters* that have been output to *string-output-stream*. This operation clears any *characters* on *string-output-stream*, so the *string* contains only those *characters* which have been output since the last call to **get-output-stream-string** or since the creation of the *string-output-stream*, whichever occurred most recently.

# **Examples:**

```
(setq a-stream (make-string-output-stream) a-string "abcdefghijklm") \rightarrow "abcdefghijklm" (write-string a-string a-stream) \rightarrow "abcdefghijklm" (get-output-stream-string a-stream) \rightarrow "abcdefghijklm" (get-output-stream-string a-stream) \rightarrow ""
```

#### Side Effects:

The *string-output-stream* is cleared.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

The consequences are undefined if *stream-output-string* is *closed*.

The consequences are undefined if *string-output-stream* is a *stream* that was not produced by **make-string-output-stream**. The consequences are undefined if *string-output-stream* was created implicitly by **with-output-to-string** or **format**.

#### See Also:

make-string-output-stream

# make-string-input-stream

Function

### Syntax:

make-string-input-stream string &optional start end ightarrow string-stream

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
string—a string.
```

start, end—bounding index designators of string. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

string-stream—an input string stream.

# **Description:**

Returns an *input string stream*. This *stream* will supply, in order, the *characters* in the substring of *string bounded* by *start* and *end*. After the last *character* has been supplied, the *string stream* will then be at *end of file*.

# **Examples:**

#### See Also:

with-input-from-string

# make-string-output-stream

Function

#### Syntax:

make-string-output-stream &key element-type  $\rightarrow$  string-stream

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
element-type—a type specifier. The default is character.
```

string-stream—an output string stream.

# **Description:**

Returns an *output string stream* that accepts *characters* and makes available (via **get-output-stream-string**) a *string* that contains the *characters* that were actually output.

The *element-type* names the *type* of the *elements* of the *string*; a *string* is constructed of the most specialized *type* that can accommodate *elements* of that *element-type*.

# **Examples:**

```
(let ((s (make-string-output-stream)))
  (write-string "testing... " s)
  (prin1 1234 s)
   (get-output-stream-string s))
  → "testing... 1234"
None..
```

#### See Also:

get-output-stream-string, with-output-to-string

# with-input-from-string

Macro

# Syntax:

```
with-input-from-string (var string &key index start end) \{declaration\}^* \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
var—a variable name.
string—a form; evaluated to produce a string.
index—a place.
start, end—bounding index designators of string.
```

start, end—bounding index designators of string. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.

forms—an implicit progn.

result—the values returned by the forms.

#### Description:

Creates an *input string stream*, provides an opportunity to perform operations on the *stream* (returning zero or more *values*), and then closes the *string stream*.

String is evaluated first, and var is bound to a character input string stream that supplies characters from the subsequence of the resulting string bounded by start and end. The body is executed as an implicit progn.

The *input string stream* is automatically closed on exit from **with-input-from-string**, no matter whether the exit is normal or abnormal. The *input string stream* to which the *variable var* is *bound* has *dynamic extent*; its *extent* ends when the *form* is exited.

The *index* is a pointer within the *string* to be advanced. If **with-input-from-string** is exited normally, then *index* will have as its *value* the index into the *string* indicating the first character not read which is (length *string*) if all characters were used. The place specified by *index* is not updated as reading progresses, but only at the end of the operation.

start and index may both specify the same variable, which is a pointer within the string to be advanced, perhaps repeatedly by some containing loop.

The consequences are undefined if an attempt is made to assign the variable var.

#### **Examples:**

#### **Side Effects:**

The value of the place named by index, if any, is modified.

#### See Also:

make-string-input-stream, Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

# with-output-to-string

Macro

### Syntax:

```
with-output-to-string (var &optional string-form &key element-type) \{declaration\}^* \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

var—a variable name.

The variable j is set to 15.

# with-output-to-string

```
string-form—a form or nil; if non-nil, evaluated to produce string.
```

string—a string that has a fill pointer.

element-type—a type specifier; evaluated. The default is character.

declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.

forms—an implicit progn.

results—If a string-form is not supplied or nil, a string; otherwise, the values returned by the forms.

# **Description:**

with-output-to-string creates a character *output stream*, performs a series of operations that may send results to this *stream*, and then closes the *stream*.

The *element-type* names the *type* of the elements of the *stream*; a *stream* is constructed of the most specialized *type* that can accommodate elements of the given *type*.

The body is executed as an *implicit progn* with *var* bound to an *output string stream*. All output to that *string stream* is saved in a *string*.

If *string* is supplied, *element-type* is ignored, and the output is incrementally appended to *string* as if by use of **vector-push-extend**.

The *output stream* is automatically closed on exit from **with-output-from-string**, no matter whether the exit is normal or abnormal. The *output string stream* to which the *variable var* is *bound* has *dynamic extent*; its *extent* ends when the *form* is exited.

If no *string* is provided, then **with-output-from-string** produces a *stream* that accepts characters and returns a *string* of the indicated *element-type*. If *string* is provided, **with-output-to-string** returns the results of evaluating the last *form*.

The consequences are undefined if an attempt is made to assign the variable var.

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq fstr (make-array '(0) :element-type 'base-char :fill-pointer 0 :adjustable t)) \rightarrow "" (with-output-to-string (s fstr) (format s "here's some output") (input-stream-p s)) \rightarrow false fstr \rightarrow "here's some output"
```

#### Side Effects:

The *string* is modified.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

The consequences are undefined if destructive modifications are performed directly on the *string* during the *dynamic extent* of the call.

#### See Also:

make-string-output-stream, vector-push-extend, Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)

# \*debug-io\*, \*error-output\*, \*query-io\*, \*standard-input\*, \*standard-output\*, \*trace-output\* *Variable*

### Value Type:

For \*standard-input\*: an input stream

For \*error-output\*, \*standard-output\*, and \*trace-output\*: an output stream.

For \*debug-io\*, \*query-io\*: a bidirectional stream.

#### **Initial Value:**

implementation-dependent, but it must be an open stream that is not a generalized synonym stream to an I/O customization variables but that might be a generalized synonym stream to the value of some I/O customization variable. The initial value might also be a generalized synonym stream to either the symbol \*terminal-io\* or to the stream that is its value.

#### **Description:**

These variables are collectively called the  $standardized\ I/O\ customization\ variables$ . They can be bound or assigned in order to change the default destinations for input and/or output used by various  $standardized\ operators$  and facilities.

The value of \*debug-io\*, called  $debug\ I/O$ , is a stream to be used for interactive debugging purposes.

The value of \*error-output\*, called error output, is a stream to which warnings and non-interactive error messages should be sent.

The value of \*query-io\*, called query I/O, is a bidirectional stream to be used when asking questions of the user. The question should be output to this stream, and the answer read from it.

The value of \*standard-input\*, called standard input, is a stream that is used by many operators as a default source of input when no specific input stream is explicitly supplied.

The value of \*standard-output\*, called standard output, is a stream that is used by many operators as a default destination for output when no specific output stream is explicitly supplied.

The value of \*trace-output\*, called trace output, is the stream on which traced functions (see trace) and the time macro print their output.

# \*debug-io\*, \*error-output\*, \*query-io\*, ...

# **Examples:**

```
(with-output-to-string (*error-output*)
   (warn "this string is sent to *error-output*"))

ightarrow "Warning: this string is sent to *error-output*
"; The exact format of this string is implementation-dependent.
 (with-input-from-string (*standard-input* "1001")
    (+ 990 (read))) \rightarrow 1991
 (progn (setq out (with-output-to-string (*standard-output*)
                      (print "print and format t send things to")
                      (format t "*standard-output* now going to a string")))
        :done)

ightarrow : DONE
 out
\"print and format t send things to\" *standard-output* now going to a string"
 (defun fact (n) (if (< n 2) 1 (* n (fact (- n 1)))))
\rightarrow FACT
 (trace fact)
\rightarrow (FACT)
;; Of course, the format of traced output is implementation-dependent.
 (with-output-to-string (*trace-output*)
   (fact 3))
1 Enter FACT 3
| 2 Enter FACT 2
  3 Enter FACT 1
  3 Exit FACT 1
| 2 Exit FACT 2
1 Exit FACT 6"
```

#### See Also:

\*terminal-io\*, synonym-stream, time, trace, Chapter 9 (Conditions), Chapter 23 (Reader), Chapter 22 (Printer)

#### Notes:

The intent of the constraints on the initial value of the I/O customization variables is to ensure that it is always safe to bind or assign such a variable to the value of another I/O customization

variable, without unduly restricting implementation flexibility.

It is common for an *implementation* to make the initial *values* of \*debug-io\* and \*query-io\* be the *same stream*, and to make the initial *values* of \*error-output\* and \*standard-output\* be the *same stream*.

The functions y-or-n-p and yes-or-no-p use query I/O for their input and output.

In the normal Lisp read-eval-print loop, input is read from standard input. Many input functions, including read and read-char, take a stream argument that defaults to standard input.

In the normal Lisp read-eval-print loop, output is sent to standard output. Many output functions, including **print** and **write-char**, take a stream argument that defaults to standard output.

A program that wants, for example, to divert output to a file should do so by binding \*standard-output\*; that way error messages sent to \*error-output\* can still get to the user by going through \*terminal-io\* (if \*error-output\* is bound to \*terminal-io\*), which is usually what is desired.

# \*terminal-io\*

Variable

# Value Type:

a bidirectional stream.

#### **Initial Value:**

implementation-dependent, but it must be an open stream that is not a generalized synonym stream to an I/O customization variables but that might be a generalized synonym stream to the value of some I/O customization variable.

#### Description:

The value of \*terminal-io\*, called terminal I/O, is ordinarily a bidirectional stream that connects to the user's console. Typically, writing to this stream would cause the output to appear on a display screen, for example, and reading from the stream would accept input from a keyboard. It is intended that standard input functions such as read and read-char, when used with this stream, cause echoing of the input into the output side of the stream. The means by which this is accomplished are implementation-dependent.

The effect of changing the value of \*terminal-io\*, either by binding or assignment, is implementation-defined.

#### **Examples:**

```
(progn (prin1 'foo) (prin1 'bar *terminal-io*))
```

```
▷ FOOBAR

→ BAR

(with-output-to-string (*standard-output*)
    (prin1 'foo)
    (prin1 'bar *terminal-io*))

▷ BAR

→ "FOO"
```

#### See Also:

\*debug-io\*, \*error-output\*, \*query-io\*, \*standard-input\*, \*standard-output\*, \*trace-output\*

# stream-error

 $Condition\ Type$ 

#### Class Precedence List:

stream-error, error, serious-condition, condition, t

#### **Description:**

The *type* **stream-error** consists of error conditions that are related to receiving input from or sending output to a *stream*. The "offending stream" is initialized by the :**stream** initialization argument to **make-condition**, and is *accessed* by the *function* **stream-error-stream**.

#### See Also:

stream-error-stream

# stream-error-stream

Function

#### Syntax:

stream-error-stream condition o stream

#### **Arguments and Values:**

condition—a condition of type stream-error. stream—a stream.

# Description:

Returns the offending *stream* of a *condition* of *type* **stream-error**.

#### **Examples:**

```
(with-input-from-string (s "(F00")
  (handler-case (read s)
```

#### See Also:

stream-error, Chapter 9 (Conditions)

end-of-file

Condition Type

#### Class Precedence List:

 $end\text{-}of\text{-}file,\,stream\text{-}error,\,error,\,serious\text{-}condition,\,condition,\,t$ 

### **Description:**

The type end-of-file consists of error conditions related to read operations that are done on streams that have no more data.

#### See Also:

 ${\bf stream\text{-}error\text{-}stream}$ 

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

22. Printer

# 22.1 The Lisp Printer

# 22.1.1 Overview of The Lisp Printer

Common Lisp provides a representation of most *objects* in the form of printed text called the printed representation. Functions such as **print** take an *object* and send the characters of its printed representation to a *stream*. The collection of routines that does this is known as the (Common Lisp) printer.

Reading a printed representation typically produces an *object* that is **equal** to the originally printed *object*.

# 22.1.1.1 Multiple Possible Textual Representations

Most *objects* have more than one possible textual representation. For example, the positive *integer* with a magnitude of twenty-seven can be textually expressed in any of these ways:

```
27 27. #o33 #x1B #b11011 #.(* 3 3 3) 81/3
```

A list containing the two symbols A and B can also be textually expressed in a variety of ways:

```
(AB) (ab) (ab) (\A|B|)
(|\A|
B
```

In general, from the point of view of the *Lisp reader*, wherever *whitespace* is permissible in a textual representation, any number of *spaces* and *newlines* can appear in *standard syntax*.

When a function such as **print** produces a printed representation, it must choose from among many possible textual representations. In most cases, it chooses a program readable representation, but in certain cases it might use a more compact notation that is not program-readable.

A number of option variables, called **printer control variables**, are provided to permit control of individual aspects of the printed representation of *objects*. Figure 22–1 shows the *standardized printer control variables*; there might also be *implementation-defined printer control variables*.

```
*print-array* *print-gensym* *print-pprint-dispatch*

*print-base* *print-length* *print-pretty*

*print-case* *print-level* *print-radix*

*print-circle* *print-lines* *print-readably*

*print-escape* *print-miser-width* *print-right-margin*
```

Figure 22-1. Standardized Printer Control Variables

In addition to the *printer control variables*, the following additional *defined names* relate to or affect the behavior of the *Lisp printer*:

*package*	*read-eval*	readtable-case
*read-default-float-format*	*readtable $*$	

Figure 22-2. Additional Influences on the Lisp printer.

#### 22.1.1.1.1 Printer Escaping

The variable \*print-escape\* controls whether the Lisp printer tries to produce notations such as escape characters and package prefixes.

The variable \*print-readably\* can be used to override many of the individual aspects controlled by the other printer control variables when program-readable output is especially important.

One of the many effects of making the *value* of \*print-readably\* be *true* is that the *Lisp printer* behaves as if \*print-escape\* were also *true*. For notational convenience, we say that if the value of either \*print-readably\* or \*print-escape\* is *true*, then *printer escaping* is "enabled"; and we say that if the values of both \*print-readably\* and \*print-escape\* are *false*, then *printer escaping* is "disabled".

# 22.1.2 Printer Dispatching

The Lisp printer makes its determination of how to print an object as follows:

If the value of \*print-pretty\* is true, printing is controlled by the current pprint dispatch table; see Section 22.2.1.4 (Pretty Print Dispatch Tables).

Otherwise (if the *value* of \***print-pretty\*** is *false*), the object's **print-object** method is used; see Section 22.1.3 (Default Print-Object Methods).

# 22.1.3 Default Print-Object Methods

This section describes the default behavior of **print-object** methods for the *standardized types*.

# 22.1.3.1 Printing Numbers

#### 22.1.3.1.1 Printing Integers

Integers are printed in the radix specified by the current output base in positional notation, most significant digit first. If appropriate, a radix specifier can be printed; see \*print-radix\*. If an integer is negative, a minus sign is printed and then the absolute value of the integer is printed. The integer zero is represented by the single digit 0 and never has a sign. A decimal point might be printed, depending on the value of \*print-radix\*.

For related information about the syntax of an *integer*, see Section 2.3.2.1.1 (Syntax of an Integer).

### 22.1.3.1.2 Printing Ratios

Ratios are printed as follows: the absolute value of the numerator is printed, as for an *integer*; then a /; then the denominator. The numerator and denominator are both printed in the radix specified by the *current output base*; they are obtained as if by **numerator** and **denominator**, and so *ratios* are printed in reduced form (lowest terms). If appropriate, a radix specifier can be printed; see \*print-radix\*. If the ratio is negative, a minus sign is printed before the numerator.

For related information about the syntax of a ratio, see Section 2.3.2.1.2 (Syntax of a Ratio).

#### 22.1.3.1.3 Printing Floats

If the magnitude of the *float* is either zero or between  $10^{-3}$  (inclusive) and  $10^{7}$  (exclusive), it is printed as the integer part of the number, then a decimal point, followed by the fractional part of the number; there is always at least one digit on each side of the decimal point. If the sign of the number (as determined by **float-sign**) is negative, then a minus sign is printed before the number. If the format of the number does not match that specified by **\*read-default-float-format\***, then the *exponent marker* for that format and the digit 0 are also printed. For example, the base of the natural logarithms as a *short float* might be printed as 2.71828SO.

For non-zero magnitudes outside of the range  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{7}$ , a *float* is printed in computerized scientific notation. The representation of the number is scaled to be between 1 (inclusive) and 10 (exclusive) and then printed, with one digit before the decimal point and at least one digit after the decimal point. Next the *exponent marker* for the format is printed, except that if the format of the number matches that specified by \*read-default-float-format\*, then the *exponent marker* E is used. Finally, the power of ten by which the fraction must be multiplied to equal the original number is printed as a decimal integer. For example, Avogadro's number as a *short float* is printed as 6.02523.

For related information about the syntax of a *float*, see Section 2.3.2.2 (Syntax of a Float).

### 22.1.3.1.4 Printing Complexes

A *complex* is printed as #C, an open parenthesis, the printed representation of its real part, a space, the printed representation of its imaginary part, and finally a close parenthesis.

For related information about the syntax of a *complex*, see Section 2.3.2.3 (Syntax of a Complex) and Section 2.4.8.11 (Sharpsign C).

#### 22.1.3.1.5 Note about Printing Numbers

The printed representation of a number must not contain *escape characters*; see Section 2.3.1.1.1 (Escape Characters and Potential Numbers).

# 22.1.3.2 Printing Characters

When printer escaping is disabled, a character prints as itself; it is sent directly to the output stream. When printer escaping is enabled, then #\ syntax is used.

When the printer types out the name of a *character*, it uses the same table as the #\ reader macro would use; therefore any *character* name that is typed out is acceptable as input (in that implementation). If a non-graphic character has a standardized  $name_5$ , that name is preferred over non-standard names for printing in #\ notation. For the graphic standard characters, the character itself is always used for printing in #\ notation—even if the character also has a  $name_5$ .

For details about the #\ reader macro, see Section 2.4.8.1 (Sharpsign Backslash).

#### 22.1.3.3 Printing Symbols

When *printer escaping* is disabled, only the characters of the *symbol*'s *name* are output (but the case in which to print characters in the *name* is controlled by \*print-case\*; see Section 22.1.3.3.2 (Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Printer)).

The remainder of this section applies only when *printer escaping* is enabled.

When printing a *symbol*, the printer inserts enough *single escape* and/or *multiple escape* characters (*backslashes* and/or *vertical-bars*) so that if **read** were called with the same \***readtable**\* and with \***read-base**\* bound to the *current output base*, it would return the same *symbol* (if it is not apparently uninterned) or an uninterned symbol with the same *print name* (otherwise).

For example, if the *value* of \*print-base\* were 16 when printing the symbol face, it would have to be printed as \FACE or \Face or |FACE|, because the token face would be read as a hexadecimal number (decimal value 64206) if the *value* of \*read-base\* were 16.

For additional restrictions concerning characters with nonstandard *syntax types* in the *current readtable*, see the *variable* \*print-readably\*

For information about how the  $Lisp\ reader$  parses symbols, see Section 2.3.4 (Symbols as Tokens) and Section 2.4.8.5 (Sharpsign Colon).

nil might be printed as () when \*print-pretty\* is true and printer escaping is enabled.

#### 22.1.3.3.1 Package Prefixes for Symbols

Package prefixes are printed if necessary. The rules for package prefixes are as follows. When the symbol is printed, if it is in the KEYWORD package, then it is printed with a preceding colon; otherwise, if it is accessible in the current package, it is printed without any package prefix; otherwise, it is printed with a package prefix.

A symbol that is apparently uninterned is printed preceded by "#:" if \*print-gensym\* is true and printer escaping is enabled; if \*print-gensym\* is false or printer escaping is disabled, then the symbol is printed without a prefix, as if it were in the current package.

Because the #: syntax does not intern the following symbol, it is necessary to use circular-list syntax if \*print-circle\* is true and the same uninterned symbol appears several times in an expression to be printed. For example, the result of

```
(let ((x (make-symbol "F00"))) (list x x))
```

would be printed as (#:foo #:foo) if \*print-circle\* were false, but as (#1=#:foo #1#) if \*print-circle\* were true.

A summary of the preceding package prefix rules follows:

foo:bar

foo:bar is printed when symbol bar is external in its home package foo and is not accessible in the current package.

foo::bar

foo::bar is printed when bar is internal in its home package foo and is not accessible in the current package.

:bar

:bar is printed when the home package of bar is the KEYWORD package.

#:bar

#:bar is printed when bar is apparently uninterned, even in the pathological case that bar has no home package but is nevertheless somehow accessible in the current package.

#### 22.1.3.3.2 Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Printer

When printer escaping is disabled, or the characters under consideration are not already quoted specifically by single escape or multiple escape syntax, the readtable case of the current readtable affects the way the Lisp printer writes symbols in the following ways:

:upcase

When the *readtable case* is :upcase, *uppercase characters* are printed in the case specified by \*print-case\*, and *lowercase characters* are printed in their own case.

#### :downcase

When the readtable case is :downcase, uppercase characters are printed in their own case, and lowercase characters are printed in the case specified by \*print-case\*.

#### :preserve

When the readtable case is :preserve, all alphabetic characters are printed in their own case.

#### :invert

When the readtable case is :invert, the case of all alphabetic characters in single case symbol names is inverted. Mixed-case symbol names are printed as is.

The rules for escaping *alphabetic characters* in symbol names are affected by the **readtable-case** if *printer escaping* is enabled. *Alphabetic characters* are escaped as follows:

#### :upcase

When the readtable case is :upcase, all lowercase characters must be escaped.

#### :downcase

When the readtable case is :downcase, all uppercase characters must be escaped.

#### :preserve

When the readtable case is :preserve, no alphabetic characters need be escaped.

#### :invert

When the readtable case is :invert, no alphabetic characters need be escaped.

#### 22.1.3.3.2.1 Examples of Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Printer

(string-upcase readtable-case)
(string-upcase print-case)
(symbol-name symbol)
(prin1-to-string symbol)))))))

The output from (test-readtable-case-printing) should be as follows:

READTABLE-CASE	*PRINT-CASE*	Symbol-name	Output
:UPCASE	:UPCASE	ZEBRA	ZEBRA
:UPCASE	:UPCASE	Zebra	Zebra
:UPCASE	:UPCASE	zebra	zebra
:UPCASE	:DOWNCASE	ZEBRA	zebra
:UPCASE	:DOWNCASE	Zebra	Zebra
:UPCASE	:DOWNCASE	zebra	zebra
:UPCASE	:CAPITALIZE	ZEBRA	Zebra
:UPCASE	:CAPITALIZE	Zebra	Zebra
:UPCASE	:CAPITALIZE	zebra	zebra
:DOWNCASE	:UPCASE	ZEBRA	ZEBRA
:DOWNCASE	:UPCASE	Zebra	Zebra
:DOWNCASE	:UPCASE	zebra	ZEBRA
:DOWNCASE	:DOWNCASE	ZEBRA	ZEBRA
:DOWNCASE	:DOWNCASE	Zebra	Zebra
:DOWNCASE	:DOWNCASE	zebra	zebra
:DOWNCASE	:CAPITALIZE	ZEBRA	ZEBRA
:DOWNCASE	:CAPITALIZE	Zebra	Zebra
:DOWNCASE	:CAPITALIZE	zebra	Zebra
:PRESERVE	:UPCASE	ZEBRA	ZEBRA
:PRESERVE	:UPCASE	Zebra	Zebra
:PRESERVE	:UPCASE	zebra	zebra
:PRESERVE	:DOWNCASE	ZEBRA	ZEBRA
:PRESERVE	:DOWNCASE	Zebra	Zebra
:PRESERVE	:DOWNCASE	zebra	zebra
:PRESERVE	:CAPITALIZE	ZEBRA	ZEBRA
:PRESERVE	:CAPITALIZE	Zebra	Zebra
:PRESERVE	:CAPITALIZE	zebra	zebra
:INVERT	:UPCASE	ZEBRA	zebra
:INVERT	:UPCASE	Zebra	Zebra
:INVERT	:UPCASE	zebra	ZEBRA
:INVERT	:DOWNCASE	ZEBRA	zebra
:INVERT	: DOWNCASE	Zebra	Zebra
:INVERT	:DOWNCASE	zebra	ZEBRA
:INVERT	:CAPITALIZE	ZEBRA	zebra
:INVERT	:CAPITALIZE	Zebra	Zebra
:INVERT	:CAPITALIZE	zebra	ZEBRA

#### 22.1.3.4 Printing Strings

The characters of the *string* are output in order. If *printer escaping* is enabled, a *double-quote* is output before and after, and all *double-quotes* and *single escapes* are preceded by *backslash*. The printing of *strings* is not affected by \*print-array\*. Only the *active elements* of the *string* are printed.

For information on how the *Lisp reader* parses strings, see Section 2.4.5 (Double-Quote).

#### 22.1.3.5 Printing Lists and Conses

Wherever possible, list notation is preferred over dot notation. Therefore the following algorithm is used to print a  $cons \ x$ :

- 1. A *left-parenthesis* is printed.
- 2. The car of x is printed.
- 3. If the cdr of x is itself a cons, it is made to be the current cons (i.e., x becomes that cons), a space is printed, and step 2 is re-entered.
- 4. If the cdr of x is not null, a space, a dot, a space, and the cdr of x are printed.
- 5. A right-parenthesis is printed.

Actually, the above algorithm is only used when \*print-pretty\* is false. When \*print-pretty\* is true (or when pprint is used), additional  $whitespace_1$  may replace the use of a single space, and a more elaborate algorithm with similar goals but more presentational flexibility is used; see Section 22.1.2 (Printer Dispatching).

Although the two expressions below are equivalent, and the reader accepts either one and produces the same *cons*, the printer always prints such a *cons* in the second form.

```
(a . (b . ((c . (d . nil)) . (e . nil))))
(a b (c d) e)
```

The printing of conses is affected by \*print-level\*, \*print-length\*, and \*print-circle\*.

Following are examples of printed representations of *lists*:

```
(a . b) ;A dotted pair of a and b
(a.b) ;A list of one element, the symbol named a.b
(a . b) ;A list of two elements a. and b
(a . b) ;A list of two elements a and .b
```

```
(a b . c)
            ;A dotted list of a and b with c at the end; two conses
.iot
            ;The symbol whose name is .iot
(. b)
            ; Invalid - an error is signaled if an attempt is made to read
            ;this syntax.
(a .)
            ; Invalid - an error is signaled.
(a .. b)
            ;Invalid - an error is signaled.
(a . . b)
           ;Invalid - an error is signaled.
(a b c ...) ; Invalid - an error is signaled.
(a \. b)
            ;A list of three elements a, ., and b
(a | . | b)
          ;A list of three elements a, ., and b
(a \... b) ; A list of three elements a, ..., and b
(a \mid ... \mid b); A list of three elements a, ..., and b
```

For information on how the *Lisp reader* parses *lists* and *conses*, see Section 2.4.1 (Left-Parenthesis).

## 22.1.3.6 Printing Bit Vectors

A bit vector is printed as #\* followed by the bits of the bit vector in order. If \*print-array\* is false, then the bit vector is printed in a format (using #<) that is concise but not readable. Only the active elements of the bit vector are printed.

For information on Lisp reader parsing of bit vectors, see Section 2.4.8.4 (Sharpsign Asterisk).

## 22.1.3.7 Printing Other Vectors

If \*print-array\* is true and \*print-readably\* is false, any vector other than a string or bit vector is printed using general-vector syntax; this means that information about specialized vector representations does not appear. The printed representation of a zero-length vector is #(). The printed representation of a non-zero-length vector begins with #(. Following that, the first element of the vector is printed. If there are any other elements, they are printed in turn, with each such additional element preceded by a space if \*print-pretty\* is false, or whitespace<sub>1</sub> if \*print-pretty\* is true. A right-parenthesis after the last element terminates the printed representation of the vector. The printing of vectors is affected by \*print-level\* and \*print-length\*. If the vector has a fill pointer, then only those elements below the fill pointer are printed.

If both \*print-array\* and \*print-readably\* are *false*, the *vector* is not printed as described above, but in a format (using #<) that is concise but not readable.

If \*print-readably\* is true, the vector prints in an implementation-defined manner; see the variable \*print-readably\*.

For information on how the *Lisp reader* parses these "other *vectors*," see Section 2.4.8.3 (Sharpsign Left-Parenthesis).

### 22.1.3.8 Printing Other Arrays

If \*print-array\* is true and \*print-readably\* is false, any array other than a vector is printed using #nA format. Let n be the rank of the array. Then # is printed, then n as a decimal integer, then A, then n open parentheses. Next the elements are scanned in row-major order, using write on each element, and separating elements from each other with whitespace<sub>1</sub>. The array's dimensions are numbered 0 to n-1 from left to right, and are enumerated with the rightmost index changing fastest. Every time the index for dimension j is incremented, the following actions are taken:

- If j < n-1, then a close parenthesis is printed.
- If incrementing the index for dimension j caused it to equal dimension j, that index is reset to zero and the index for dimension j-1 is incremented (thereby performing these three steps recursively), unless j=0, in which case the entire algorithm is terminated. If incrementing the index for dimension j did not cause it to equal dimension j, then a space is printed.
- If j < n-1, then an open parenthesis is printed.

This causes the contents to be printed in a format suitable for :initial-contents to make-array. The lists effectively printed by this procedure are subject to truncation by \*print-level\* and \*print-length\*.

If the *array* is of a specialized *type*, containing bits or characters, then the innermost lists generated by the algorithm given above can instead be printed using bit-vector or string syntax, provided that these innermost lists would not be subject to truncation by \*print-length\*.

If both \*print-array\* and \*print-readably\* are false, then the array is printed in a format (using #<) that is concise but not readable.

If \*print-readably\* is true, the array prints in an implementation-defined manner; see the variable \*print-readably\*. In particular, this may be important for arrays having some dimension 0.

For information on how the *Lisp reader* parses these "other arrays," see Section 2.4.8.12 (Sharpsign A).

## 22.1.3.9 Examples of Printing Arrays

```
▷ ("<2,0>" "<2,1>" "<2,2>"))
▷ #("<0,0>" "<0,1>" "<0,2>" "<1,0>" "<1,1>" "<1,2>" "<2,0>" "<2,1>" "<2,2>")
→ #<ARRAY 9 indirect 36363476>
```

## 22.1.3.10 Printing Random States

A specific syntax for printing *objects* of *type* random-state is not specified. However, every *implementation* must arrange to print a *random state object* in such a way that, within the same implementation, read can construct from the printed representation a copy of the *random state* object as if the copy had been made by make-random-state.

If the type random state is effectively implemented by using the machinery for **defstruct**, the usual structure syntax can then be used for printing random state objects; one might look something like

```
#S(RANDOM-STATE :DATA #(14 49 98436589 786345 8734658324 ...))
```

where the components are implementation-dependent.

### 22.1.3.11 Printing Pathnames

When *printer escaping* is enabled, the syntax #P"..." is how a *pathname* is printed by **write** and the other functions herein described. The "..." is the namestring representation of the pathname.

When printer escaping is disabled, write writes a pathname P by writing (namestring P) instead.

For information on how the *Lisp reader* parses pathnames, see Section 2.4.8.14 (Sharpsign P).

#### 22.1.3.12 Printing Structures

By default, a *structure* of type S is printed using #S syntax. This behavior can be customized by specifying a :print-function or :print-object option to the **defstruct** form that defines S, or by writing a print-object method that is specialized for objects of type S.

Different structures might print out in different ways; the default notation for structures is:

```
#S(structure-name {slot-key slot-value}*)
```

where #S indicates structure syntax, structure-name is a structure name, each slot-key is an initialization argument name for a slot in the structure, and each corresponding slot-value is a representation of the object in that slot.

For information on how the *Lisp reader* parses structures, see Section 2.4.8.13 (Sharpsign S).

## 22.1.3.13 Printing Other Objects

Other objects are printed in an *implementation-dependent* manner. It is not required that an *implementation* print those objects readably.

For example, hash tables, readtables, packages, streams, and functions might not print readably.

A common notation to use in this circumstance is #<...>. Since #< is not readable by the *Lisp* reader, the precise format of the text which follows is not important, but a common format to use is that provided by the **print-unreadable-object** macro.

For information on how the *Lisp reader* treats this notation, see Section 2.4.8.20 (Sharpsign Less-Than-Sign). For information on how to notate *objects* that cannot be printed *readably*, see Section 2.4.8.6 (Sharpsign Dot).

# 22.1.4 Examples of Printer Behavior

```
(let ((*print-escape* t)) (fresh-line) (write #\a))
> #\a
\rightarrow #\a
 (let ((*print-escape* nil) (*print-readably* nil))
   (fresh-line)
   (write #\a))
> a
\rightarrow #\a
 (progn (fresh-line) (prin1 #\a))
> #\a
\rightarrow #\a
 (progn (fresh-line) (print #\a))
> #\a
\rightarrow #\a
 (progn (fresh-line) (princ #\a))
⊳ a
\rightarrow #\a
 (dolist (val '(t nil))
   (let ((*print-escape* val) (*print-readably* val))
     (print '#\a)
     (prin1 #\a) (write-char #\Space)
     (princ #\a) (write-char #\Space)
     (write #\a)))
> #\a #\a a #\a
```

```
> #\a #\a a a
\rightarrow \, {\tt NIL}
 (progn (fresh-line) (write '(let ((a 1) (b 2)) (+ a b))))
▷ (LET ((A 1) (B 2)) (+ A B))
\rightarrow (LET ((A 1) (B 2)) (+ A B))
 (progn (fresh-line) (pprint '(let ((a 1) (b 2)) (+ a b))))
▷ (LET ((A 1)
        (B 2))
  (+ A B))

ightarrow (LET ((A 1) (B 2)) (+ A B))
 (progn (fresh-line)
        (write '(let ((a 1) (b 2)) (+ a b)) :pretty t))
(B 2))
▷ (+ A B))

ightarrow (LET ((A 1) (B 2)) (+ A B))
 (with-output-to-string (s)
    (write 'write :stream s)
    (prin1 'prin1 s))

ightarrow "WRITEPRIN1"
```

# 22.2 The Lisp Pretty Printer

# 22.2.1 Pretty Printer Concepts

The facilities provided by the **pretty printer** permit programs to redefine the way in which code is displayed, and allow the full power of pretty printing to be applied to complex combinations of data structures.

Whether any given style of output is in fact "pretty" is inherently a somewhat subjective issue. However, since the effect of the *pretty printer* can be customized by *conforming programs*, the necessary flexibility is provided for individual *programs* to achieve an arbitrary degree of aesthetic control.

By providing direct access to the mechanisms within the pretty printer that make dynamic decisions about layout, the macros and functions **pprint-logical-block**, **pprint-newline**, and **pprint-indent** make it possible to specify pretty printing layout rules as a part of any function that produces output. They also make it very easy for the detection of circularity and sharing, and abbreviation based on length and nesting depth to be supported by the function.

The pretty printer is driven entirely by dispatch based on the value of \*print-print-dispatch\*. The function set-print-dispatch makes it possible for conforming programs to associate new pretty printing functions with a type.

## 22.2.1.1 Dynamic Control of the Arrangement of Output

The actions of the *pretty printer* when a piece of output is too large to fit in the space available can be precisely controlled. Three concepts underlie the way these operations work—*logical blocks*, *conditional newlines*, and *sections*. Before proceeding further, it is important to define these terms.

The first line of Figure 22–3 shows a schematic piece of output. Each of the characters in the output is represented by "–". The positions of conditional newlines are indicated by digits. The beginnings and ends of logical blocks are indicated by "<" and ">" respectively.

The output as a whole is a logical block and the outermost section. This section is indicated by the 0's on the second line of Figure 1. Logical blocks nested within the output are specified by the macro **pprint-logical-block**. Conditional newline positions are specified by calls to **pprint-newline**. Each conditional newline defines two sections (one before it and one after it) and is associated with a third (the section immediately containing it).

The section after a conditional newline consists of: all the output up to, but not including, (a) the next conditional newline immediately contained in the same logical block; or if (a) is not applicable, (b) the next newline that is at a lesser level of nesting in logical blocks; or if (b) is not applicable, (c) the end of the output.

The section before a conditional newline consists of: all the output back to, but not including, (a) the previous conditional newline that is immediately contained in the same logical block; or if (a)

is not applicable, (b) the beginning of the immediately containing logical block. The last four lines in Figure 1 indicate the sections before and after the four conditional newlines.

The section immediately containing a conditional newline is the shortest section that contains the conditional newline in question. In Figure 22–3, the first conditional newline is immediately contained in the section marked with 0's, the second and third conditional newlines are immediately contained in the section before the fourth conditional newline, and the fourth conditional newline is immediately contained in the section after the first conditional newline.

Figure 22-3. Example of Logical Blocks, Conditional Newlines, and Sections

Whenever possible, the pretty printer displays the entire contents of a section on a single line. However, if the section is too long to fit in the space available, line breaks are inserted at conditional newline positions within the section.

#### 22.2.1.2 Format Directive Interface

The primary interface to operations for dynamically determining the arrangement of output is provided through the functions and macros of the pretty printer. Figure 22–4 shows the defined names related to *pretty printing*.

*print-lines*	pprint-dispatch	pprint-pop
*print-miser-width*	pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted	pprint-tab
*print-pprint-dispatch*	pprint-fill	pprint-tabular
*print-right-margin*	pprint-indent	set-pprint-dispatch
copy-pprint-dispatch	pprint-linear	write
format	pprint-logical-block	
formatter	pprint-newline	

Figure 22-4. Defined names related to pretty printing.

Figure 22-5 identifies a set of *format directives* which serve as an alternate interface to the same pretty printing operations in a more textually compact form.

~I	~W	~<~:>	
~:T	~//	~_	

Figure 22-5. Format directives related to Pretty Printing

### 22.2.1.3 Compiling Format Strings

A format string is essentially a program in a special-purpose language that performs printing, and that is interpreted by the function format. The formatter macro provides the efficiency of using a compiled function to do that same printing but without losing the textual compactness of format strings.

A **format control** is either a *format string* or a *function* that was returned by the the **formatter** macro.

## 22.2.1.4 Pretty Print Dispatch Tables

A **pprint dispatch table** is a mapping from keys to pairs of values. Each key is a *type specifier*. The values associated with a key are a "function" (specifically, a *function designator* or **nil**) and a "numerical priority" (specifically, a *real*). Basic insertion and retrieval is done based on the keys with the equality of keys being tested by **equal**.

When \*print-pretty\* is true, the current pprint dispatch table (in \*print-pprint-dispatch\*) controls how objects are printed. The information in this table takes precedence over all other mechanisms for specifying how to print objects. In particular, it has priority over user-defined print-object methods because the current pprint dispatch table is consulted first.

The function is chosen from the *current pprint dispatch table* by finding the highest priority function that is associated with a *type specifier* that matches the *object*; if there is more than one such function, it is *implementation-dependent* which is used.

However, if there is no information in the table about how to *pretty print* a particular kind of *object*, a *function* is invoked which uses **print-object** to print the *object*. The value of \***print-pretty\*** is still *true* when this function is *called*, and individual methods for **print-object** might still elect to produce output in a special format conditional on the *value* of \***print-pretty\***.

#### 22.2.1.5 Pretty Printer Margins

A primary goal of pretty printing is to keep the output between a pair of margins. The column where the output begins is taken as the left margin. If the current column cannot be determined at the time output begins, the left margin is assumed to be zero. The right margin is controlled by \*print-right-margin\*.

# 22.2.2 Examples of using the Pretty Printer

As an example of the interaction of logical blocks, conditional newlines, and indentation, consider the function simple-pprint-defun below. This function prints out lists whose *cars* are **defun** in the standard way assuming that the list has exactly length 4.

```
(defun simple-pprint-defun (*standard-output* list)
  (pprint-logical-block (*standard-output* list :prefix "(" :suffix ")")
      (write (first list))
```

```
(write-char #\Space)
(pprint-newline :miser)
(pprint-indent :current 0)
(write (second list))
(write-char #\Space)
(pprint-newline :fill)
(write (third list))
(pprint-indent :block 1)
(write-char #\Space)
(pprint-newline :linear)
(write (fourth list))))
```

Suppose that one evaluates the following:

```
(simple-pprint-defun *standard-output* '(defun prod (x y) (* x y)))
```

If the line width available is greater than or equal to 26, then all of the output appears on one line. If the line width available is reduced to 25, a line break is inserted at the linear-style conditional newline before the *expression* (\* x y), producing the output shown. The (pprint-indent:block 1) causes (\* x y) to be printed at a relative indentation of 1 in the logical block.

```
(DEFUN PROD (X Y)
(* X Y))
```

If the line width available is 15, a line break is also inserted at the fill style conditional newline before the argument list. The call on (pprint-indent :current 0) causes the argument list to line up under the function name.

```
(DEFUN PROD
(X Y)
(* X Y))
```

If \*print-miser-width\* were greater than or equal to 14, the example output above would have been as follows, because all indentation changes are ignored in miser mode and line breaks are inserted at miser-style conditional newlines.

```
(DEFUN
PROD
(X Y)
(* X Y))
```

As an example of a per-line prefix, consider that evaluating the following produces the output shown with a line width of 20 and \*print-miser-width\* of nil.

```
(pprint-logical-block (*standard-output* nil :per-line-prefix ";;; ")
  (simple-pprint-defun *standard-output* '(defun prod (x y) (* x y))))
;;; (DEFUN PROD
```

```
;;; (X Y);;; (* X Y))
```

As a more complex (and realistic) example, consider the function pprint-let below. This specifies how to print a let form in the traditional style. It is more complex than the example above, because it has to deal with nested structure. Also, unlike the example above it contains complete code to readably print any possible list that begins with the symbol let. The outermost pprint-logical-block form handles the printing of the input list as a whole and specifies that parentheses should be printed in the output. The second pprint-logical-block form handles the list of binding pairs. Each pair in the list is itself printed by the innermost pprint-logical-block. (A loop form is used instead of merely decomposing the pair into two objects so that readable output will be produced no matter whether the list corresponding to the pair has one element, two elements, or (being malformed) has more than two elements.) A space and a fill-style conditional newline are placed after each pair except the last. The loop at the end of the topmost pprint-logical-block form prints out the forms in the body of the let form separated by spaces and linear-style conditional newlines.

```
(defun pprint-let (*standard-output* list)
  (pprint-logical-block (nil list :prefix "(" :suffix ")")
    (write (pprint-pop))
    (pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted)
    (write-char #\Space)
    (pprint-logical-block (nil (pprint-pop) :prefix "(" :suffix ")")
      (pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted)
      (loop (pprint-logical-block (nil (pprint-pop) :prefix "(" :suffix ")")
              (pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted)
              (loop (write (pprint-pop))
                    (pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted)
                    (write-char #\Space)
                    (pprint-newline :linear)))
            (pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted)
            (write-char #\Space)
            (pprint-newline :fill)))
    (pprint-indent :block 1)
    (loop (pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted)
          (write-char #\Space)
          (pprint-newline :linear)
          (write (pprint-pop)))))
```

Suppose that one evaluates the following with \*print-level\* being 4, and \*print-circle\* being true.

If the line length is greater than or equal to 77, the output produced appears on one line. However,

(LET (X

if the line length is 76, line breaks are inserted at the linear-style conditional newlines separating the forms in the body and the output below is produced. Note that, the degenerate binding pair x is printed readably even though it fails to be a list; a depth abbreviation marker is printed in place of  $(g\ 3)$ ; the binding pair  $(z\ .\ 2)$  is printed readably even though it is not a proper list; and appropriate circularity markers are printed.

If the line length is reduced to 35, a line break is inserted at one of the fill-style conditional newlines separating the binding pairs.

Suppose that the line length is further reduced to 22 and \*print-length\* is set to 3. In this situation, line breaks are inserted after both the first and second binding pairs. In addition, the second binding pair is itself broken across two lines. Clause (b) of the description of fill-style conditional newlines (see the *function* pprint-newline) prevents the binding pair (z . 2) from being printed at the end of the third line. Note that the length abbreviation hides the circularity from view and therefore the printing of circularity markers disappears.

Evaluating the following with a line length of 15 produces the output shown.

```
(pprint-vector *standard-output* '#(12 34 567 8 9012 34 567 89 0 1 23))
```

```
#(12 34 567 8 9012 34 567 89 0 1 23)
```

As examples of the convenience of specifying pretty printing with *format strings*, consider that the functions simple-pprint-defun and pprint-let used as examples above can be compactly defined as follows. (The function pprint-vector cannot be defined using **format** because the data structure it traverses is not a list.)

```
(defun simple-pprint-defun (*standard-output* list)
  (format T "~:<~W ~@_~:I~W ~:_~W~1I ~_~W~:>" list))
(defun pprint-let (*standard-output* list)
  (format T "~:<~W~^~:<~@{~:<~@{~:V~^~:_~}~:>~1I~@{~^~:~W~}~:>" list))
```

In the following example, the first form restores \*print-pprint-dispatch\* to the equivalent of its initial value. The next two forms then set up a special way to pretty print ratios. Note that the more specific type specifier has to be associated with a higher priority.

The following two *forms* illustrate the definition of pretty printing functions for types of *code*. The first *form* illustrates how to specify the traditional method for printing quoted objects using *single-quote*. Note the care taken to ensure that data lists that happen to begin with **quote** will be printed readably. The second form specifies that lists beginning with the symbol my-let should print the same way that lists beginning with let print when the initial *pprint dispatch table* is in effect.

```
(set-pprint-dispatch '(cons (member quote)) ()
  #'(lambda (s list)
      (if (and (consp (cdr list)) (null (cddr list)))
            (funcall (formatter "'~W") s (cadr list))
            (pprint-fill s list))))
```

The next example specifies a default method for printing lists that do not correspond to function calls. Note that the functions **pprint-linear**, **pprint-fill**, and **pprint-tabular** are all defined with optional *colon-p* and *at-sign-p* arguments so that they can be used as **pprint dispatch functions** as well as  $\sim/\ldots$  functions.

This final example shows how to define a pretty printing function for a user defined data structure.

The pretty printing function for the structure family specifies how to adjust the layout of the output so that it can fit aesthetically into a variety of line widths. In addition, it obeys the printer control variables \*print-level\*, \*print-length\*, \*print-lines\*, \*print-circle\* and \*print-escape\*, and can tolerate several different kinds of malformity in the data structure. The output below shows what is printed out with a right margin of 25, \*print-pretty\* being true, \*print-escape\* being false, and a malformed kids list.

Note that a pretty printing function for a structure is different from the structure's **print-object** method. While **print-object** methods are permanently associated with a structure, pretty printing functions are stored in pprint dispatch tables and can be rapidly changed to reflect different printing needs. If there is no pretty printing function for a structure in the current pprint dispatch table, its **print-object** method is used instead.

# 22.2.3 Notes about the Pretty Printer's Background

For a background reference to the abstract concepts detailed in this section, see XP: A Common Lisp Pretty Printing System. The details of that paper are not binding on this document, but may be helpful in establishing a conceptual basis for understanding this material.

# 22.3 Formatted Output

format is useful for producing nicely formatted text, producing good-looking messages, and so on. format can generate and return a *string* or output to *destination*.

The *control-string* argument to **format** is actually a *format control*. That is, it can be either a *format string* or a *function*, for example a *function* returned by the **formatter** *macro*.

If it is a *function*, the *function* is called with the appropriate output stream as its first argument and the data arguments to **format** as its remaining arguments. The function should perform whatever output is necessary and return the unused tail of the arguments (if any).

The compilation process performed by **formatter** produces a *function* that would do with its *arguments* as the **format** interpreter would do with those *arguments*.

The remainder of this section describes what happens if the *control-string* is a *format string*.

Control-string is composed of simple text (characters) and embedded directives.

format writes the simple text as is; each embedded directive specifies further text output that is to appear at the corresponding point within the simple text. Most directives use one or more elements of *args* to create their output.

A directive consists of a *tilde*, optional prefix parameters separated by commas, optional *colon* and *at-sign* modifiers, and a single character indicating what kind of directive this is. There is no required ordering between the *at-sign* and *colon* modifier. The *case* of the directive character is ignored. Prefix parameters are notated as signed (sign is optional) decimal numbers, or as a *single-quote* followed by a character. For example, ~5,'od can be used to print an *integer* in decimal radix in five columns with leading zeros, or ~5,'\*d to get leading asterisks.

In place of a prefix parameter to a directive, V (or v) can be used. In this case, format takes an argument from args as a parameter to the directive. The argument should be an integer or character. If the arg used by a V parameter is nil, the effect is as if the parameter had been omitted. # can be used in place of a prefix parameter; it represents the number of args remaining to be processed. When used within a recursive format, in the context of ~? or ~{, the # prefix parameter represents the number of format arguments remaining within the recursive call.

Examples of format strings:

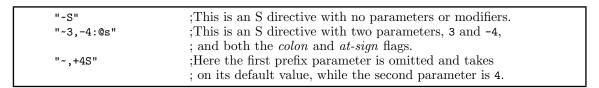


Figure 22-6. Examples of format control strings

format sends the output to destination. If destination is nil, format creates and returns a string

containing the output from *control-string*. If *destination* is *non-nil*, it must be a *string* with a *fill* pointer, a *stream*, or the symbol t. If *destination* is a *string* with a *fill* pointer, the output is added to the end of the *string*. If *destination* is a *stream*, the output is sent to that *stream*. If *destination* is t, the output is sent to *standard* output.

In the description of the directives that follows, the term *arg* in general refers to the next item of the set of *args* to be processed. The word or phrase at the beginning of each description is a mnemonic for the directive. **format** directives do not bind any of the printer control variables (\*print-...\*) except as specified in the following descriptions. Implementations may specify the binding of new, implementation-specific printer control variables for each **format** directive, but they may neither bind any standard printer control variables not specified in description of a **format** directive nor fail to bind any standard printer control variables as specified in the description.

# 22.3.1 FORMAT Basic Output

## 22.3.1.1 Tilde C: Character

The next arg should be a character; it is printed according to the modifier flags.

-C prints the *character* as if by using **write-char** if it is a *simple character*. Characters that are not *simple* are not necessarily printed as if by **write-char**, but are displayed in an *implementation-defined*, abbreviated format. For example,

```
(format nil "~C" #\A) \to "A" (format nil "~C" #\Space) \to " "
```

~:C is the same as ~C for *printing characters*, but other *characters* are "spelled out." The intent is that this is a "pretty" format for printing characters. For *simple characters* that are not *printing*, what is spelled out is the *name* of the *character* (see **char-name**). For *characters* that are not *simple* and not *printing*, what is spelled out is *implementation-defined*. For example,

```
(format nil "~:C" #\A) \rightarrow "A" (format nil "~:C" #\Space) \rightarrow "Space" ;; This next example assumes an implementation-defined "Control" attribute. (format nil "~:C" #\Control-Space) \rightarrow "Control-Space" \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} "c-Space"
```

~:@C prints what ~: C would, and then if the *character* requires unusual shift keys on the keyboard to type it, this fact is mentioned. For example,

```
(format nil "~:@C" #\Control-Partial) 
ightarrow "Control-\partial (Top-F)"
```

This is the format used for telling the user about a key he is expected to type, in prompts, for instance. The precise output may depend not only on the implementation, but on the particular I/O devices in use.

~@C prints the *character* in a way that the *Lisp reader* can understand, using #\ syntax.

~@C binds \*print-escape\* to t.

### 22.3.1.2 Tilde Percent: Newline

This outputs a #\Newline character, thereby terminating the current output line and beginning a new one.  $\sim n\%$  outputs n newlines. No arg is used.

## 22.3.1.3 Tilde Ampersand: Fresh-Line

Unless it can be determined that the output stream is already at the beginning of a line, this outputs a newline. -n& calls fresh-line and then outputs n-1 newlines. -0& does nothing.

### 22.3.1.4 Tilde Vertical-Bar: Page

This outputs a page separator character, if possible.  $\neg n \mid$  does this n times.

#### 22.3.1.5 Tilde Tilde: Tilde

This outputs a *tilde*.  $\neg n \neg$  outputs n tildes.

## 22.3.2 FORMAT Radix Control

#### 22.3.2.1 Tilde R: Radix

~nR prints arg in radix n. The modifier flags and any remaining parameters are used as for the ~D directive. ~D is the same as ~10R. The full form is ~radix, mincol, padchar, commachar, comma-intervalR.

If no prefix parameters are given to ~R, then a different interpretation is given. The argument should be an *integer*. For example, if *arg* is 4:

- ~R prints arg as a cardinal English number: four.
- ~: R prints arg as an ordinal English number: fourth.
- ~ CR prints arg as a Roman numeral: IV.

• ~: QR prints arg as an old Roman numeral: IIII.

For example:

```
(format nil "~", 4:B" 13) \rightarrow "1101" (format nil "~", 4:B" 17) \rightarrow "1 0001" (format nil "~19,0,' ,4:B" 3333) \rightarrow "0000 1101 0000 0101" (format nil "~3",' ,2:R" 17) \rightarrow "1 22" (format nil "~",',2:D" #xFFFF) \rightarrow "6|55|35"
```

If and only if the first parameter, n, is supplied,  $\neg R$  binds \*print-escape\* to false, \*print-radix\* to false, \*print-base\* to n, and \*print-readably\* to false.

If and only if no parameters are supplied, ~R binds \*print-base\* to 10.

#### 22.3.2.2 Tilde D: Decimal

An arg, which should be an integer, is printed in decimal radix. ~D will never put a decimal point after the number.

~mincolD uses a column width of mincol; spaces are inserted on the left if the number requires fewer than mincol columns for its digits and sign. If the number doesn't fit in mincol columns, additional columns are used as needed.

~mincol, padcharD uses padchar as the pad character instead of space.

If arg is not an integer, it is printed in ~A format and decimal base.

The @ modifier causes the number's sign to be printed always; the default is to print it only if the number is negative. The : modifier causes commas to be printed between groups of digits; commachar may be used to change the character used as the comma. comma-interval must be an integer and defaults to 3. When the : modifier is given to any of these directives, the commachar is printed between groups of comma-interval digits.

Thus the most general form of ~D is ~mincol, padchar, commachar, comma-intervalD.

~D binds \*print-escape\* to false, \*print-radix\* to false, \*print-base\* to 10, and \*print-readably\* to false.

#### 22.3.2.3 Tilde B: Binary

This is just like ~D but prints in binary radix (radix 2) instead of decimal. The full form is therefore ~mincol, padchar, commachar, comma-intervalB.

~B binds \*print-escape\* to false, \*print-radix\* to false, \*print-base\* to 2, and \*print-readably\* to false.

#### 22.3.2.4 Tilde O: Octal

This is just like ~D but prints in octal radix (radix 8) instead of decimal. The full form is therefore ~mincol, padchar, commachar, comma-intervalo.

~0 binds \*print-escape\* to false, \*print-radix\* to false, \*print-base\* to 8, and \*print-readably\* to false.

#### 22.3.2.5 Tilde X: Hexadecimal

This is just like ~D but prints in hexadecimal radix (radix 16) instead of decimal. The full form is therefore ~mincol, padchar, commachar, comma-intervalx.

~X binds \*print-escape\* to false, \*print-radix\* to false, \*print-base\* to 16, and \*print-readably\* to false.

# 22.3.3 FORMAT Floating-Point Printers

## 22.3.3.1 Tilde F: Fixed-Format Floating-Point

The next arg is printed as a float.

The full form is  $\neg w$ , d, k, overflowchar, padchar. The parameter w is the width of the field to be printed; d is the number of digits to print after the decimal point; k is a scale factor that defaults to zero.

Exactly w characters will be output. First, leading copies of the character padchar (which defaults to a space) are printed, if necessary, to pad the field on the left. If the arg is negative, then a minus sign is printed; if the arg is not negative, then a plus sign is printed if and only if the  $\mathfrak E$  modifier was supplied. Then a sequence of digits, containing a single embedded decimal point, is printed; this represents the magnitude of the value of arg times  $10^k$ , rounded to d fractional digits. When rounding up and rounding down would produce printed values equidistant from the scaled value of arg, then the implementation is free to use either one. For example, printing the argument 6.375 using the format ~4,2F may correctly produce either 6.37 or 6.38. Leading zeros are not permitted, except that a single zero digit is output before the decimal point if the printed value is less than one, and this single zero digit is not output at all if w=d+1.

If it is impossible to print the value in the required format in a field of width w, then one of two actions is taken. If the parameter overflowchar is supplied, then w copies of that parameter are printed instead of the scaled value of arg. If the overflowchar parameter is omitted, then the scaled value is printed using more than w characters, as many more as may be needed.

If the w parameter is omitted, then the field is of variable width. In effect, a value is chosen for w in such a way that no leading pad characters need to be printed and exactly d characters will follow the decimal point. For example, the directive  $\sim$ , 2F will print exactly two digits after the decimal point and as many as necessary before the decimal point.

If the parameter d is omitted, then there is no constraint on the number of digits to appear after the decimal point. A value is chosen for d in such a way that as many digits as possible may be printed subject to the width constraint imposed by the parameter w and the constraint that no trailing zero digits may appear in the fraction, except that if the fraction to be printed is zero, then a single zero digit should appear after the decimal point if permitted by the width constraint.

If both w and d are omitted, then the effect is to print the value using ordinary free-format output; **prin1** uses this format for any number whose magnitude is either zero or between  $10^{-3}$  (inclusive) and  $10^{7}$  (exclusive).

If w is omitted, then if the magnitude of arg is so large (or, if d is also omitted, so small) that more than 100 digits would have to be printed, then an implementation is free, at its discretion, to print the number using exponential notation instead, as if by the directive  $\sim E$  (with all parameters to  $\sim E$  defaulted, not taking their values from the  $\sim F$  directive).

If arg is a rational number, then it is coerced to be a single float and then printed. Alternatively, an implementation is permitted to process a rational number by any other method that has essentially the same behavior but avoids loss of precision or overflow because of the coercion. If w and d are not supplied and the number has no exact decimal representation, for example 1/3, some precision cutoff must be chosen by the implementation since only a finite number of digits may be printed.

If arg is a complex number or some non-numeric object, then it is printed using the format directive  $\sim wD$ , thereby printing it in decimal radix and a minimum field width of w.

~F binds \*print-escape\* to false and \*print-readably\* to false.

#### 22.3.3.2 Tilde E: Exponential Floating-Point

The next arg is printed as a float in exponential notation.

The full form is  $\sim w$ , d, e, k, overflowchar, padchar, exponentchar. The parameter w is the width of the field to be printed; d is the number of digits to print after the decimal point; e is the number of digits to use when printing the exponent; k is a scale factor that defaults to one (not zero).

Exactly w characters will be output. First, leading copies of the character padchar (which defaults to a space) are printed, if necessary, to pad the field on the left. If the arg is negative, then a minus sign is printed; if the arg is not negative, then a plus sign is printed if and only if the @ modifier was supplied. Then a sequence of digits containing a single embedded decimal point is printed. The form of this sequence of digits depends on the scale factor k. If k is zero, then d digits are printed after the decimal point, and a single zero digit appears before the decimal point if the total field width will permit it. If k is positive, then it must be strictly less than d+2; k significant digits are printed before the decimal point, and d-k+1 digits are printed after the decimal point. If k is negative, then it must be strictly greater than -d; a single zero digit appears before the decimal point if the total field width will permit it, and after the decimal point are printed first -k zeros and then d+k significant digits. The printed fraction must be properly rounded. When rounding up and rounding down would produce printed values equidistant from the scaled value of arg, then the implementation is free to use either one. For example, printing the argument 637.5 using the format ~8,2E may correctly produce either 6.37E+2 or 6.38E+2.

Following the digit sequence, the exponent is printed. First the character parameter exponentchar is printed; if this parameter is omitted, then the exponent marker that **prin1** would use is printed, as determined from the type of the float and the current value of \*read-default-float-format\*. Next, either a plus sign or a minus sign is printed, followed by e digits representing the power of ten by which the printed fraction must be multiplied to properly represent the rounded value of ara.

If it is impossible to print the value in the required format in a field of width w, possibly because k is too large or too small or because the exponent cannot be printed in e character positions, then one of two actions is taken. If the parameter overflowchar is supplied, then w copies of that parameter are printed instead of the scaled value of arg. If the overflowchar parameter is omitted, then the scaled value is printed using more than w characters, as many more as may be needed; if the problem is that d is too small for the supplied k or that e is too small, then a larger value is used for d or e as may be needed.

If the w parameter is omitted, then the field is of variable width. In effect a value is chosen for w in such a way that no leading pad characters need to be printed.

If the parameter d is omitted, then there is no constraint on the number of digits to appear. A value is chosen for d in such a way that as many digits as possible may be printed subject to the width constraint imposed by the parameter w, the constraint of the scale factor k, and the constraint that no trailing zero digits may appear in the fraction, except that if the fraction to be printed is zero then a single zero digit should appear after the decimal point.

If the parameter e is omitted, then the exponent is printed using the smallest number of digits necessary to represent its value.

If all of w, d, and e are omitted, then the effect is to print the value using ordinary free-format exponential-notation output; **prin1** uses a similar format for any non-zero number whose magnitude is less than  $10^{-3}$  or greater than or equal to  $10^{7}$ . The only difference is that the ~E directive always prints a plus or minus sign in front of the exponent, while **prin1** omits the plus sign if the exponent is non-negative.

If arg is a rational number, then it is coerced to be a single float and then printed. Alternatively, an implementation is permitted to process a rational number by any other method that has essentially the same behavior but avoids loss of precision or overflow because of the coercion. If w and d are unsupplied and the number has no exact decimal representation, for example 1/3, some precision cutoff must be chosen by the implementation since only a finite number of digits may be printed.

If arg is a complex number or some non-numeric object, then it is printed using the format directive  $\sim wD$ , thereby printing it in decimal radix and a minimum field width of w.

~E binds \*print-escape\* to false and \*print-readably\* to false.

## 22.3.3.3 Tilde G: General Floating-Point

The next arg is printed as a float in either fixed-format or exponential notation as appropriate.

The full form is  $\sim w$ , d, e, k, overflowchar, padchar, exponentcharG. The format in which to print arg depends on the magnitude (absolute value) of the arg. Let n be an integer such that  $10^{n-1} \le |arg| < 10^n$ . Let ee equal e+2, or 4 if e is omitted. Let ww equal w-ee, or nil if w is omitted. If d is omitted, first let q be the number of digits needed to print arg with no loss of information and without leading or trailing zeros; then let d equal (max q (min n 7)). Let dd equal d-n.

If  $0 \le dd \le d$ , then arg is printed as if by the format directives

~ww,dd,overflowchar,padcharF~ee@T

Note that the scale factor k is not passed to the ~F directive. For all other values of dd, arg is printed as if by the format directive

 $\sim w$ , d, e, k, overflowchar, padchar, exponentcharE

In either case, an @ modifier is supplied to the  $\sim F$  or  $\sim E$  directive if and only if one was supplied to the  $\sim G$  directive.

~G binds \*print-escape\* to false and \*print-readably\* to false.

## 22.3.3.4 Tilde Dollarsign: Monetary Floating-Point

The next arg is printed as a float in fixed-format notation.

The full form is  $\sim d$ , n, w, padchar\$. The parameter d is the number of digits to print after the decimal point (default value 2); n is the minimum number of digits to print before the decimal point (default value 1); w is the minimum total width of the field to be printed (default value 0).

First padding and the sign are output. If the arg is negative, then a minus sign is printed; if the arg is not negative, then a plus sign is printed if and only if the  $\mathfrak o$  modifier was supplied. If the : modifier is used, the sign appears before any padding, and otherwise after the padding. If w is supplied and the number of other characters to be output is less than w, then copies of padchar (which defaults to a space) are output to make the total field width equal w. Then n digits are printed for the integer part of arg, with leading zeros if necessary; then a decimal point; then d digits of fraction, properly rounded.

If the magnitude of arg is so large that more than m digits would have to be printed, where m is the larger of w and 100, then an implementation is free, at its discretion, to print the number using exponential notation instead, as if by the directive  $\sim w$ ,  $q_{""}padchar$ E, where w and padchar are present or omitted according to whether they were present or omitted in the  $\sim$ \$ directive, and where q=d+n-1, where d and n are the (possibly default) values given to the  $\sim$ \$ directive.

If arg is a rational number, then it is coerced to be a single float and then printed. Alternatively, an implementation is permitted to process a rational number by any other method that has essentially the same behavior but avoids loss of precision or overflow because of the coercion.

If arg is a complex number or some non-numeric object, then it is printed using the format directive  $\sim wD$ , thereby printing it in decimal radix and a minimum field width of w.

~\$ binds \*print-escape\* to false and \*print-readably\* to false.

# 22.3.4 FORMAT Printer Operations

#### 22.3.4.1 Tilde A: Aesthetic

An arg, any object, is printed without escape characters (as by **princ**). If arg is a string, its characters will be output verbatim. If arg is **nil** it will be printed as **nil**; the colon modifier (~:A) will cause an arg of **nil** to be printed as (), but if arg is a composite structure, such as a list or vector, any contained occurrences of **nil** will still be printed as **nil**.

~mincol A inserts spaces on the right, if necessary, to make the width at least mincol columns. The © modifier causes the spaces to be inserted on the left rather than the right.

~mincol, colinc, minpad, padcharA is the full form of ~A, which allows control of the padding. The string is padded on the right (or on the left if the @ modifier is used) with at least minpad copies of padchar; padding characters are then inserted colinc characters at a time until the total width is at least mincol. The defaults are 0 for mincol and minpad, 1 for colinc, and the space character for padchar.

~A binds \*print-escape\* to false, and \*print-readably\* to false.

#### 22.3.4.2 Tilde S: Standard

This is just like ~A, but arg is printed with escape characters (as by prin1 rather than princ). The output is therefore suitable for input to read. ~S accepts all the arguments and modifiers that ~A does.

~S binds \*print-escape\* to t.

#### 22.3.4.3 Tilde W: Write

An argument, any *object*, is printed obeying every printer control variable (as by **write**). In addition, ~W interacts correctly with depth abbreviation, by not resetting the depth counter to zero. ~W does not accept parameters. If given the *colon* modifier, ~W binds \*print-pretty\* to *true*. If given the *at-sign* modifier, ~W binds \*print-level\* and \*print-length\* to nil.

~W provides automatic support for the detection of circularity and sharing. If the *value* of \*print-circle\* is not nil and ~W is applied to an argument that is a circular (or shared) reference, an appropriate #n# marker is inserted in the output instead of printing the argument.

# 22.3.5 FORMAT Pretty Printer Operations

The following constructs provide access to the *pretty printer*:

#### 22.3.5.1 Tilde Underscore: Conditional Newline

Without any modifiers, ~\_ is the same as (pprint-newline :linear). ~@\_ is the same as (pprint-newline :miser). ~:\_ is the same as (pprint-newline :fill). ~:@\_ is the same as (pprint-newline :mandatory).

### 22.3.5.2 Tilde Less-Than-Sign: Logical Block

~<...~:>

If ~:> is used to terminate a ~<...~>, the directive is equivalent to a call to **pprint-logical-block**. The argument corresponding to the ~<...~:> directive is treated in the same way as the *list* argument to **pprint-logical-block**, thereby providing automatic support for non-*list* arguments and the detection of circularity, sharing, and depth abbreviation. The portion of the *control-string* nested within the ~<...~:> specifies the :prefix (or :per-line-prefix), :suffix, and body of the **pprint-logical-block**.

The *control-string* portion enclosed by ~<...~:> can be divided into segments ~<*prefix*~; *body*~; *suffix*~:> by ~; directives. If the first section is terminated by ~@;, it specifies a per-line prefix rather than a simple prefix. The *prefix* and *suffix* cannot contain format directives. An error is signaled if either the prefix or suffix fails to be a constant string or if the enclosed portion is divided into more than three segments.

If the enclosed portion is divided into only two segments, the *suffix* defaults to the null string. If the enclosed portion consists of only a single segment, both the *prefix* and the *suffix* default to the null string. If the *colon* modifier is used (*i.e.*, ~:<...~:>), the *prefix* and *suffix* default to "(" and ")" (respectively) instead of the null string.

The body segment can be any arbitrary *format string*. This *format string* is applied to the elements of the list corresponding to the ~<...~:> directive as a whole. Elements are extracted from this list using **pprint-pop**, thereby providing automatic support for malformed lists, and the detection of circularity, sharing, and length abbreviation. Within the body segment, ~^ acts like **pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted**.

~<...~:> supports a feature not supported by **pprint-logical-block**. If ~:@> is used to terminate the directive (*i.e.*, ~<...~:@>), then a fill-style conditional newline is automatically inserted after each group of blanks immediately contained in the body (except for blanks after a  $\langle Newline \rangle$  directive). This makes it easy to achieve the equivalent of paragraph filling.

If the at-sign modifier is used with ~<...~:>, the entire remaining argument list is passed to the directive as its argument. All of the remaining arguments are always consumed by ~@<...~:>, even if they are not all used by the format string nested in the directive. Other than the difference in its argument, ~@<...~:> is exactly the same as ~<...~:> except that circularity detection is not applied if ~@<...~:> is encountered at top level in a format string. This ensures that circularity detection is applied only to data lists, not to format argument lists.

". #n#" is printed if circularity or sharing has to be indicated for its argument as a whole.

To a considerable extent, the basic form of the directive ~<...~> is incompatible with the dynamic control of the arrangement of output by ~W, ~\_, ~<...~:>, ~I, and ~:T. As a result, an error is signaled if any of these directives is nested within ~<...~>. Beyond this, an error is also signaled if the ~<...~: form of ~<...~> is used in the same format string with ~W, ~\_, ~<...~:>, ~I, or ~:T.

See also Section 22.3.6.2 (Tilde Less-Than-Sign: Justification).

#### 22.3.5.3 Tilde I: Indent

~nI is the same as (pprint-indent :block n).

 $\sim n$ : I is the same as (pprint-indent :current n). In both cases, n defaults to zero, if it is omitted.

#### 22.3.5.4 Tilde Slash: Call Function

~/name/

User defined functions can be called from within a format string by using the directive ~/name/. The colon modifier, the at-sign modifier, and arbitrarily many parameters can be specified with the ~/name/ directive. name can be any arbitrary string that does not contain a "/". All of the characters in name are treated as if they were upper case. If name contains a single colon (:) or double colon (::), then everything up to but not including the first ":" or "::" is taken to be a string that names a package. Everything after the first ":" or "::" (if any) is taken to be a string that names a symbol. The function corresponding to a ~/name/ directive is obtained by looking up the symbol that has the indicated name in the indicated package. If name does not contain a ":" or "::", then the whole name string is looked up in the COMMON-LISP-USER package.

When a ~/name/ directive is encountered, the indicated function is called with four or more arguments. The first four arguments are: the output stream, the format argument corresponding to the directive, a generalized boolean that is true if the colon modifier was used, and a generalized boolean that is true if the at-sign modifier was used. The remaining arguments consist of any parameters specified with the directive. The function should print the argument appropriately. Any values returned by the function are ignored.

The three functions pprint-linear, pprint-fill, and pprint-tabular are specifically designed so that they can be called by ~/.../ (i.e., ~/pprint-linear/, ~/pprint-fill/, and ~/pprint-tabular/). In particular they take colon and at-sign arguments.

# 22.3.6 FORMAT Layout Control

#### 22.3.6.1 Tilde T: Tabulate

This spaces over to a given column.  $\sim colnum$ , colincT will output sufficient spaces to move the cursor to column colnum. If the cursor is already at or beyond column colnum, it will output spaces to move it to column colnum+k\*colinc for the smallest positive integer k possible, unless colinc is zero, in which case no spaces are output if the cursor is already at or beyond column colnum, colnum and colinc default to 1.

If for some reason the current absolute column position cannot be determined by direct inquiry, format may be able to deduce the current column position by noting that certain directives (such as ~%, or ~& with the argument being a string containing a newline) cause the column position to be reset to zero, and counting the number of characters emitted since that point. If that fails, format may attempt a similar deduction on the riskier assumption that the destination was at column zero when format was invoked. If even this heuristic fails or is implementationally inconvenient, at worst the ~T operation will simply output two spaces.

~@T performs relative tabulation. ~colrel, colinc@T outputs colrel spaces and then outputs the smallest non-negative number of additional spaces necessary to move the cursor to a column that is a multiple of colinc. For example, the directive ~3,8@T outputs three spaces and then moves the cursor to a "standard multiple-of-eight tab stop" if not at one already. If the current output column cannot be determined, however, then colinc is ignored, and exactly colrel spaces are output.

If the *colon* modifier is used with the  $\sim$ T directive, the tabbing computation is done relative to the horizontal position where the section immediately containing the directive begins, rather than with respect to a horizontal position of zero. The numerical parameters are both interpreted as being in units of *ems* and both default to 1.  $\sim n, m$ :T is the same as (pprint-tab :section n m).  $\sim n, m$ :QT is the same as (pprint-tab :section-relative n m).

## 22.3.6.2 Tilde Less-Than-Sign: Justification

~mincol, colinc, minpad, padchar<str~>

This justifies the text produced by processing str within a field at least mincol columns wide. str may be divided up into segments with  $\sim$ ;, in which case the spacing is evenly divided between the text segments.

With no modifiers, the leftmost text segment is left justified in the field, and the rightmost text segment is right justified. If there is only one text element, as a special case, it is right justified. The : modifier causes spacing to be introduced before the first text segment; the  $\mathfrak E$  modifier causes spacing to be added after the last. The minpad parameter (default  $\mathfrak E$ ) is the minimum number of padding characters to be output between each segment. The padding character is supplied by padchar, which defaults to the space character. If the total width needed to satisfy these constraints is greater than mincol, then the width used is mincol+k\*colinc for the smallest possible non-negative integer value k. colinc defaults to  $\mathfrak E$ , and mincol defaults to  $\mathfrak E$ .

Note that str may include format directives. All the clauses in str are processed in order; it is the resulting pieces of text that are justified.

The ~^ directive may be used to terminate processing of the clauses prematurely, in which case only the completely processed clauses are justified.

If the first clause of a  $\sim$  is terminated with  $\sim$ :; instead of  $\sim$ ;, then it is used in a special way. All of the clauses are processed (subject to  $\sim$ , of course), but the first one is not used in performing the spacing and padding. When the padded result has been determined, then if it will fit on the current line of output, it is output, and the text for the first clause is discarded. If, however, the padded text will not fit on the current line, then the text segment for the first clause is output before the padded text. The first clause ought to contain a newline (such as a  $\sim$ % directive). The first clause is always processed, and so any arguments it refers to will be used; the decision is whether to use the resulting segment of text, not whether to process the first clause. If the  $\sim$ :; has a prefix parameter n, then the padded text must fit on the current line with n character positions to spare to avoid outputting the first clause's text. For example, the control string

```
"~%;; ~{~<~%;; ~1:; ~S~>~^,~}.~%"
```

can be used to print a list of items separated by commas without breaking items over line boundaries, beginning each line with;; . The prefix parameter 1 in ~1:; accounts for the width of the comma that will follow the justified item if it is not the last element in the list, or the period if it is. If ~:; has a second prefix parameter, then it is used as the width of the line, thus overriding the natural line width of the output stream. To make the preceding example use a line width of 50, one would write

If the second argument is not supplied, then **format** uses the line width of the *destination* output stream. If this cannot be determined (for example, when producing a *string* result), then **format** uses 72 as the line length.

See also Section 22.3.5.2 (Tilde Less-Than-Sign: Logical Block).

#### 22.3.6.3 Tilde Greater-Than-Sign: End of Justification

~> terminates a ~<. The consequences of using it elsewhere are undefined.

# 22.3.7 FORMAT Control-Flow Operations

## 22.3.7.1 Tilde Asterisk: Go-To

The next arg is ignored.  $\sim n*$  ignores the next n arguments.

 $\sim$ :\* backs up in the list of arguments so that the argument last processed will be processed again.  $\sim n$ :\* backs up n arguments.

When within a ~{ construct (see below), the ignoring (in either direction) is relative to the list of arguments being processed by the iteration.

~n@\* goes to the nth arg, where 0 means the first one; n defaults to 0, so ~@\* goes back to the first arg. Directives after a ~n@\* will take arguments in sequence beginning with the one gone to. When within a ~ $\{$  construct, the "goto" is relative to the list of arguments being processed by the iteration.

## 22.3.7.2 Tilde Left-Bracket: Conditional Expression

```
~[str0~;str1~;...~;strn~]
```

This is a set of control strings, called *clauses*, one of which is chosen and used. The clauses are separated by ~; and the construct is terminated by ~]. For example,

```
"~[Siamese~;Manx~;Persian~] Cat"
```

The argth clause is selected, where the first clause is number 0. If a prefix parameter is given (as  $\sim n$ [), then the parameter is used instead of an argument. If arg is out of range then no clause is selected and no error is signaled. After the selected alternative has been processed, the control string continues after the  $\sim$ 1.

 $\sim [str0\sim; str1\sim; ...\sim; strn\sim:; default\sim]$  has a default case. If the last  $\sim$ ; used to separate clauses is  $\sim:$ ; instead, then the last clause is an else clause that is performed if no other clause is selected. For example:

```
"~[Siamese~; Manx~; Persian~:; Alley~] Cat"
```

- ~: [alternative~; consequent~] selects the alternative control string if arg is false, and selects the consequent control string otherwise.
- ~@[consequent~] tests the argument. If it is true, then the argument is not used up by the ~[ command but remains as the next one to be processed, and the one clause consequent is processed. If the arg is false, then the argument is used up, and the clause is not processed. The clause therefore should normally use exactly one argument, and may expect it to be non-nil. For example:

```
(setq *print-level* nil *print-length* 5)
(format nil
         "~@[ print level = ~D~]~@[ print length = ~D~]"
          *print-level* *print-length*)

→ " print length = 5"

Note also that

(format stream "...~@[str~]..." ...)

≡ (format stream "...~:[~;~:*str~]..." ...)
```

The combination of  $\sim$  [ and # is useful, for example, for dealing with English conventions for printing lists:

```
(setq foo "Items:~#[ none~; ~S~; ~S and ~S~
~:;~@{~#[~; and~] ~S~^,~}~].")
```

```
(format nil foo) \rightarrow "Items: none."

(format nil foo 'foo) \rightarrow "Items: FOO."

(format nil foo 'foo 'bar) \rightarrow "Items: FOO and BAR."

(format nil foo 'foo 'bar 'baz) \rightarrow "Items: FOO, BAR, and BAZ."

(format nil foo 'foo 'bar 'baz 'quux) \rightarrow "Items: FOO, BAR, BAZ, and QUUX."
```

### 22.3.7.3 Tilde Right-Bracket: End of Conditional Expression

~] terminates a ~[. The consequences of using it elsewhere are undefined.

#### 22.3.7.4 Tilde Left-Brace: Iteration

```
~{str~}
```

This is an iteration construct. The argument should be a list, which is used as a set of arguments as if for a recursive call to **format**. The  $string\ str$  is used repeatedly as the control string. Each iteration can absorb as many elements of the list as it likes as arguments; if str uses up two arguments by itself, then two elements of the list will get used up each time around the loop. If before any iteration step the list is empty, then the iteration is terminated. Also, if a prefix parameter n is given, then there will be at most n repetitions of processing of str. Finally, the  $\sim$ ^ directive can be used to terminate the iteration prematurely.

For example:

 $\sim$ :{ $str\sim$ } is similar, but the argument should be a *list* of sublists. At each repetition step, one sublist is used as the set of arguments for processing str; on the next repetition, a new sublist is used, whether or not all of the last sublist had been processed. For example:

 $-0{str}$  is similar to  $-{str}$ , but instead of using one argument that is a list, all the remaining arguments are used as the list of arguments for the iteration. Example:

```
(format nil "Pairs:~0{ <~S,~S>~}." 'a 1 'b 2 'c 3) \rightarrow "Pairs: <A,1> <B,2> <C,3>."
```

If the iteration is terminated before all the remaining arguments are consumed, then any arguments not processed by the iteration remain to be processed by any directives following the iteration construct.

~:@ $\{str~\}$  combines the features of ~: $\{str~\}$  and ~@ $\{str~\}$ . All the remaining arguments are used, and each one must be a *list*. On each iteration, the next argument is used as a *list* of arguments to str. Example:

Terminating the repetition construct with  $\sim$ :} instead of  $\sim$ } forces str to be processed at least once, even if the initial list of arguments is null. However, this will not override an explicit prefix parameter of zero.

If str is empty, then an argument is used as str. It must be a format control and precede any arguments processed by the iteration. As an example, the following are equivalent:

```
(apply #'format stream string arguments)

= (format stream "~1{~:}" string arguments)
```

This will use string as a formatting string. The ~1{ says it will be processed at most once, and the ~:} says it will be processed at least once. Therefore it is processed exactly once, using arguments as the arguments. This case may be handled more clearly by the ~? directive, but this general feature of ~{ is more powerful than ~?.

## 22.3.7.5 Tilde Right-Brace: End of Iteration

~} terminates a ~{. The consequences of using it elsewhere are undefined.

#### 22.3.7.6 Tilde Question-Mark: Recursive Processing

The next arg must be a format control, and the one after it a list; both are consumed by the ~? directive. The two are processed as a control-string, with the elements of the list as the arguments. Once the recursive processing has been finished, the processing of the control string containing the ~? directive is resumed. Example:

```
(format nil "~? ~D" "<~A ~D>" '("Foo" 5) 7) \rightarrow "<Foo 5> 7" (format nil "~? ~D" "<~A ~D>" '("Foo" 5 14) 7) \rightarrow "<Foo 5> 7"
```

Note that in the second example three arguments are supplied to the *format string* " $<\sim A$  ~D>", but only two are processed and the third is therefore ignored.

With the @ modifier, only one arg is directly consumed. The arg must be a string; it is processed as part of the control string as if it had appeared in place of the ~@? construct, and any directives in the recursively processed control string may consume arguments of the control string containing the ~@? directive. Example:

```
(format nil "~@? ~D" "<~A ~D>" "Foo" 5 7) \to "<Foo 5> 7" (format nil "~@? ~D" "<~A ~D>" "Foo" 5 14 7) \to "<Foo 5> 14"
```

# 22.3.8 FORMAT Miscellaneous Operations

#### 22.3.8.1 Tilde Left-Paren: Case Conversion

```
~(str~)
```

The contained control string str is processed, and what it produces is subject to case conversion.

With no flags, every uppercase character is converted to the corresponding lowercase character.

- ~: ( capitalizes all words, as if by string-capitalize.
- ~@( capitalizes just the first word and forces the rest to lower case.
- ~:@( converts every lowercase character to the corresponding uppercase character.

In this example ~@( is used to cause the first word produced by ~@R to be capitalized:

```
(format nil "~@R ~(~@R~)" 14 14) 

\rightarrow "XIV xiv" 

(defun f (n) (format nil "~@(~R~) error~:P detected." n)) \rightarrow F 

(f 0) \rightarrow "Zero errors detected." 

(f 1) \rightarrow "One error detected." 

(f 23) \rightarrow "Twenty-three errors detected."
```

When case conversions appear nested, the outer conversion dominates, as illustrated in the following example:

```
(format nil "~@(how is ~:(BOB SMITH~)?~)") \overset{}{\to} "How is bob smith?" \overset{not}{\to} "How is Bob Smith?"
```

## 22.3.8.2 Tilde Right-Paren: End of Case Conversion

~) terminates a ~(. The consequences of using it elsewhere are undefined.

#### 22.3.8.3 Tilde P: Plural

If arg is not eql to the integer 1, a lowercase s is printed; if arg is eql to 1, nothing is printed. If arg is a floating-point 1.0, the s is printed.

 $\sim$ :P does the same thing, after doing a  $\sim$ :\* to back up one argument; that is, it prints a lowercase s if the previous argument was not 1.

-@P prints y if the argument is 1, or ies if it is not. -: @P does the same thing, but backs up first.

```
(format nil "~D tr~:@P/~D win~:P" 7 1) \rightarrow "7 tries/1 win"
```

```
(format nil "~D tr~:@P/~D win~:P" 1 0) \to "1 try/0 wins" (format nil "~D tr~:@P/~D win~:P" 1 3) \to "1 try/3 wins"
```

# 22.3.9 FORMAT Miscellaneous Pseudo-Operations

## 22.3.9.1 Tilde Semicolon: Clause Separator

This separates clauses in  $\sim$ [ and  $\sim$  constructs. The consequences of using it elsewhere are undefined.

## 22.3.9.2 Tilde Circumflex: Escape Upward

~ ^

This is an escape construct. If there are no more arguments remaining to be processed, then the immediately enclosing ~{ or ~< construct is terminated. If there is no such enclosing construct, then the entire formatting operation is terminated. In the ~< case, the formatting is performed, but no more segments are processed before doing the justification. ~^ may appear anywhere in a ~{ construct.

```
(setq donestr "Done.~^ ~D warning~:P.~^ ~D error~:P.") \rightarrow "Done.~^ ~D warning~:P.~^ ~D error~:P." (format nil donestr) \rightarrow "Done." (format nil donestr 3) \rightarrow "Done. 3 warnings." (format nil donestr 1 5) \rightarrow "Done. 1 warning. 5 errors."
```

If a prefix parameter is given, then termination occurs if the parameter is zero. (Hence ~^ is equivalent to ~#^.) If two parameters are given, termination occurs if they are equal. If three parameters are given, termination occurs if the first is less than or equal to the second and the second is less than or equal to the third. Of course, this is useless if all the prefix parameters are constants; at least one of them should be a # or a V parameter.

If ~^ is used within a ~:{ construct, then it terminates the current iteration step because in the standard case it tests for remaining arguments of the current step only; the next iteration step commences immediately. ~:^ is used to terminate the iteration process. ~:^ may be used only if the command it would terminate is ~:{ or ~:@{. The entire iteration process is terminated if and only if the sublist that is supplying the arguments for the current iteration step is the last sublist in the case of ~:@{. ~:^ is not equivalent to ~#:^; the latter terminates the entire iteration if and only if no arguments remain for the current iteration step. For example:

```
(format nil "~:{~@?~:^...~}" '(("a") ("b"))) \rightarrow "a...b"
```

If ~^ appears within a control string being processed under the control of a ~? directive, but not within any ~{ or ~< construct within that string, then the string being processed will be

terminated, thereby ending processing of the ~? directive. Processing then continues within the string containing the ~? directive at the point following that directive.

If ~^ appears within a ~[ or ~( construct, then all the commands up to the ~^ are properly selected or case-converted, the ~[ or ~( processing is terminated, and the outward search continues for a ~{ or ~< construct to be terminated. For example:

## 22.3.9.3 Tilde Newline: Ignored Newline

Tilde immediately followed by a newline ignores the newline and any following non-newline  $whitespace_1$  characters. With a :, the newline is ignored, but any following  $whitespace_1$  is left in place. With an  $\mathfrak{e}$ , the newline is left in place, but any following  $whitespace_1$  is ignored. For example:

Note that in this example newlines appear in the output only as specified by the ~& and ~% directives; the actual newline characters in the control string are suppressed because each is preceded by a tilde.

# 22.3.10 Additional Information about FORMAT Operations

## 22.3.10.1 Nesting of FORMAT Operations

The case-conversion, conditional, iteration, and justification constructs can contain other formatting constructs by bracketing them. These constructs must nest properly with respect to each other. For example, it is not legitimate to put the start of a case-conversion construct in each arm of a conditional and the end of the case-conversion construct outside the conditional:

```
(format nil "~:[abc~:@(def~;ghi~
:@(jkl~]mno~)" x) ;Invalid!
```

This notation is invalid because the  $\sim [\ldots \sim]$  and  $\sim (\ldots \sim)$  constructs are not properly nested.

The processing indirection caused by the ~? directive is also a kind of nesting for the purposes of this rule of proper nesting. It is not permitted to start a bracketing construct within a string processed under control of a ~? directive and end the construct at some point after the ~? construct in the string containing that construct, or vice versa. For example, this situation is invalid:

```
(format nil "~0?ghi~)" "abc~0(def"); Invalid!
```

This notation is invalid because the ~? and ~(...~) constructs are not properly nested.

## 22.3.10.2 Missing and Additional FORMAT Arguments

The consequences are undefined if no *arg* remains for a directive requiring an argument. However, it is permissible for one or more *args* to remain unprocessed by a directive; such *args* are ignored.

#### 22.3.10.3 Additional FORMAT Parameters

The consequences are undefined if a format directive is given more parameters than it is described here as accepting.

## 22.3.10.4 Undefined FORMAT Modifier Combinations

The consequences are undefined if *colon* or *at-sign* modifiers are given to a directive in a combination not specifically described here as being meaningful.

# 22.3.11 Examples of FORMAT

```
(format nil "foo") 
ightarrow "foo"
 (setq x 5) \rightarrow 5
 (format nil "The answer is ~D." x) 
ightarrow "The answer is 5."
 (format nil "The answer is ~3D." x) 
ightarrow "The answer is
 (format nil "The answer is ~3, 'OD." x) \rightarrow "The answer is 005."
 (format nil "The answer is ~:D." (expt 47 x))
\rightarrow "The answer is 229,345,007."
 (setq y "elephant") 	o "elephant"
 (format nil "Look at the ~A!" y) \rightarrow "Look at the elephant!"
 (setq n 3) \rightarrow 3
 (format nil "~D item~:P found." n) \rightarrow "3 items found."
 (format nil "~R dog~:[s are~; is~] here." n (= n 1))

ightarrow "three dogs are here."
(format nil "~R dog~:*~[s are~; is~:;s are~] here." n)

ightarrow "three dogs are here."
(format nil "Here ~[are~;is~:;are~] ~:*~R pupp~:@P." n)

ightarrow "Here are three puppies."
 (defun foo (x)
   (format nil "^{6},2F|^{6},2,1,^{4}F|^{6},2,^{2}F|^{6}F|^{7}F|^{8}
           x x x x x x x)) \rightarrow F00
 (foo 3.14159) \rightarrow " 3.14| 31.42| 3.14|3.1416|3.14|3.14159"
 (foo -3.14159) \rightarrow "-3.14|-31.42|-3.14|-3.142|-3.14|-3.14159"
 (foo 100.0) \rightarrow "100.00|*****|100.00| 100.0|100.00|100.0"
 (foo 1234.0) \rightarrow "1234.00|*****|?????|1234.0|1234.00|1234.0"
 (foo 0.006) \rightarrow " 0.01| 0.06| 0.01| 0.006|0.01|0.006"
 (defun foo (x)
    (format nil
            "~9,2,1",*E|~10,3,2,2,'?",$E|~
             ~9,3,2,-2,'%@E|~9,2E"
            x x x x)
 (foo 3.14159) \rightarrow " 3.14E+0| 31.42$-01|+.003E+03| 3.14E+0"
 (foo -3.14159) \rightarrow " -3.14E+0|-31.42$-01|-.003E+03| -3.14E+0"
 (foo 1100.0) \rightarrow " 1.10E+3| 11.00$+02|+.001E+06| 1.10E+3"
 (foo 1100.0L0) \rightarrow " 1.10L+3| 11.00$+02|+.001L+06| 1.10L+3"
 (foo 1.1E13) \rightarrow "******* | 11.00$+12|+.001E+16| 1.10E+13"
 (foo 1.1L120) \rightarrow "*******|????????|\%\%\%\%\%\%\%\%\%\%\%\%|1.10L+120"
 (foo 1.1L1200) \rightarrow "*******|???????|\%\%\%\%\%\%\%|1.10L+1200"
As an example of the effects of varying the scale factor, the code
 (dotimes (k 13)
   (format t "~%Scale factor ~2D: |~13,6,2,VE|"
```

```
(- k 5) (- k 5) 3.14159))
produces the following output:
Scale factor -5: | 0.000003E+06|
Scale factor -4: | 0.000031E+05|
Scale factor -3: | 0.000314E+04|
Scale factor -2: | 0.003142E+03|
Scale factor -1: | 0.031416E+02|
Scale factor 0: | 0.314159E+01|
Scale factor 1: | 3.141590E+00|
Scale factor 2: | 31.41590E-01|
Scale factor 3: | 314.1590E-02|
Scale factor 4: | 3141.590E-03|
Scale factor 5: | 31415.90E-04|
Scale factor 6: | 314159.0E-05|
Scale factor 7: | 3141590.E-06|
 (defun foo (x)
   (format nil "~9,2,1",*G|~9,3,2,3,'?",G|~9,3,2,0,'%G|~9,2G"
          x x x x))
 (foo 0.0314159) \rightarrow " 3.14E-2|314.2$-04|0.314E-01| 3.14E-2"
 (foo 0.314159) \rightarrow " 0.31 | 0.314
                                         0.314
                                                   | 0.31

ightarrow " 3.1 | 3.14
 (foo 3.14159)
                                         1 3.14
                                                   I 3.1

ightarrow " 31. | 31.4
                                                   l 31.
 (foo 31.4159)
                                         | 31.4

ightarrow " 3.14E+2| 314.
 (foo 314.159)
                                        | 314.
                                                   | 3.14E+2"
 (foo 3141.59) \rightarrow " 3.14E+3|314.2$+01|0.314E+04| 3.14E+3"
 (foo 3141.59L0) \rightarrow " 3.14L+3|314.2$+01|0.314L+04| 3.14L+3"
 (foo 3.14E12) \rightarrow "******|314.0$+10|0.314E+13| 3.14E+12"
 (foo 3.14L120) \rightarrow "*******|???????|\%\%\%\%\%\%\%\%|3.14L+120"
 (format nil "~10<foo~;bar~>") \rightarrow "foo
 (format nil "~10:<foo~;bar~>") \rightarrow " foo bar"
 (format nil "~10<foobar~>")
                                 \rightarrow "
                                          foobar"
 (format nil "~10:<foobar~>")
                                 \rightarrow "
                                          foobar"
 (format nil "~10:@<foo~;bar~>") 
ightarrow " foo bar "

ightarrow "foobar"
 (format nil "~100<foobar~>")

ightarrow " foobar "
 (format nil "~10:@<foobar~>")
  (FORMAT NIL "Written to ~A." #P"foo.bin")

ightarrow "Written to foo.bin."
```

# 22.3.12 Notes about FORMAT

Formatted output is performed not only by **format**, but by certain other functions that accept a format control the way **format** does. For example, error-signaling functions such as **cerror** accept format controls.

Note that the meaning of  ${\bf nil}$  and  ${\bf t}$  as destinations to  ${\bf format}$  are different than those of  ${\bf nil}$  and  ${\bf t}$  as  ${\it stream designators}$ .

The ~^ should appear only at the beginning of a ~< clause, because it aborts the entire clause in which it appears (as well as all following clauses).

# copy-pprint-dispatch

Function

### Syntax:

copy-pprint-dispatch &optional table ightarrow new-table

### Arguments and Values:

 $\textit{table}\--$  a  $pprint\ dispatch\ table,$  or  $\mathbf{nil}.$ 

new-table—a fresh pprint dispatch table.

### **Description:**

Creates and returns a copy of the specified *table*, or of the *value* of \*print-print-dispatch\* if no *table* is specified, or of the initial *value* of \*print-print-dispatch\* if nil is specified.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if table is not a pprint dispatch table.

formatter

### Syntax:

 $formatter control\text{-string} \rightarrow function$ 

#### **Arguments and Values:**

control-string—a format string; not evaluated.

function—a function.

# **Description:**

Returns a function which has behavior equivalent to:

```
#'(lambda (*standard-output* &rest arguments)
     (apply #'format t control-string arguments)
     arguments-tail)
```

where arguments-tail is either the tail of arguments which has as its car the argument that would be processed next if there were more format directives in the control-string, or else nil if no more arguments follow the most recently processed argument.

#### **Examples:**

```
(funcall (formatter "~&~A~A") *standard-output* 'a 'b 'c) \rhd AB \to (C)
```

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```
(format t (formatter "~&~A~A") 'a 'b 'c) \triangleright AB \rightarrow NIL
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Might signal an error (at macro expansion time or at run time) if the argument is not a valid format string.

#### See Also:

format

# pprint-dispatch

Function

#### Syntax:

pprint-dispatch object & optional table  $\rightarrow$  function, found-p

### **Arguments and Values:**

object—an object.

table—a pprint dispatch table, or nil. The default is the value of \*print-pprint-dispatch\*.

function—a function designator.

found-p—a generalized boolean.

### Description:

Retrieves the highest priority function in *table* that is associated with a *type specifier* that matches *object*. The function is chosen by finding all of the *type specifiers* in *table* that match the *object* and selecting the highest priority function associated with any of these *type specifiers*. If there is more than one highest priority function, an arbitrary choice is made. If no *type specifiers* match the *object*, a function is returned that prints *object* using **print-object**.

The  $secondary\ value$ , found-p, is true if a matching  $type\ specifier$  was found in table, or false otherwise.

If table is nil, retrieval is done in the initial pprint dispatch table.

#### Affected By:

The state of the table.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if table is neither a pprint-dispatch-table nor nil.

#### Notes:

# pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted

Local Macro

#### Syntax:

pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted  $\langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow nil$ 

### **Description:**

Tests whether or not the *list* passed to the *lexically current logical block* has been exhausted; see Section 22.2.1.1 (Dynamic Control of the Arrangement of Output). If this *list* has been reduced to nil, pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted terminates the execution of the *lexically current logical block* except for the printing of the suffix. Otherwise pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted returns nil.

Whether or not **pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted** is *fbound* in the *global environment* is *implementation-dependent*; however, the restrictions on redefinition and *shadowing* of **pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted** are the same as for *symbols* in the COMMON-LISP *package* which are *fbound* in the *global environment*. The consequences of attempting to use **pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted** outside of **pprint-logical-block** are undefined.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error is signaled (at macro expansion time or at run time) if **pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted** is used anywhere other than lexically within a call on **pprint-logical-block**. Also, the consequences of executing **pprint-if-list-exhausted** outside of the dynamic extent of the **pprint-logical-block** which lexically contains it are undefined.

#### See Also:

pprint-logical-block, pprint-pop.

# pprint-fill, pprint-linear, pprint-tabular

# pprint-fill, pprint-linear, pprint-tabular

**Function** 

### Syntax:

```
pprint-fill stream object & optional colon-p at-sign-p \rightarrow nil pprint-linear stream object & optional colon-p at-sign-p \rightarrow nil pprint-tabular stream object & optional colon-p at-sign-p tabsize \rightarrow nil
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
stream—an output stream designator.

object—an object.

colon-p—a generalized boolean. The default is true.

at-sign-p—a generalized boolean. The default is implementation-dependent.

tabsize—a non-negative integer. The default is 16.
```

### **Description:**

The functions **pprint-fill**, **pprint-linear**, and **pprint-tabular** specify particular ways of *pretty* printing a list to stream. Each function prints parentheses around the output if and only if colon-p is true. Each function ignores its at-sign-p argument. (Both arguments are included even though only one is needed so that these functions can be used via ~/.../ and as **set-pprint-dispatch** functions, as well as directly.) Each function handles abbreviation and the detection of circularity and sharing correctly, and uses **write** to print object when it is a non-list.

If object is a list and if the value of \*print-pretty\* is false, each of these functions prints object using a minimum of whitespace, as described in Section 22.1.3.5 (Printing Lists and Conses). Otherwise (if object is a list and if the value of \*print-pretty\* is true):

- The function **pprint-linear** prints a list either all on one line, or with each element on a separate line.
- The function pprint-fill prints a list with as many elements as possible on each line.
- The function pprint-tabular is the same as pprint-fill except that it prints the elements so that they line up in columns. The tabsize specifies the column spacing in ems, which is the total spacing from the leading edge of one column to the leading edge of the next.

### **Examples:**

Evaluating the following with a line length of 25 produces the output shown.

```
(progn (princ "Roads ")
```

#### Side Effects:

Performs output to the indicated stream.

### Affected By:

The cursor position on the indicated *stream*, if it can be determined.

#### Notes:

The function pprint-tabular could be defined as follows:

Note that it would have been inconvenient to specify this function using **format**, because of the need to pass its *tabsize* argument through to a ~:T format directive nested within an iteration over a list.

# pprint-indent

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

pprint-indent relative-to n & optional stream ightarrow ightarrow ightarrow ightarrow ightarrow

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
relative-to—either:block or:current.

n—a real.
```

stream—an output stream designator. The default is standard output.

### **Description:**

**pprint-indent** specifies the indentation to use in a logical block on *stream*. If *stream* is a *pretty* printing stream and the value of \*print-pretty\* is true, pprint-indent sets the indentation in the innermost dynamically enclosing logical block; otherwise, pprint-indent has no effect.

N specifies the indentation in ems. If relative-to is :block, the indentation is set to the horizontal position of the first character in the dynamically current logical block plus n ems. If relative-to is :current, the indentation is set to the current output position plus n ems. (For robustness in the face of variable-width fonts, it is advisable to use :current with an n of zero whenever possible.)

N can be negative; however, the total indentation cannot be moved left of the beginning of the line or left of the end of the rightmost per-line prefix—an attempt to move beyond one of these limits is treated the same as an attempt to move to that limit. Changes in indentation caused by *pprint-indent* do not take effect until after the next line break. In addition, in miser mode all calls to **pprint-indent** are ignored, forcing the lines corresponding to the logical block to line up under the first character in the block.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error is signaled if *relative-to* is any *object* other than :block or :current.

#### See Also:

Section 22.3.5.3 (Tilde I: Indent)

# pprint-logical-block

Macro

#### Syntax:

```
 \begin{array}{c} \textbf{pprint-logical-block} \ (\textit{stream-symbol object \&key prefix per-line-prefix suffix}) \\ \{\textit{declaration}\}^* \ \{\textit{form}\}^* \end{array}
```

# ightarrow nil $\label{eq:Arguments} {f Arguments \ and \ Values:}$

```
stream-symbol—a stream variable designator.
object—an object; evaluated.
:prefix—a string; evaluated. Complicated defaulting behavior; see below.
:per-line-prefix—a string; evaluated. Complicated defaulting behavior; see below.
:suffix—a string; evaluated. The default is the null string.
declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.
forms—an implicit progn.
```

# pprint-logical-block

# **Description:**

Causes printing to be grouped into a logical block.

The logical block is printed to the *stream* that is the *value* of the *variable* denoted by *stream-symbol*. During the execution of the *forms*, that *variable* is *bound* to a *pretty printing stream* that supports decisions about the arrangement of output and then forwards the output to the destination stream. All the standard printing functions (*e.g.*, **write**, **princ**, and **terpri**) can be used to print output to the *pretty printing stream*. All and only the output sent to this *pretty printing stream* is treated as being in the logical block.

The *prefix* specifies a prefix to be printed before the beginning of the logical block. The *per-line-prefix* specifies a prefix that is printed before the block and at the beginning of each new line in the block. The :prefix and :pre-line-prefix arguments are mutually exclusive. If neither :prefix nor :per-line-prefix is specified, a *prefix* of the *null string* is assumed.

The *suffix* specifies a suffix that is printed just after the logical block.

The *object* is normally a *list* that the body *forms* are responsible for printing. If *object* is not a *list*, it is printed using **write**. (This makes it easier to write printing functions that are robust in the face of malformed arguments.) If \*print-circle\* is *non-nil* and *object* is a circular (or shared) reference to a *cons*, then an appropriate "#n#" marker is printed. (This makes it easy to write printing functions that provide full support for circularity and sharing abbreviation.) If \*print-level\* is not nil and the logical block is at a dynamic nesting depth of greater than \*print-level\* in logical blocks, "#" is printed. (This makes easy to write printing functions that provide full support for depth abbreviation.)

If either of the three conditions above occurs, the indicated output is printed on *stream-symbol* and the body *forms* are skipped along with the printing of the :prefix and :suffix. (If the body *forms* are not to be responsible for printing a list, then the first two tests above can be turned off by supplying nil for the *object* argument.)

In addition to the *object* argument of **pprint-logical-block**, the arguments of the standard printing functions (such as **write**, **print**, **prin1**, and **pprint**, as well as the arguments of the standard *format directives* such as ~A, ~S, (and ~W) are all checked (when necessary) for circularity and sharing. However, such checking is not applied to the arguments of the functions **write-line**, **write-string**, and **write-char** or to the literal text output by **format**. A consequence of this is that you must use one of the latter functions if you want to print some literal text in the output that is not supposed to be checked for circularity or sharing.

The body forms of a **pprint-logical-block** form must not perform any side-effects on the surrounding environment; for example, no variables must be assigned which have not been bound within its scope.

The **pprint-logical-block** macro may be used regardless of the value of \*print-pretty\*.

#### Affected By:

\*print-circle\*, \*print-level\*.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of type type-error is signaled if any of the :suffix, :prefix, or :per-line-prefix is supplied but does not evaluate to a string.

An error is signaled if :prefix and :pre-line-prefix are both used.

pprint-logical-block and the pretty printing stream it creates have dynamic extent. The consequences are undefined if, outside of this extent, output is attempted to the pretty printing stream it creates.

It is also unspecified what happens if, within this extent, any output is sent directly to the underlying destination stream.

#### See Also:

pprint-pop, pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted, Section 22.3.5.2 (Tilde Less-Than-Sign: Logical Block)

#### Notes:

One reason for using the **pprint-logical-block** macro when the value of \***print-pretty\*** is **nil** would be to allow it to perform checking for dotted lists, as well as (in conjunction with **pprint-pop**) checking for \***print-level\*** or \***print-length\*** being exceeded.

Detection of circularity and sharing is supported by the *pretty printer* by in essence performing requested output twice. On the first pass, circularities and sharing are detected and the actual outputting of characters is suppressed. On the second pass, the appropriate "#n=" and "#n#" markers are inserted and characters are output. This is why the restriction on side-effects is necessary. Obeying this restriction is facilitated by using **pprint-pop**, instead of an ordinary **pop** when traversing a list being printed by the body *forms* of the **pprint-logical-block** *form*.)

# pprint-newline

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

pprint-newline kind &optional stream ightarrow ightarrow ightarrow ightarrow ightarrow

#### **Arguments and Values:**

kind—one of :linear, :fill, :miser, or :mandatory.

stream—a stream designator. The default is standard output.

# **Description:**

If stream is a pretty printing stream and the value of \*print-pretty\* is true, a line break is inserted in the output when the appropriate condition below is satisfied; otherwise, pprint-newline has no effect.

Kind specifies the style of conditional newline. This parameter is treated as follows:

# pprint-newline

#### :linear

This specifies a "linear-style" *conditional newline*. A line break is inserted if and only if the immediately containing *section* cannot be printed on one line. The effect of this is that line breaks are either inserted at every linear-style conditional newline in a logical block or at none of them.

#### :miser

This specifies a "miser-style" conditional newline. A line break is inserted if and only if the immediately containing section cannot be printed on one line and miser style is in effect in the immediately containing logical block. The effect of this is that miser-style conditional newlines act like linear-style conditional newlines, but only when miser style is in effect. Miser style is in effect for a logical block if and only if the starting position of the logical block is less than or equal to \*print-miser-width\* ems from the right margin.

#### :fill

This specifies a "fill-style" conditional newline. A line break is inserted if and only if either (a) the following section cannot be printed on the end of the current line, (b) the preceding section was not printed on a single line, or (c) the immediately containing section cannot be printed on one line and miser style is in effect in the immediately containing logical block. If a logical block is broken up into a number of subsections by fill-style conditional newlines, the basic effect is that the logical block is printed with as many subsections as possible on each line. However, if miser style is in effect, fill-style conditional newlines act like linear-style conditional newlines.

#### :mandatory

This specifies a "mandatory-style" *conditional newline*. A line break is always inserted. This implies that none of the containing *sections* can be printed on a single line and will therefore trigger the insertion of line breaks at linear-style conditional newlines in these *sections*.

When a line break is inserted by any type of conditional newline, any blanks that immediately precede the conditional newline are omitted from the output and indentation is introduced at the beginning of the next line. By default, the indentation causes the following line to begin in the same horizontal position as the first character in the immediately containing logical block. (The indentation can be changed via **pprint-indent**.)

There are a variety of ways unconditional newlines can be introduced into the output (*i.e.*, via **terpri** or by printing a string containing a newline character). As with mandatory conditional newlines, this prevents any of the containing *sections* from being printed on one line. In general, when an unconditional newline is encountered, it is printed out without suppression of the preceding blanks and without any indentation following it. However, if a per-line prefix has been specified (see **pprint-logical-block**), this prefix will always be printed no matter how a newline originates.

### **Examples:**

See Section 22.2.2 (Examples of using the Pretty Printer).

#### Side Effects:

Output to stream.

#### Affected By:

\*print-pretty\*, \*print-miser\*. The presence of containing logical blocks. The placement of newlines and conditional newlines.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of type type-error is signaled if kind is not one of :linear, :fill, :miser, or :mandatory.

#### See Also:

Section 22.3.5.1 (Tilde Underscore: Conditional Newline), Section 22.2.2 (Examples of using the Pretty Printer)

# pprint-pop

Local Macro

### Syntax:

**pprint-pop**  $\langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow object$ 

#### **Arguments and Values:**

object—an element of the list being printed in the lexically current logical block, or nil.

#### Description:

Pops one *element* from the *list* being printed in the *lexically current logical block*, obeying \*print-length\* and \*print-circle\* as described below.

Each time **pprint-pop** is called, it pops the next value off the *list* passed to the *lexically current* logical block and returns it. However, before doing this, it performs three tests:

- If the remaining 'list' is not a *list*, ". " is printed followed by the remaining 'list.' (This makes it easier to write printing functions that are robust in the face of malformed arguments.)
- If \*print-length\* is non-nil, and pprint-pop has already been called \*print-length\* times within the immediately containing logical block, "..." is printed. (This makes it easy to write printing functions that properly handle \*print-length\*.)

• If \*print-circle\* is non-nil, and the remaining list is a circular (or shared) reference, then ". " is printed followed by an appropriate "#n#" marker. (This catches instances of cdr circularity and sharing in lists.)

If either of the three conditions above occurs, the indicated output is printed on the *pretty printing* stream created by the immediately containing **pprint-logical-block** and the execution of the immediately containing **pprint-logical-block** is terminated except for the printing of the suffix.

If **pprint-logical-block** is given a 'list' argument of **nil**—because it is not processing a list—**pprint-pop** can still be used to obtain support for \***print-length\***. In this situation, the first and third tests above are disabled and **pprint-pop** always returns **nil**. See Section 22.2.2 (Examples of using the Pretty Printer)—specifically, the **pprint-vector** example.

Whether or not **pprint-pop** is *fbound* in the *global environment* is *implementation-dependent*; however, the restrictions on redefinition and *shadowing* of **pprint-pop** are the same as for *symbols* in the COMMON-LISP *package* which are *fbound* in the *global environment*. The consequences of attempting to use **pprint-pop** outside of **pprint-logical-block** are undefined.

#### **Side Effects:**

Might cause output to the pretty printing stream associated with the lexically current logical block.

#### Affected By:

\*print-length\*, \*print-circle\*.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error is signaled (either at macro expansion time or at run time) if a usage of **pprint-pop** occurs where there is no lexically containing **pprint-logical-block** form.

The consequences are undefined if **pprint-pop** is executed outside of the *dynamic extent* of this **pprint-logical-block**.

#### See Also:

pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted, pprint-logical-block.

#### Notes:

It is frequently a good idea to call **pprint-exit-if-list-exhausted** before calling **pprint-pop**.

# pprint-tab

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

pprint-tab kind colnum colinc &optional stream  $\rightarrow$  nil

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
kind—one of :line, :section, :line-relative, or :section-relative.
colnum—a non-negative integer.
colinc—a non-negative integer.
stream—an output stream designator.
```

# **Description:**

Specifies tabbing to *stream* as performed by the standard ~T format directive. If *stream* is a *pretty printing stream* and the *value* of \*print-pretty\* is *true*, tabbing is performed; otherwise, pprint-tab has no effect.

The arguments colnum and colinc correspond to the two parameters to ~T and are in terms of ems. The kind argument specifies the style of tabbing. It must be one of :line (tab as by ~T), :section (tab as by ~:T, but measuring horizontal positions relative to the start of the dynamically enclosing section), :line-relative (tab as by ~@T), or :section-relative (tab as by ~:@T, but measuring horizontal positions relative to the start of the dynamically enclosing section).

### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error is signaled if kind is not one of :line, :section, :line-relative, or :section-relative.

#### See Also:

pprint-logical-block

# print-object

Standard Generic Function

#### Syntax:

```
print-object object stream \rightarrow object
```

#### Method Signatures:

```
print-object (object standard-object) stream
print-object (object structure-object) stream
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
stream—a stream.
```

# print-object

### **Description:**

The generic function **print-object** writes the printed representation of **object** to **stream**. The function **print-object** is called by the *Lisp printer*; it should not be called by the user.

Each implementation is required to provide a *method* on the *class* **standard-object** and on the *class* **structure-object**. In addition, each *implementation* must provide *methods* on enough other *classes* so as to ensure that there is always an applicable *method*. Implementations are free to add *methods* for other *classes*. Users may write *methods* for **print-object** for their own *classes* if they do not wish to inherit an *implementation-dependent method*.

The *method* on the *class* **structure-object** prints the object in the default **#S** notation; see Section 22.1.3.12 (Printing Structures).

Methods on **print-object** are responsible for implementing their part of the semantics of the printer control variables, as follows:

#### \*print-readably\*

All methods for **print-object** must obey **\*print-readably\***. This includes both user-defined methods and *implementation-defined* methods. Readable printing of *structures* and *standard objects* is controlled by their **print-object** method, not by their **make-load-form** *method*. Similarity for these *objects* is application dependent and hence is defined to be whatever these *methods* do; see Section 3.2.4.2 (Similarity of Literal Objects).

#### \*print-escape\*

Each method must implement \*print-escape\*.

#### \*print-pretty\*

The *method* may wish to perform specialized line breaking or other output conditional on the *value* of \*print-pretty\*. For further information, see (for example) the *macro* pprint-fill. See also Section 22.2.1.4 (Pretty Print Dispatch Tables) and Section 22.2.2 (Examples of using the Pretty Printer).

#### \*print-length\*

Methods that produce output of indefinite length must obey \*print-length\*. For further information, see (for example) the macros pprint-logical-block and pprint-pop. See also Section 22.2.1.4 (Pretty Print Dispatch Tables) and Section 22.2.2 (Examples of using the Pretty Printer).

#### \*print-level\*

The printer takes care of \*print-level\* automatically, provided that each method handles exactly one level of structure and calls write (or an equivalent function) recursively if there are more structural levels. The printer's decision of whether an object has components (and

therefore should not be printed when the printing depth is not less than \*print-level\*) is implementation-dependent. In some implementations its print-object method is not called; in others the method is called, and the determination that the object has components is based on what it tries to write to the stream.

#### \*print-circle\*

When the value of \*print-circle\* is true, a user-defined print-object method can print objects to the supplied stream using write, prin1, princ, or format and expect circularities to be detected and printed using the #n# syntax. If a user-defined print-object method prints to a stream other than the one that was supplied, then circularity detection starts over for that stream. See \*print-circle\*.

#### \*print-base\*, \*print-radix\*, \*print-case\*, \*print-gensym\*, and \*print-array\*

These printer control variables apply to specific types of objects and are handled by the methods for those objects.

If these rules are not obeyed, the results are undefined.

In general, the printer and the **print-object** methods should not rebind the print control variables as they operate recursively through the structure, but this is *implementation-dependent*.

In some implementations the *stream* argument passed to a **print-object** *method* is not the original *stream*, but is an intermediate *stream* that implements part of the printer. *methods* should therefore not depend on the identity of this *stream*.

#### See Also:

pprint-fill, pprint-logical-block, pprint-pop, write, \*print-readably\*, \*print-escape\*, \*print-pretty\*, \*print-length\*, Section 22.1.3 (Default Print-Object Methods), Section 22.1.3.12 (Printing Structures), Section 22.2.1.4 (Pretty Print Dispatch Tables), Section 22.2.2 (Examples of using the Pretty Printer)

# print-unreadable-object

Macro

#### Syntax:

print-unreadable-object (object stream &key type identity)  $\{form\}^* \rightarrow nil$ 

#### **Arguments and Values:**

object—an object; evaluated.

stream—a stream designator; evaluated.

type—a generalized boolean; evaluated.

identity—a generalized boolean; evaluated.

forms—an implicit progn.

### **Description:**

Outputs a printed representation of *object* on *stream*, beginning with "#<" and ending with ">". Everything output to *stream* by the body *forms* is enclosed in the the angle brackets. If *type* is *true*, the output from *forms* is preceded by a brief description of the *object*'s *type* and a space character. If *identity* is *true*, the output from *forms* is followed by a space character and a representation of the *object*'s identity, typically a storage address.

If either type or identity is not supplied, its value is false. It is valid to omit the body forms. If type and identity are both true and there are no body forms, only one space character separates the type and the identity.

### **Examples:**

;; Note that in this example, the precise form of the output ;; is implementation-dependent.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

If \*print-readably\* is true, print-unreadable-object signals an error of type print-not-readable without printing anything.

# set-pprint-dispatch

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

 $\operatorname{set-pprint-dispatch}\ \mathit{type-specifier}\ \mathit{function}\ \mathtt{\&optional}\ \mathit{priority}\ \mathit{table}\ \ o \ \mathrm{nil}$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
type-specifier—a type specifier.

function—a function, a function name, or nil.

priority—a real. The default is 0.

table—a pprint dispatch table. The default is the value of *print-pprint-dispatch*.
```

### **Description:**

Installs an entry into the *pprint dispatch table* which is *table*.

Type-specifier is the key of the entry. The first action of **set-pprint-dispatch** is to remove any pre-existing entry associated with type-specifier. This guarantees that there will never be two entries associated with the same type specifier in a given pprint dispatch table. Equality of type specifiers is tested by **equal**.

Two values are associated with each type specifier in a pprint dispatch table: a function and a priority. The function must accept two arguments: the stream to which output is sent and the object to be printed. The function should pretty print the object to the stream. The function can assume that object satisfies the type given by type-specifier. The function must obey \*print-readably\*. Any values returned by the function are ignored.

*Priority* is a priority to resolve conflicts when an object matches more than one entry.

It is permissible for *function* to be **nil**. In this situation, there will be no *type-specifier* entry in *table* after **set-pprint-dispatch** returns.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error is signaled if *priority* is not a *real*.

#### Notes:

Since pprint dispatch tables are often used to control the pretty printing of Lisp code, it is common for the type-specifier to be an expression of the form

```
(cons car-type cdr-type)
```

This signifies that the corresponding object must be a cons cell whose *car* matches the *type specifier car-type* and whose *cdr* matches the *type specifier cdr-type*. The *cdr-type* can be omitted in which case it defaults to t.

# write, prin1, print, print, princ

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

```
write object &key array base case circle escape gensym
length level lines miser-width pprint-dispatch
pretty radix readably right-margin stream
```

```
\rightarrow object
```

```
prin1 object &optional output-stream → object
princ object &optional output-stream → object
```

# write, prin1, print, pprint, princ

```
print\ object\ \&optional\ output	ext{-stream} 
ightarrow object
           pprint object & optional output-stream \rightarrow \langle no \ values \rangle
Arguments and Values:
           object—an object.
           output-stream—an output stream designator. The default is standard output.
           array—a generalized boolean.
           base—a radix.
           case—a symbol of type (member :upcase :downcase :capitalize).
           circle—a generalized boolean.
           escape—a generalized boolean.
           gensym—a generalized boolean.
           length—a non-negative integer, or nil.
           level—a non-negative integer, or nil.
           lines—a non-negative integer, or nil.
           miser-width—a non-negative integer, or nil.
           pprint-dispatch—a pprint dispatch table.
           pretty—a generalized boolean.
           radix—a generalized boolean.
           readably—a generalized boolean.
           right-margin—a non-negative integer, or nil.
```

stream—an output stream designator. The default is standard output.

### Description:

write, prin1, princ, print, and pprint write the printed representation of object to output-stream.

write is the general entry point to the Lisp printer. For each explicitly supplied keyword parameter named in Figure 22–7, the corresponding printer control variable is dynamically bound to its value while printing goes on; for each keyword parameter in Figure 22–7 that is not explicitly supplied, the value of the corresponding printer control variable is the same as it was at the time write was invoked. Once the appropriate bindings are established, the object is output by the Lisp printer.

# write, prin1, print, print, princ

Parameter	Corresponding Dynamic Variable
array	*print-array*
base	*print-base*
case	*print-case*
circle	*print-circle*
escape	*print-escape*
gensym	*print-gensym*
length	*print-length*
level	*print-level*
lines	*print-lines*
miser-width	*print-miser-width*
pprint-dispatch	*print-pprint-dispatch*
pretty	*print-pretty*
radix	*print-radix*
readably	*print-readably*
right-margin	*print-right-margin*

Figure 22–7. Argument correspondences for the WRITE function.

prin1, princ, print, and pprint implicitly bind certain print parameters to particular values. The remaining parameter values are taken from \*print-array\*, \*print-base\*, \*print-case\*, \*print-circle\*, \*print-escape\*, \*print-gensym\*, \*print-length\*, \*print-level\*, \*print-lines\*, \*print-miser-width\*, \*print-pprint-dispatch\*, \*print-pretty\*, \*print-radix\*, and \*print-right-margin\*.

prin1 produces output suitable for input to read. It binds \*print-escape\* to true.

**princ** is just like **prin1** except that the output has no *escape characters*. It binds **\*print-escape\*** to *false* and **\*print-readably\*** to *false*. The general rule is that output from **princ** is intended to look good to people, while output from **prin1** is intended to be acceptable to **read**.

 $\mathbf{print}$  is just like  $\mathbf{prin1}$  except that the printed representation of *object* is preceded by a newline and followed by a space.

**pprint** is just like **print** except that the trailing space is omitted and *object* is printed with the **\*print-pretty\*** flag *non-nil* to produce pretty output.

Output-stream specifies the stream to which output is to be sent.

# Affected By:

\*standard-output\*, \*terminal-io\*, \*print-escape\*, \*print-radix\*, \*print-base\*, \*print-circle\*, \*print-pretty\*, \*print-level\*, \*print-length\*, \*print-case\*, \*print-gensym\*, \*print-array\*, \*read-default-float-format\*.

#### See Also:

readtable-case, Section 22.3.4 (FORMAT Printer Operations)

#### Notes:

```
The functions prin1 and print do not bind *print-readably*.
```

# write-to-string, prin1-to-string, princ-to-string

Function

#### Syntax:

```
write-to-string object &key array base case circle escape gensym
length level lines miser-width pprint-dispatch
pretty radix readably right-margin
```

```
ightarrow string
```

```
prin1-to-string object \rightarrow string
princ-to-string object \rightarrow string
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

array—a generalized boolean.

base—a radix.

# write-to-string, prin1-to-string, princ-to-string

```
case—a symbol of type (member :upcase :downcase :capitalize).

circle—a generalized boolean.

escape—a generalized boolean.

gensym—a generalized boolean.

length—a non-negative integer, or nil.

level—a non-negative integer, or nil.

lines—a non-negative integer, or nil.

miser-width—a non-negative integer, or nil.

pprint-dispatch—a pprint dispatch table.

pretty—a generalized boolean.

radix—a generalized boolean.

readably—a generalized boolean.

right-margin—a non-negative integer, or nil.

string—a string.
```

#### **Description:**

write-to-string, prin1-to-string, and princ-to-string are used to create a *string* consisting of the printed representation of *object*. *Object* is effectively printed as if by write, prin1, or princ, respectively, and the *characters* that would be output are made into a *string*.

write-to-string is the general output function. It has the ability to specify all the parameters applicable to the printing of *object*.

prin1-to-string acts like write-to-string with :escape t, that is, escape characters are written where appropriate.

princ-to-string acts like write-to-string with :escape nil :readably nil. Thus no escape characters are written.

All other keywords that would be specified to **write-to-string** are default values when **prin1-to-string** or **princ-to-string** is invoked.

The meanings and defaults for the keyword arguments to **write-to-string** are the same as those for **write**.

### **Examples:**

```
(prin1-to-string "abc") \rightarrow "\"abc\""
```

```
(princ-to-string "abc") 
ightarrow "abc"
```

#### Affected By:

```
*print-escape*, *print-radix*, *print-base*, *print-circle*, *print-pretty*, *print-level*, *print-length*, *print-case*, *print-gensym*, *print-array*, *read-default-float-format*.
```

#### See Also:

write

#### Notes:

```
(write-to-string object {key argument}*)

\[
\begin{align*}
& (with-output-to-string (#1=#:string-stream) \\
& (write object :stream #1# {key argument}*))
\end{align*}

(princ-to-string object)
\[
\begin{align*}
& (with-output-to-string (string-stream) \\
& (princ object string-stream))
\end{align*}

(prin1-to-string object)
\[
\begin{align*}
& (with-output-to-string (string-stream) \\
& (prin1 object string-stream))
\end{align*}
\]
```

# \*print-array\*

Variable

#### Value Type:

a generalized boolean.

#### **Initial Value:**

implementation-dependent.

#### Description:

Controls the format in which arrays are printed. If it is false, the contents of arrays other than strings are never printed. Instead, arrays are printed in a concise form using #< that gives enough information for the user to be able to identify the array, but does not include the entire array contents. If it is true, non-string arrays are printed using #(...), #\*, or #nA syntax.

#### Affected By:

The implementation.

#### See Also:

Section 2.4.8.3 (Sharpsign Left-Parenthesis), Section 2.4.8.20 (Sharpsign Less-Than-Sign)

# \*print-base\*, \*print-radix\*

Variable

#### Value Type:

\*print-base\*—a radix. \*print-radix\*—a generalized boolean.

#### **Initial Value:**

The initial value of \*print-base\* is 10. The initial value of \*print-radix\* is false.

#### **Description:**

\*print-base\* and \*print-radix\* control the printing of rationals. The value of \*print-base\* is called the current output base.

The value of \*print-base\* is the radix in which the printer will print rationals. For radices above 10, letters of the alphabet are used to represent digits above 9.

If the value of \*print-radix\* is true, the printer will print a radix specifier to indicate the radix in which it is printing a rational number. The radix specifier is always printed using lowercase letters. If \*print-base\* is 2, 8, or 16, then the radix specifier used is #b, #o, or #x, respectively. For integers, base ten is indicated by a trailing decimal point instead of a leading radix specifier; for ratios, #10r is used.

#### **Examples:**

```
(let ((*print-base* 24.) (*print-radix* t))
   (print 23.))
> #24rN
\rightarrow 23
 (setq *print-base* 10) 
ightarrow 10
 (setq *print-radix* nil) \rightarrow NIL
 (dotimes (i 35)
    (let ((*print-base* (+ i 2)))
                                                 ;print the decimal number 40
                                                 ; in each base from 2 to 36
       (write 40)
       (if (zerop (mod i 10)) (terpri) (format t " "))))
▷ 1111 220 130 104 55 50 44 40 37 34
▷ 31 2C 2A 28 26 24 22 20 1J 1I

→ 1H 1G 1F 1E 1D 1C 1B 1A 19 18

▷ 17 16 15 14
\rightarrow NIL
 (dolist (pb '(2 3 8 10 16))
```

```
(let ((*print-radix* t) ;print the integer 10 and (*print-base* pb)) ;the ratio 1/10 in bases 2, (format t "~&~S ~S~%" 10 1/10))) ;3, 8, 10, 16

▷ #b1010 #b1/1010

▷ #3r101 #3r1/101

▷ #012 #01/12

▷ 10. #10r1/10

▷ #xA #x1/A

→ NIL
```

#### Affected By:

Might be bound by format, and write, write-to-string.

#### See Also:

format, write, write-to-string

# \*print-case\*

Variable

#### Value Type:

One of the *symbols* :upcase, :downcase, or :capitalize.

#### **Initial Value:**

The symbol :upcase.

#### **Description:**

The *value* of \*print-case\* controls the case (upper, lower, or mixed) in which to print any uppercase characters in the names of *symbols* when vertical-bar syntax is not used.

\*print-case\* has an effect at all times when the *value* of \*print-escape\* is *false*. \*print-case\* also has an effect when the *value* of \*print-escape\* is *true* unless inside an escape context (*i.e.*, unless between *vertical-bars* or after a *slash*).

#### **Examples:**

```
(defun test-print-case ()
  (dolist (*print-case* '(:upcase :downcase :capitalize))
        (format t "~&~S ~S~%" 'this-and-that '|And-something-elSE|)))

→ TEST-PC
;; Although the choice of which characters to escape is specified by
;; *PRINT-CASE*, the choice of how to escape those characters
;; (i.e., whether single escapes or multiple escapes are used)
;; is implementation-dependent. The examples here show two of the
;; many valid ways in which escaping might appear.
```

```
(test-print-case) ;Implementation A
▷ THIS-AND-THAT |And-something-elSE|
▷ this-and-that a\n\d-\s\o\m\e\t\h\i\n\g-\e\lse
▷ This-And-That A\n\d-\s\o\m\e\t\h\i\n\g-\e\lse
→ NIL
(test-print-case) ;Implementation B
▷ THIS-AND-THAT |And-something-elSE|
▷ this-and-that a|nd-something-el|se
▷ This-And-That A|nd-something-el|se
→ NII.
```

#### See Also:

write

#### Notes:

read normally converts lowercase characters appearing in *symbols* to corresponding uppercase characters, so that internally print names normally contain only uppercase characters.

If \*print-escape\* is true, lowercase characters in the name of a symbol are always printed in lowercase, and are preceded by a single escape character or enclosed by multiple escape characters; uppercase characters in the name of a symbol are printed in upper case, in lower case, or in mixed case so as to capitalize words, according to the value of \*print-case\*. The convention for what constitutes a "word" is the same as for string-capitalize.

# \*print-circle\*

Variable

#### Value Type:

a generalized boolean.

#### **Initial Value:**

false.

#### **Description:**

Controls the attempt to detect circularity and sharing in an *object* being printed.

If *false*, the printing process merely proceeds by recursive descent without attempting to detect circularity and sharing.

If true, the printer will endeavor to detect cycles and sharing in the structure to be printed, and to use #n= and #n# syntax to indicate the circularities or shared components.

If true, a user-defined **print-object** method can print objects to the supplied stream using **write**, **prin1**, **princ**, or **format** and expect circularities and sharing to be detected and printed using the

#n# syntax. If a user-defined **print-object** method prints to a stream other than the one that was supplied, then circularity detection starts over for that stream.

Note that implementations should not use #n# notation when the Lisp reader would automatically assure sharing without it (e.g., as happens with interned symbols).

# **Examples:**

```
(let ((a (list 1 2 3)))
    (setf (cdddr a) a)
    (let ((*print-circle* t))
        (write a)
        :done))
▷ #1=(1 2 3 . #1#)
→ :DONE
```

#### See Also:

write

#### Notes:

An attempt to print a circular structure with \*print-circle\* set to nil may lead to looping behavior and failure to terminate.

# \*print-escape\*

Variable

# Value Type:

a generalized boolean.

#### **Initial Value:**

true.

#### **Description:**

If false, escape characters and package prefixes are not output when an expression is printed.

If *true*, an attempt is made to print an *expression* in such a way that it can be read again to produce an **equal** *expression*. (This is only a guideline; not a requirement. See \*print-readably\*.)

For more specific details of how the *value* of \*print-escape\* affects the printing of certain *types*, see Section 22.1.3 (Default Print-Object Methods).

#### **Examples:**

```
(let ((*print-escape* t)) (write #\a))
```

```
ho #\a (let ((*print-escape* nil)) (write #\a)) 
ho a 
ho #\a
```

# Affected By:

princ, prin1, format

#### See Also:

write, readtable-case

#### Notes:

princ effectively binds \*print-escape\* to false. prin1 effectively binds \*print-escape\* to true.

# \*print-gensym\*

Variable

# Value Type:

a generalized boolean.

#### **Initial Value:**

true.

# **Description:**

Controls whether the prefix "#:" is printed before apparently uninterned symbols. The prefix is printed before such symbols if and only if the value of \*print-gensym\* is true.

# **Examples:**

```
(let ((*print-gensym* nil))
  (print (gensym)))
▷ G6040
→ #:G6040
```

#### See Also:

write, \*print-escape\*

# \*print-level\*, \*print-length\*

# \*print-level\*, \*print-length\*

Variable

# Value Type:

a non-negative integer, or nil.

#### **Initial Value:**

nil.

#### **Description:**

\*print-level\* controls how many levels deep a nested object will print. If it is false, then no control is exercised. Otherwise, it is an integer indicating the maximum level to be printed. An object to be printed is at level 0; its components (as of a list or vector) are at level 1; and so on. If an object to be recursively printed has components and is at a level equal to or greater than the value of \*print-level\*, then the object is printed as "#".

\*print-length\* controls how many elements at a given level are printed. If it is *false*, there is no limit to the number of components printed. Otherwise, it is an *integer* indicating the maximum number of *elements* of an *object* to be printed. If exceeded, the printer will print "..." in place of the other *elements*. In the case of a *dotted list*, if the *list* contains exactly as many *elements* as the *value* of \*print-length\*, the terminating *atom* is printed rather than printing "..."

\*print-level\* and \*print-length\* affect the printing of an any *object* printed with a list-like syntax. They do not affect the printing of *symbols*, *strings*, and *bit vectors*.

# Examples:

```
(\mathsf{setq}\ \mathsf{a}\ \texttt{'(1}\ (2\ (3\ (4\ (5\ (6)))))))\ \to\ (1\ (2\ (3\ (4\ (5\ (6))))))
 (dotimes (i 8)
   (let ((*print-level* i))
      (format t "~&~D - ~S~%" i a)))
⊳ 0 - #

    □ 1 - (1 #)

▷ 3 - (1 (2 (3 #)))
▷ 4 - (1 (2 (3 (4 #))))
▷ 5 - (1 (2 (3 (4 (5 #)))))
▷ 6 - (1 (2 (3 (4 (5 (6)))))
▷ 7 - (1 (2 (3 (4 (5 (6))))))

ightarrow NIL
 (setq a '(1 2 3 4 5 6)) \rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6)
 (dotimes (i 7)
   (let ((*print-length* i))
```

```
(format t "~&~D - ~S~%" i a)))
▷ 0 - (...)
▷ 1 - (1 ...)
▷ 2 - (1 2 ...)
▷ 3 - (1 2 3 ...)
▷ 4 - (1 2 3 4 ...)

▷ 5 - (1 2 3 4 5 6)

ightarrow NIL
(dolist (level-length '((0 1) (1 1) (1 2) (1 3) (1 4)
                         (2 1) (2 2) (2 3) (3 2) (3 3) (3 4)))
 (let ((*print-level* (first level-length))
       (*print-length* (second level-length)))
   (format t "~&~D ~D - ~S~%"
           *print-level* *print-length*
           '(if (member x y) (+ (car x) 3) '(foo . \#(a b c d "Baz"))))))

    ○ 1 - #
▷ 1 1 - (IF ...)
▷ 1 2 - (IF # ...)
▷ 1 3 - (IF # # ...)
▷ 1 4 - (IF # # #)
▷ 2 1 - (IF ...)
\triangleright 2 2 - (IF (MEMBER X ...) ...)

▷ 2 3 - (IF (MEMBER X Y) (+ # 3) ...)

▷ 3 2 - (IF (MEMBER X ...) ...)

\triangleright 3 3 - (IF (MEMBER X Y) (+ (CAR X) 3) ...)
\triangleright 3 4 - (IF (MEMBER X Y) (+ (CAR X) 3) '(FOO . #(A B C D ...)))

ightarrow NIL
```

See Also:

write

# \*print-lines\*

Variable

Value Type:

a non-negative *integer*, or **nil**.

**Initial Value:** 

nil.

### **Description:**

When the *value* of \*print-lines\* is other than nil, it is a limit on the number of output lines produced when something is pretty printed. If an attempt is made to go beyond that many lines, ".." is printed at the end of the last line followed by all of the suffixes (closing delimiters) that are pending to be printed.

### **Examples:**

#### **Notes:**

The "..." notation is intentionally different than the "..." notation used for level abbreviation, so that the two different situations can be visually distinguished.

This notation is used to increase the likelihood that the *Lisp reader* will signal an error if an attempt is later made to read the abbreviated output. Note however that if the truncation occurs in a *string*, as in "This string has been trunc..", the problem situation cannot be detected later and no such error will be signaled.

# \*print-miser-width\*

Variable

# Value Type:

a non-negative integer, or nil.

#### Initial Value:

 $implementation\hbox{-} dependent$ 

# **Description:**

If it is not nil, the *pretty printer* switches to a compact style of output (called miser style) whenever the width available for printing a substructure is less than or equal to this many *ems*.

# \*print-pprint-dispatch\*

Variable

#### Value Type:

a pprint dispatch table.

#### **Initial Value:**

*implementation-dependent*, but the initial entries all use a special class of priorities that have the property that they are less than every priority that can be specified using **set-pprint-dispatch**, so that the initial contents of any entry can be overridden.

#### **Description:**

The pprint dispatch table which currently controls the pretty printer.

#### See Also:

\*print-pretty\*, Section 22.2.1.4 (Pretty Print Dispatch Tables)

#### Notes:

The intent is that the initial value of this variable should cause 'traditional' pretty printing of code. In general, however, you can put a value in \*print-pprint-dispatch\* that makes pretty-printed output look exactly like non-pretty-printed output. Setting \*print-pretty\* to true just causes the functions contained in the current pprint dispatch table to have priority over normal print-object methods; it has no magic way of enforcing that those functions actually produce pretty output. For details, see Section 22.2.1.4 (Pretty Print Dispatch Tables).

# \*print-pretty\*

Variable

#### Value Type:

a generalized boolean.

#### **Initial Value:**

implementation-dependent.

#### **Description:**

Controls whether the Lisp printer calls the pretty printer.

If it is false, the  $pretty\ printer$  is not used and a minimum of  $whitespace_1$  is output when printing an expression.

If it is true, the  $pretty\ printer$  is used, and the  $Lisp\ printer$  will endeavor to insert extra  $whitespace_1$  where appropriate to make expressions more readable.

\*print-pretty\* has an effect even when the value of \*print-escape\* is false.

### **Examples:**

```
(setq *print-pretty* 'nil) 
ightarrow NIL
 (progn (write '(let ((a 1) (b 2) (c 3)) (+ a b c))) nil)
▷ (LET ((A 1) (B 2) (C 3)) (+ A B C))

ightarrow NIL
 (let ((*print-pretty* t))
   (progn (write '(let ((a 1) (b 2) (c 3)) (+ a b c))) nil))
(B 2)
        (C 3))
   (+ A B C))
;; Note that the first two expressions printed by this next form
;; differ from the second two only in whether escape characters are printed.
;; In all four cases, extra whitespace is inserted by the pretty printer.
 (flet ((test (x)
          (let ((*print-pretty* t))
             (print x)
             (format t "~%~S " x)
            (terpri) (princ x) (princ " ")
             (format t "~%~A " x))))
  (test '#'(lambda () (list "a" # 'c #'d))))
▷ #'(LAMBDA ()
      (LIST "a" # 'C #'D))
▷ #'(LAMBDA ()
      (LIST "a" # 'C #'D))
▷ #'(LAMBDA ()
      (LIST a b 'C #'D))
▷ #'(LAMBDA ()
    (LIST a b 'C #'D))
\rightarrow \, {\tt NIL}
```

#### See Also:

write

# \*print-readably\*

Variable

#### Value Type:

a generalized boolean.

# \*print-readably\*

#### **Initial Value:**

false.

### **Description:**

If \*print-readably\* is true, some special rules for printing objects go into effect. Specifically, printing any object  $O_1$  produces a printed representation that, when seen by the Lisp reader while the standard readtable is in effect, will produce an object  $O_2$  that is similar to  $O_1$ . The printed representation produced might or might not be the same as the printed representation produced when \*print-readably\* is false. If printing an object readably is not possible, an error of type print-not-readable is signaled rather than using a syntax (e.g., the "#<" syntax) that would not be readable by the same implementation. If the value of some other printer control variable is such that these requirements would be violated, the value of that other variable is ignored.

Specifically, if \*print-readably\* is true, printing proceeds as if \*print-escape\*, \*print-array\*, and \*print-gensym\* were also true, and as if \*print-length\*, \*print-level\*, and \*print-lines\* were false.

If \*print-readably\* is false, the normal rules for printing and the normal interpretations of other printer control variables are in effect.

Individual *methods* for **print-object**, including user-defined *methods*, are responsible for implementing these requirements.

If \*read-eval\* is *false* and \*print-readably\* is *true*, any such method that would output a reference to the "#." *reader macro* will either output something else or will signal an error (as described above).

#### **Examples:**

```
(setf (gethash table 1) 'one) 
ightarrow ONE
 (setf (gethash table 2) 'two) 
ightarrow TWO
;; Implementation A
 (let ((*print-readably* t)) (print table))
 Error: Can't print #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 32005763> readably.
;; Implementation B
;; No standardized #S notation for hash tables is defined,
;; but there might be an implementation-defined notation.
 (let ((*print-readably* t)) (print table))

▷ #S(HASH-TABLE :TEST EQL :SIZE 120 :CONTENTS (1 ONE 2 TWO))

\rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 32005763>
;; Implementation C
;; Note that #. notation can only be used if *READ-EVAL* is true.
;; If *READ-EVAL* were false, this same implementation might have to
;; signal an error unless it had yet another printing strategy to fall
;; back on.
 (let ((*print-readably* t)) (print table))
▶ #.(LET ((HASH-TABLE (MAKE-HASH-TABLE)))
      (SETF (GETHASH 1 HASH-TABLE) ONE)
      (SETF (GETHASH 2 HASH-TABLE) TWO)
      HASH-TABLE)
\rightarrow #<HASH-TABLE EQL 0/120 32005763>
```

#### See Also:

write, print-unreadable-object

#### Notes:

The rules for "similarity" imply that #A or #( syntax cannot be used for arrays of element type other than t. An implementation will have to use another syntax or signal an error of type print-not-readable.

# \*print-right-margin\*

Variable

# Value Type:

a non-negative *integer*, or **nil**.

#### **Initial Value:**

nil.

### **Description:**

If it is non-nil, it specifies the right margin (as integer number of ems) to use when the pretty printer is making layout decisions.

If it is **ni**l, the right margin is taken to be the maximum line length such that output can be displayed without wraparound or truncation. If this cannot be determined, an *implementation-dependent* value is used.

#### **Notes:**

This measure is in units of *ems* in order to be compatible with *implementation-defined* variable-width fonts while still not requiring the language to provide support for fonts.

# print-not-readable

Condition Type

#### Class Precedence List:

print-not-readable, error, serious-condition, condition, t

#### **Description:**

The type print-not-readable consists of error conditions that occur during output while \*print-readably\* is true, as a result of attempting to write a printed representation with the Lisp printer that would not be correctly read back with the Lisp reader. The object which could not be printed is initialized by the :object initialization argument to make-condition, and is accessed by the function print-not-readable-object.

#### See Also:

print-not-readable-object

# print-not-readable-object

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

print-not-readable-object condition  $\rightarrow$  object

#### **Arguments and Values:**

condition—a condition of type print-not-readable.

object—an object.

### **Description:**

Returns the *object* that could not be printed readably in the situation represented by *condition*.

#### See Also:

print-not-readable, Chapter 9 (Conditions)

**format** Function

#### Syntax:

format destination control-string &rest args  $\rightarrow$  result

### **Arguments and Values:**

destination—nil, t, a stream, or a string with a fill pointer.

control-string—a format control.

args—format arguments for control-string.

result—if destination is non-nil, then nil; otherwise, a string.

### **Description:**

format produces formatted output by outputting the characters of *control-string* and observing that a *tilde* introduces a directive. The character after the tilde, possibly preceded by prefix parameters and modifiers, specifies what kind of formatting is desired. Most directives use one or more elements of *args* to create their output.

If destination is a string, a stream, or t, then the result is nil. Otherwise, the result is a string containing the 'output.'

**format** is useful for producing nicely formatted text, producing good-looking messages, and so on. **format** can generate and return a *string* or output to *destination*.

For details on how the *control-string* is interpreted, see Section 22.3 (Formatted Output).

#### Affected By:

\*standard-output\*, \*print-escape\*, \*print-radix\*, \*print-base\*, \*print-circle\*, \*print-pretty\*, \*print-level\*, \*print-length\*, \*print-case\*, \*print-gensym\*, \*print-array\*.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

If destination is a string with a fill pointer, the consequences are undefined if destructive modifications are performed directly on the string during the dynamic extent of the call.

#### See Also:

write, Section 13.1.10 (Documentation of Implementation-Defined Scripts)

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

23. Reader

# 23.1 Reader Concepts

# 23.1.1 Dynamic Control of the Lisp Reader

Various aspects of the *Lisp reader* can be controlled dynamically. See Section 2.1.1 (Readtables) and Section 2.1.2 (Variables that affect the Lisp Reader).

# 23.1.2 Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Reader

The readtable case of the current readtable affects the Lisp reader in the following ways:

#### :upcase

When the *readtable case* is :upcase, unescaped constituent *characters* are converted to *uppercase*, as specified in Section 2.2 (Reader Algorithm).

#### :downcase

When the  $readtable\ case$  is :downcase, unescaped constituent characters are converted to lowercase.

#### :preserve

When the readtable case is :preserve, the case of all characters remains unchanged.

#### :invert

When the readtable case is :invert, then if all of the unescaped letters in the extended token are of the same case, those (unescaped) letters are converted to the opposite case.

#### 23.1.2.1 Examples of Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Reader

(symbol-name (read-from-string input))))))

The output from (test-readtable-case-reading) should be as follows:

READTABLE-CASE	Input	Symbol-name
	_	
:UPCASE	ZEBRA	ZEBRA
:UPCASE	Zebra	ZEBRA
:UPCASE	zebra	ZEBRA
:DOWNCASE	ZEBRA	zebra
:DOWNCASE	Zebra	zebra
:DOWNCASE	zebra	zebra
:PRESERVE	ZEBRA	ZEBRA
:PRESERVE	Zebra	Zebra
:PRESERVE	zebra	zebra
:INVERT	ZEBRA	zebra
:INVERT	Zebra	Zebra
:INVERT	zebra	ZEBRA

# 23.1.3 Argument Conventions of Some Reader Functions

#### 23.1.3.1 The EOF-ERROR-P argument

Eof-error-p in input function calls controls what happens if input is from a file (or any other input source that has a definite end) and the end of the file is reached. If eof-error-p is true (the default), an error of type end-of-file is signaled at end of file. If it is false, then no error is signaled, and instead the function returns eof-value.

Functions such as **read** that read the representation of an *object* rather than a single character always signals an error, regardless of *eof-error-p*, if the file ends in the middle of an object representation. For example, if a file does not contain enough right parentheses to balance the left parentheses in it, **read** signals an error. If a file ends in a *symbol* or a *number* immediately followed by end-of-file, **read** reads the *symbol* or *number* successfully and when called again will act according to *eof-error-p*. Similarly, the *function* **read-line** successfully reads the last line of a file even if that line is terminated by end-of-file rather than the newline character. Ignorable text, such as lines containing only *whitespace*<sub>2</sub> or comments, are not considered to begin an *object*; if **read** begins to read an *expression* but sees only such ignorable text, it does not consider the file to end in the middle of an *object*. Thus an *eof-error-p* argument controls what happens when the file ends between *objects*.

#### 23.1.3.2 The RECURSIVE-P argument

If *recursive-p* is supplied and not **nil**, it specifies that this function call is not an outermost call to **read** but an embedded call, typically from a *reader macro function*. It is important to distinguish such recursive calls for three reasons.

1. An outermost call establishes the context within which the #n= and #n# syntax is scoped. Consider, for example, the expression

```
(cons '#3=(p q r) '(x y . #3#))
```

If the *single-quote reader macro* were defined in this way:

then each call to the *single-quote reader macro function* would establish independent contexts for the scope of **read** information, including the scope of identifications between markers like "#3=" and "#3#". However, for this expression, the scope was clearly intended to be determined by the outer set of parentheses, so such a definition would be incorrect. The correct way to define the *single-quote reader macro* uses *recursive-p*:

- 2. A recursive call does not alter whether the reading process is to preserve whitespace<sub>2</sub> or not (as determined by whether the outermost call was to read or read-preserving-whitespace). Suppose again that single-quote were to be defined as shown above in the incorrect definition. Then a call to read-preserving-whitespace that read the expression 'foo(Space) would fail to preserve the space character following the symbol foo because the single-quote reader macro function calls read, not read-preserving-whitespace, to read the following expression (in this case foo). The correct definition, which passes the value true for recursive-p to read, allows the outermost call to determine whether whitespace<sub>2</sub> is preserved.
- 3. When end-of-file is encountered and the *eof-error-p* argument is not **nil**, the kind of error that is signaled may depend on the value of *recursive-p*. If *recursive-p* is *true*, then the end-of-file is deemed to have occurred within the middle of a printed representation; if *recursive-p* is *false*, then the end-of-file may be deemed to have occurred between *objects* rather than within the middle of one.

readtable System Class

#### Class Precedence List:

readtable, t

# Description:

A readtable maps characters into syntax types for the Lisp reader; see Chapter 2 (Syntax). A readtable also contains associations between macro characters and their reader macro functions, and records information about the case conversion rules to be used by the Lisp reader when parsing symbols.

Each simple character must be representable in the readtable. It is implementation-defined whether non-simple characters can have syntax descriptions in the readtable.

#### See Also:

Section 2.1.1 (Readtables), Section 22.1.3.13 (Printing Other Objects)

# copy-readtable

**Function** 

# **Syntax:**

copy-readtable &optional from-readtable to-readtable ightarrow readtable

# **Arguments and Values:**

from-readtable—a readtable designator. The default is the current readtable.

to-readtable—a readtable or nil. The default is nil.

readtable—the to-readtable if it is non-nil, or else a fresh readtable.

#### Description:

copy-readtable copies from-readtable.

If to-readtable is nil, a new readtable is created and returned. Otherwise the readtable specified by to-readtable is modified and returned.

copy-readtable copies the setting of readtable-case.

#### **Examples:**

```
(setq zvar 123) \to 123 (set-syntax-from-char #\z #\' (setq table2 (copy-readtable))) \to T zvar \to 123 (copy-readtable table2 *readtable*) \to #<READTABLE 614000277>
```

```
zvar \rightarrow VAR (setq *readtable* (copy-readtable)) \rightarrow #<READTABLE 46210223> zvar \rightarrow VAR (setq *readtable* (copy-readtable nil)) \rightarrow #<READTABLE 46302670> zvar \rightarrow 123
```

#### See Also:

readtable, \*readtable\*

#### Notes:

```
(setq *readtable* (copy-readtable nil))
```

restores the input syntax to standard Common Lisp syntax, even if the *initial readtable* has been clobbered (assuming it is not so badly clobbered that you cannot type in the above expression).

On the other hand,

```
(setq *readtable* (copy-readtable))
```

replaces the current *readtable* with a copy of itself. This is useful if you want to save a copy of a readtable for later use, protected from alteration in the meantime. It is also useful if you want to locally bind the readtable to a copy of itself, as in:

```
(let ((*readtable* (copy-readtable))) ...)
```

# make-dispatch-macro-character

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

make-dispatch-macro-character char & optional non-terminating-p readtable  $\rightarrow$  t

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
char—a character.
```

non-terminating-p—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

readtable—a readtable. The default is the current readtable.

# **Description:**

make-dispatch-macro-character makes char be a dispatching macro character in readtable.

Initially, every *character* in the dispatch table associated with the *char* has an associated function that signals an error of *type* **reader-error**.

If non-terminating-p is true, the dispatching macro character is made a non-terminating macro character; if non-terminating-p is false, the dispatching macro character is made a terminating macro character.

# **Examples:**

```
(get-macro-character #\{) \rightarrow NIL, false (make-dispatch-macro-character #\{) \rightarrow T (not (get-macro-character #\{)) \rightarrow false
```

The *readtable* is altered.

#### See Also:

\*readtable\*, set-dispatch-macro-character

# read, read-preserving-whitespace

**Function** 

### Syntax:

```
read &optional input-stream eof-error-p eof-value recursive-p \rightarrow object read-preserving-whitespace &optional input-stream eof-error-p eof-value recursive-p
```

 $\rightarrow$  object

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
input-stream—an input stream designator.

eof-error-p—a generalized boolean. The default is true.

eof-value—an object. The default is nil.

recursive-p—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

object—an object (parsed by the Lisp reader) or the eof-value.
```

#### **Description:**

read parses the printed representation of an object from input-stream and builds such an object.

**read-preserving-whitespace** is like **read** but preserves any *whitespace*<sub>2</sub> character that delimits the printed representation of the *object*. **read-preserving-whitespace** is exactly like **read** when the *recursive-p* argument to **read-preserving-whitespace** is *true*.

# read, read-preserving-whitespace

When \*read-suppress\* is false, read throws away the delimiting character required by certain printed representations if it is a whitespace<sub>2</sub> character; but read preserves the character (using unread-char) if it is syntactically meaningful, because it could be the start of the next expression.

If a file ends in a symbol or a number immediately followed by an end of  $file_1$ , read reads the symbol or number successfully; when called again, it sees the end of  $file_1$  and only then acts according to eof-error-p. If a file contains ignorable text at the end, such as blank lines and comments, read does not consider it to end in the middle of an object.

If *recursive-p* is *true*, the call to **read** is expected to be made from within some function that itself has been called from **read** or from a similar input function, rather than from the top level.

Both functions return the *object* read from *input-stream*. *Eof-value* is returned if *eof-error-p* is *false* and end of file is reached before the beginning of an *object*.

### **Examples:**

```
(read)
⊳ 'a
\rightarrow (QUOTE A)
 (with-input-from-string (is " ") (read is nil 'the-end)) 
ightarrow THE-END
 (defun skip-then-read-char (s c n)
    (if (char= c #\{) (read s t nil t) (read-preserving-whitespace s))
    (read-char-no-hang s)) \rightarrow SKIP-THEN-READ-CHAR
 (let ((*readtable* (copy-readtable nil)))
    (set-dispatch-macro-character #\# #\{ #'skip-then-read-char)
    (set-dispatch-macro-character #\# #\} #'skip-then-read-char)
    (with-input-from-string (is "#{123 x #}123 y")
      (format t "~S ~S" (read is) (read is)))) \rightarrow #\x, #\Space, NIL
As an example, consider this reader macro definition:
 (defun slash-reader (stream char)
   (declare (ignore char))
   '(path . ,(loop for dir = (read-preserving-whitespace stream t nil t)
                    then (progn (read-char stream t nil t)
                                 (read-preserving-whitespace stream t nil t))
                    collect dir
                    while (eql (peek-char nil stream nil nil t) #\/)))
 (set-macro-character #\/ #'slash-reader)
Consider now calling read on this expression:
 (zyedh /usr/games/zork /usr/games/boggle)
```

The / macro reads objects separated by more / characters; thus /usr/games/zork is intended to read as (path usr games zork). The entire example expression should therefore be read as

```
(zyedh (path usr games zork) (path usr games boggle))
```

However, if **read** had been used instead of **read-preserving-whitespace**, then after the reading of the symbol **zork**, the following space would be discarded; the next call to **peek-char** would see the following /, and the loop would continue, producing this interpretation:

```
(zyedh (path usr games zork usr games boggle))
```

There are times when *whitespace*<sub>2</sub> should be discarded. If a command interpreter takes single-character commands, but occasionally reads an *object* then if the *whitespace*<sub>2</sub> after a *symbol* is not discarded it might be interpreted as a command some time later after the *symbol* had been read.

#### Affected By:

\*standard-input\*, \*terminal-io\*, \*readtable\*, \*read-default-float-format\*, \*read-base\*, \*read-suppress\*, \*package\*, \*read-eval\*.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

**read** signals an error of *type* **end-of-file**, regardless of *eof-error-p*, if the file ends in the middle of an *object* representation. For example, if a file does not contain enough right parentheses to balance the left parentheses in it, **read** signals an error. This is detected when **read** or **read-preserving-whitespace** is called with *recursive-p* and *eof-error-p non-nil*, and end-of-file is reached before the beginning of an *object*.

If eof-error-p is true, an error of type end-of-file is signaled at the end of file.

#### See Also:

peek-char, read-char, unread-char, read-from-string, read-delimited-list, parse-integer, Chapter 2 (Syntax), Section 23.1 (Reader Concepts)

# read-delimited-list

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

 ${f read-delimited-list}$  char &optional input-stream recursive-p ightarrow list

#### **Arguments and Values:**

char—a character.

input-stream—an input stream designator. The default is standard input.

recursive-p—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

list—a list of the objects read.

# read-delimited-list

### **Description:**

**read-delimited-list** reads *objects* from *input-stream* until the next character after an *object*'s representation (ignoring *whitespace*<sub>2</sub> characters and comments) is *char*.

**read-delimited-list** looks ahead at each step for the next non-whitespace<sub>2</sub> character and peeks at it as if with **peek-char**. If it is char, then the character is consumed and the list of objects is returned. If it is a constituent or escape character, then **read** is used to read an object, which is added to the end of the list. If it is a macro character, its reader macro function is called; if the function returns a value, that value is added to the list. The peek-ahead process is then repeated.

If recursive-p is true, this call is expected to be embedded in a higher-level call to read or a similar function.

It is an error to reach end-of-file during the operation of read-delimited-list.

The consequences are undefined if *char* has a *syntax type* of *whitespace*<sub>2</sub> in the *current readtable*.

# **Examples:**

```
(read-delimited-list #\]) 1 2 3 4 5 6 ] \rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6)
```

Suppose you wanted  $\#\{a\ b\ c\ \dots\ z\}$  to read as a list of all pairs of the elements  $a,\ b,\ c,\ \dots,\ z,$  for example.

```
\#\{p \neq z a\} reads as ((p \neq q) (p z) (p a) (q z) (q a) (z a))
```

This can be done by specifying a macro-character definition for #{ that does two things: reads in all the items up to the }, and constructs the pairs. read-delimited-list performs the first task.

Note that *true* is supplied for the *recursive-p* argument.

It is necessary here to give a definition to the character } as well to prevent it from being a constituent. If the line

```
(set-macro-character #\) (get-macro-character #\) nil))
```

shown above were not included, then the } in

```
#{ pqza}
```

would be considered a constituent character, part of the symbol named a.). This could be corrected by putting a space before the ..., but it is better to call **set-macro-character**.

Giving } the same definition as the standard definition of the character ) has the twin benefit of making it terminate tokens for use with **read-delimited-list** and also making it invalid for use in any other context. Attempting to read a stray } will signal an error.

#### Affected By:

\*standard-input\*, \*readtable\*, \*terminal-io\*.

#### See Also:

read, peek-char, read-char, unread-char.

#### Notes:

**read-delimited-list** is intended for use in implementing *reader macros*. Usually it is desirable for *char* to be a *terminating macro character* so that it can be used to delimit tokens; however, **read-delimited-list** makes no attempt to alter the syntax specified for *char* by the current readtable. The caller must make any necessary changes to the readtable syntax explicitly.

# read-from-string

*Function* 

# Syntax:

 $\rightarrow$  object, position

### **Arguments and Values:**

string—a string.

eof-error-p—a generalized boolean. The default is true.

eof-value—an object. The default is nil.

start, end—bounding index designators of string. The defaults for start and end are 0 and nil, respectively.

preserve-whitespace—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

object—an object (parsed by the Lisp reader) or the eof-value.

position—an integer greater than or equal to zero, and less than or equal to one more than the length of the string.

### **Description:**

Parses the printed representation of an *object* from the subsequence of *string bounded* by *start* and *end*, as if **read** had been called on an *input stream* containing those same *characters*.

If preserve-whitespace is true, the operation will preserve  $whitespace_2$  as read-preserving-whitespace would do.

If an *object* is successfully parsed, the *primary value*, *object*, is the *object* that was parsed. If *eof-error-p* is *false* and if the end of the *substring* is reached, *eof-value* is returned.

The secondary value, position, is the index of the first character in the bounded string that was not read. The position may depend upon the value of preserve-whitespace. If the entire string was read, the position returned is either the length of the string or one greater than the length of the string.

### **Examples:**

```
(read-from-string " 1 3 5" t nil :start 2) \rightarrow 3, 5 (read-from-string "(a b c)") \rightarrow (A B C), 7
```

### **Exceptional Situations:**

If the end of the supplied substring occurs before an *object* can be read, an error is signaled if *eof-error-p* is *true*. An error is signaled if the end of the *substring* occurs in the middle of an incomplete *object*.

#### See Also:

read, read-preserving-whitespace

#### Notes:

The reason that *position* is allowed to be beyond the *length* of the *string* is to permit (but not require) the *implementation* to work by simulating the effect of a trailing delimiter at the end of the *bounded string*. When *preserve-whitespace* is *true*, the *position* might count the simulated delimiter.

# readtable-case

Accessor

#### Syntax:

```
readtable-case readtable \rightarrow mode (setf (readtable-case readtable) mode)
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
readtable—a readtable.
```

mode—a case sensitivity mode.

### **Description:**

Accesses the readtable case of readtable, which affects the way in which the Lisp Reader reads symbols and the way in which the Lisp Printer writes symbols.

#### **Examples:**

See Section 23.1.2.1 (Examples of Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Reader) and Section 22.1.3.3.2.1 (Examples of Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Printer).

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *readtable* is not a *readtable*. Should signal an error of *type* **type-error** if *mode* is not a *case sensitivity mode*.

#### See Also:

\*readtable\*, \*print-escape\*, Section 2.2 (Reader Algorithm), Section 23.1.2 (Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Reader), Section 22.1.3.3.2 (Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Printer)

#### Notes:

copy-readtable copies the readtable case of the readtable.

# readtablep

**Function** 

# Syntax:

```
readtablep object \rightarrow generalized-boolean
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

#### Description:

Returns true if object is of type readtable; otherwise, returns false.

#### **Examples:**

```
(readtablep *readtable*) \rightarrow true (readtablep (copy-readtable)) \rightarrow true (readtablep '*readtable*) \rightarrow false
```

#### Notes:

```
(readtablep object) ≡ (typep object 'readtable)
```

# set-dispatch-macro-character, ...

# set-dispatch-macro-character, get-dispatch-macro-character

# **Syntax:**

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
disp-char—a character.
sub-char—a character.
readtable—a readtable designator. The default is the current readtable.
function—a function designator or nil.
new-function—a function designator.
```

# **Description:**

set-dispatch-macro-character causes new-function to be called when disp-char followed by sub-char is read. If sub-char is a lowercase letter, it is converted to its uppercase equivalent. It is an error if sub-char is one of the ten decimal digits.

**set-dispatch-macro-character** installs a *new-function* to be called when a particular *dispatching* macro character pair is read. New-function is installed as the dispatch function to be called when readtable is in use and when disp-char is followed by sub-char.

For more information about how the *new-function* is invoked, see Section 2.1.4.4 (Macro Characters).

get-dispatch-macro-character retrieves the dispatch function associated with disp-char and sub-char in readtable.

get-dispatch-macro-character returns the macro-character function for *sub-char* under *disp-char*, or nil if there is no function associated with *sub-char*. If *sub-char* is a decimal digit, get-dispatch-macro-character returns nil.

# **Examples:**

```
\label{eq:control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_control_co
```

```
list))) \rightarrow T #{(1 2 3 4) \rightarrow 1 #3{(0 1 2 3) \rightarrow 3 #{123 \rightarrow 123

If it is desired that #$foo: as if it were (dollars foo).

(defun |#$-reader| (stream subchar arg) (declare (ignore subchar arg)) (list 'dollars (read stream t nil t))) \rightarrow |#$-reader| (set-dispatch-macro-character #\# #\$ #'|#$-reader|) \rightarrow T
```

#### See Also:

Section 2.1.4.4 (Macro Characters)

#### Side Effects:

The *readtable* is modified.

#### Affected By:

\*readtable\*.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

For either function, an error is signaled if disp-char is not a dispatching macro character in readtable.

#### See Also:

\*readtable\*

#### **Notes:**

It is necessary to use **make-dispatch-macro-character** to set up the dispatch character before specifying its sub-characters.

# set-macro-character, get-macro-character

**Function** 

#### Syntax:

get-macro-character char &optional readtable o function, non-terminating-p set-macro-character char new-function &optional non-terminating-p readtable o t

# **Arguments and Values:**

char—a character.

non-terminating-p—a generalized boolean. The default is false.

# set-macro-character, get-macro-character

readtable—a readtable designator. The default is the current readtable.

function—nil, or a designator for a function of two arguments.

new-function—a function designator.

#### Description:

**get-macro-character** returns as its *primary value*, *function*, the *reader macro function* associated with *char* in *readtable* (if any), or else **nil** if *char* is not a *macro character* in *readtable*. The *secondary value*, *non-terminating-p*, is *true* if *char* is a *non-terminating macro character*; otherwise, it is *false*.

**set-macro-character** causes *char* to be a *macro-character* associated with the *reader macro-function new-function* (or the *designator* for *new-function*) in *readtable*. If *non-terminating-p* is *true*, *char* becomes a *non-terminating macro-character*; otherwise it becomes a *terminating macro-character*.

### **Examples:**

```
(get-macro-character #\{) \to NIL, false (not (get-macro-character #\;)) \to false
```

The following is a possible definition for the single-quote reader macro in standard syntax:

```
(defun single-quote-reader (stream char) (declare (ignore char)) (list 'quote (read stream t nil t))) \rightarrow SINGLE-QUOTE-READER (set-macro-character #\' #'single-quote-reader) \rightarrow T
```

Here single-quote-reader reads an *object* following the *single-quote* and returns a *list* of quote and that *object*. The *char* argument is ignored.

The following is a possible definition for the semicolon reader macro in standard syntax:

```
(defun semicolon-reader (stream char)
  (declare (ignore char))
  ;; First swallow the rest of the current input line.
  ;; End-of-file is acceptable for terminating the comment.
  (do () ((char= (read-char stream nil #\Newline t) #\Newline)))
  ;; Return zero values.
  (values)) → SEMICOLON-READER
(set-macro-character #\; #'semicolon-reader) → T
```

#### Side Effects:

The *readtable* is modified.

#### See Also:

\*readtable\*

# set-syntax-from-char

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

set-syntax-from-char to-char from-char &optional to-readtable from-readtable ightarrow t

### **Arguments and Values:**

to-char—a character.

from-char—a character.

to-readtable—a readtable. The default is the current readtable.

from-readtable—a readtable designator. The default is the standard readtable.

#### Description:

set-syntax-from-char makes the syntax of to-char in to-readtable be the same as the syntax of from-char in from-readtable.

set-syntax-from-char copies the syntax types of from-char. If from-char is a macro character, its reader macro function is copied also. If the character is a dispatching macro character, its entire dispatch table of reader macro functions is copied. The constituent traits of from-char are not copied.

A macro definition from a character such as " can be copied to another character; the standard definition for " looks for another character that is the same as the character that invoked it. The definition of ( can not be meaningfully copied to {, on the other hand. The result is that *lists* are of the form {a b c}, not {a b c}, because the definition always looks for a closing parenthesis, not a closing brace.

#### **Examples:**

```
(set-syntax-from-char #\7 #\;) \rightarrow T 123579 \rightarrow 1235
```

#### **Side Effects:**

The *to-readtable* is modified.

#### Affected By:

The existing values in the from-readtable.

#### See Also:

set-macro-character, make-dispatch-macro-character, Section 2.1.4 (Character Syntax Types)

#### **Notes:**

The constituent traits of a character are "hard wired" into the parser for extended tokens. For example, if the definition of S is copied to \*, then \* will become a constituent that is alphabetic<sub>2</sub> but that cannot be used as a short float exponent marker. For further information, see Section 2.1.4.2 (Constituent Traits).

# with-standard-io-syntax

Macro

### Syntax:

with-standard-io-syntax  $\{\textit{form}\}^* \rightarrow \{\textit{result}\}^*$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

forms—an implicit progn.

results—the values returned by the forms.

# **Description:**

Within the dynamic extent of the body of *forms*, all reader/printer control variables, including any *implementation-defined* ones not specified by this standard, are bound to values that produce standard read/print behavior. The values for the variables specified by this standard are listed in Figure 23–1.

Variable	Value
*package*	The CL-USER package
*print-array*	t
*print-base*	10
*print-case*	:upcase
*print-circle*	nil
*print-escape*	t
*print-gensym*	t
*print-length*	nil
*print-level*	nil
*print-lines*	nil
*print-miser-width $*$	nil
*print-pprint-dispatch*	The standard pprint dispatch table
*print-pretty*	nil
*print-radix*	nil
*print-readably*	t
*print-right-margin*	nil
*read-base $*$	10
*read-default-float-format $*$	single-float
*read-eval $*$	t
*read-suppress $*$	nil
*readtable $*$	The standard readtable

Figure 23–1. Values of standard control variables

# Examples:

\*read-base\* Variable

# Value Type:

a radix.

#### **Initial Value:**

10.

#### **Description:**

Controls the interpretation of tokens by read as being integers or ratios.

The value of \*read-base\*, called the current input base, is the radix in which integers and ratios are to be read by the Lisp reader. The parsing of other numeric types (e.g., floats) is not affected by this option.

The effect of \*read-base\* on the reading of any particular *rational* number can be locally overridden by explicit use of the #0, #X, #B, or #nR syntax or by a trailing decimal point.

#### **Examples:**

#### Notes:

Altering the input radix can be useful when reading data files in special formats.

# \*read-default-float-format\*

Variable

# Value Type:

one of the *atomic type specifiers* **short-float**, **single-float**, **double-float**, or **long-float**, or else some other *type specifier* defined by the *implementation* to be acceptable.

#### **Initial Value:**

The symbol single-float.

### **Description:**

Controls the floating-point format that is to be used when reading a floating-point number that has no *exponent marker* or that has e or E for an *exponent marker*. Other *exponent markers* explicitly prescribe the floating-point format to be used.

The printer uses \*read-default-float-format\* to guide the choice of exponent markers when printing floating-point numbers.

### **Examples:**

\*read-eval\* Variable

### Value Type:

a generalized boolean.

#### **Initial Value:**

true.

#### **Description:**

If it is *true*, the #. reader macro has its normal effect. Otherwise, that reader macro signals an error of type reader-error.

#### See Also:

\*print-readably\*

#### Notes:

If \*read-eval\* is false and \*print-readably\* is true, any method for print-object that would output a reference to the #. reader macro either outputs something different or signals an error of type print-not-readable.

# \*read-suppress\*

Variable

# Value Type:

a generalized boolean.

#### **Initial Value:**

false.

#### **Description:**

This variable is intended primarily to support the operation of the read-time conditional notations #+ and #-. It is important for the *reader macros* which implement these notations to be able to skip over the printed representation of an *expression* despite the possibility that the syntax of the skipped *expression* may not be entirely valid for the current implementation, since #+ and #- exist in order to allow the same program to be shared among several Lisp implementations (including dialects other than Common Lisp) despite small incompatibilities of syntax.

If it is *false*, the *Lisp reader* operates normally.

If the value of \*read-suppress\* is true, read, read-preserving-whitespace, read-delimited-list, and read-from-string all return a primary value of nil when they complete successfully; however, they continue to parse the representation of an object in the normal way, in order to skip over the object, and continue to indicate end of file in the normal way. Except as noted below, any standardized reader macro<sub>2</sub> that is defined to read<sub>2</sub> a following object or token will do so, but not signal an error if the object read is not of an appropriate type or syntax. The standard syntax and its associated reader macros will not construct any new objects (e.g., when reading the representation of a symbol, no symbol will be constructed or interned).

#### Extended tokens

All extended tokens are completely uninterpreted. Errors such as those that might otherwise be signaled due to detection of invalid *potential numbers*, invalid patterns of *package markers*, and invalid uses of the *dot* character are suppressed.

Dispatching macro characters (including sharpsign)

Dispatching macro characters continue to parse an infix numerical argument, and invoke the dispatch function. The standardized sharpsign reader macros do not enforce any constraints on either the presence of or the value of the numerical argument.

#=

The #= notation is totally ignored. It does not read a following *object*. It produces no *object*, but is treated as *whitespace*<sub>2</sub>.

##

The ## notation always produces nil.

No matter what the *value* of \*read-suppress\*, parentheses still continue to delimit and construct *lists*; the #( notation continues to delimit *vectors*; and comments, *strings*, and the *single-quote* and *backquote* notations continue to be interpreted properly. Such situations as '), #<, #), and  $\#\langle Space \rangle$  continue to signal errors.

#### **Examples:**

```
(let ((*read-suppress* t))
  (mapcar #'read-from-string
        '("#(foo bar baz)" "#P(:type :lisp)" "#c1.2"
        "#.(PRINT 'F00)" "#3AHELLO" "#S(INTEGER)"
        "#*ABC" "#\GARBAGE" "#RALPHA" "#3R444")))
  → (NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL NIL)
```

#### See Also:

read, Chapter 2 (Syntax)

#### Notes:

Programmers and implementations that define additional macro characters are strongly encouraged to make them respect \*read-suppress\* just as standardized macro characters do. That is, when the value of \*read-suppress\* is true, they should ignore type errors when reading a following object and the functions that implement dispatching macro characters should tolerate nil as their infix parameter value even if a numeric value would ordinarily be required.

\*readtable\*

Variable

#### Value Type:

a readtable.

#### Initial Value:

A readtable that conforms to the description of Common Lisp syntax in Chapter 2 (Syntax).

#### **Description:**

The value of \*readtable\* is called the *current readtable*. It controls the parsing behavior of the *Lisp reader*, and can also influence the *Lisp printer* (e.g., see the function readtable-case).

#### **Examples:**

```
(readtablep *readtable*) 
ightarrow true
```

```
(setq zvar 123) \rightarrow 123 (set-syntax-from-char #\z #\' (setq table2 (copy-readtable))) \rightarrow T zvar \rightarrow 123 (setq *readtable* table2) \rightarrow #<READTABLE> zvar \rightarrow VAR (setq *readtable* (copy-readtable nil)) \rightarrow #<READTABLE> zvar \rightarrow 123
```

#### Affected By:

compile-file, load

#### See Also:

compile-file, load, readtable, Section 2.1.1.1 (The Current Readtable)

# reader-error

Condition Type

#### Class Precedence List:

 ${\bf reader\text{-}error,\ parse\text{-}error,\ stream\text{-}error,\ error,\ serious\text{-}condition,\ condition,\ t}$ 

# Description:

The type reader-error consists of error conditions that are related to tokenization and parsing done by the Lisp reader.

### See Also:

read, stream-error-stream, Section 23.1 (Reader Concepts)

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

24. System Construction

#### System Construction Concepts 24.1

# **24.1.1** Loading

To load a file is to treat its contents as code and execute that code. The file may contain source code or compiled code.

A file containing source code is called a source file. Loading a source file is accomplished essentially by sequentially reading<sub>2</sub> the forms in the file, evaluating each immediately after it is read.

A file containing compiled code is called a compiled file. Loading a compiled file is similar to loading a source file, except that the file does not contain text but rather an implementationdependent representation of pre-digested expressions created by the compiler. Often, a compiled file can be loaded more quickly than a source file. See Section 3.2 (Compilation).

The way in which a source file is distinguished from a compiled file is implementation-dependent.

#### 24.1.2 Features

A feature is an aspect or attribute of Common Lisp, of the implementation, or of the environment. A feature is identified by a symbol.

A feature is said to be **present** in a Lisp image if and only if the symbol naming it is an element of the list held by the variable \*features\*, which is called the features list.

# 24.1.2.1 Feature Expressions

Boolean combinations of features, called feature expressions, are used by the #+ and #- reader macros in order to direct conditional reading of expressions by the Lisp reader.

The rules for interpreting a feature expression are as follows:

feature

If a symbol naming a feature is used as a feature expression, the feature expression succeeds if that *feature* is *present*; otherwise it fails.

(not feature-conditional)

A not feature expression succeeds if its argument feature-conditional fails; otherwise, it succeeds.

(and { feature-conditional}\*)

An and feature expression succeeds if all of its argument feature-conditionals succeed; otherwise, it fails.

```
(or {feature-conditional}*)
```

An **or** feature expression succeeds if any of its argument feature-conditionals succeed; otherwise, it fails.

#### 24.1.2.1.1 Examples of Feature Expressions

For example, suppose that in *implementation* A, the *features* spice and perq are *present*, but the *feature* lispm is not *present*; in *implementation* B, the feature lispm is *present*, but the *features* spice and perq are not *present*; and in *implementation* C, none of the features spice, *lispm*, or perq are *present*. Figure 24–1 shows some sample *expressions*, and how they would be  $read_2$  in these *implementations*.

```
(cons #+spice "Spice" #-spice "Lispm" x)
 in implementation A \dots
                                      (CONS "Spice" X)
 in implementation B \dots
                                      (CONS "Lispm" X)
 in implementation C \dots
                                      (CONS "Lispm" X)
(cons #+spice "Spice" #+LispM "Lispm" x)
 in implementation A ...
                                       (CONS "Spice" X)
                                      (CONS "Lispm" X)
 in implementation B ...
 in implementation C \dots
                                      (CONS X)
(setq a '(1 2 #+perq 43 #+(not perq) 27))
 in implementation A ...
                                      (SETQ A '(1 2 43))
 in implementation B ...
                                      (SETQ A '(1 2 27))
 in implementation C \dots
                                      (SETQ A '(1 2 27))
(let ((a 3) #+(or spice lispm) (b 3)) (foo a))
 in implementation A . . .
                                      (LET ((A 3) (B 3)) (FOO A))
 in implementation B ...
                                      (LET ((A 3) (B 3)) (FOO A))
 in implementation C \dots
                                      (LET ((A 3)) (FOO A))
(cons #+Lispm "#+Spice" #+Spice "foo" #-(or Lispm Spice) 7 x)
 in implementation A \dots
                                      (CONS "foo" X)
 in implementation B \dots
                                      (CONS "#+Spice" X)
 in implementation C \dots
                                      (CONS 7 X)
```

Figure 24–1. Features examples

# compile-file

*Function* 

### Syntax:

compile-file input-file &key output-file verbose print external-format

→ output-truename, warnings-p, failure-p

### **Arguments and Values:**

input-file—a pathname designator. (Default fillers for unspecified components are taken from \*default-pathname-defaults\*.)

output-file—a pathname designator. The default is implementation-defined.

verbose—a generalized boolean. The default is the value of \*compile-verbose\*.

print—a generalized boolean. The default is the value of \*compile-print\*.

external-format—an external file format designator. The default is :default.

output-truename—a pathname (the truename of the output file), or nil.

warnings-p—a generalized boolean.

failure-p—a generalized boolean.

#### Description:

**compile-file** transforms the contents of the file specified by *input-file* into *implementation-dependent* binary data which are placed in the file specified by *output-file*.

The *file* to which *input-file* refers should be a *source file*. *output-file* can be used to specify an output *pathname*; the actual *pathname* of the *compiled file* to which *compiled code* will be output is computed as if by calling **compile-file-pathname**.

If *input-file* or *output-file* is a *logical pathname*, it is translated into a *physical pathname* as if by calling **translate-logical-pathname**.

If verbose is true, compile-file prints a message in the form of a comment (i.e., with a leading semicolon) to standard output indicating what file is being compiled and other useful information. If verbose is false, compile-file does not print this information.

If *print* is *true*, information about *top level forms* in the file being compiled is printed to *standard output*. Exactly what is printed is *implementation-dependent*, but nevertheless some information is printed. If *print* is **nil**, no information is printed.

The external-format specifies the external file format to be used when opening the file; see the

# compile-file

function open. compile-file and load must cooperate in such a way that the resulting compiled file can be loaded without specifying an external file format anew; see the function load.

compile-file binds \*readtable\* and \*package\* to the values they held before processing the file.

\*compile-file-truename\* is bound by compile-file to hold the truename of the pathname of the file being compiled.

\*compile-file-pathname\* is bound by compile-file to hold a pathname denoted by the first argument to compile-file, merged against the defaults; that is, (pathname (merge-pathnames input-file)).

The compiled functions contained in the compiled file become available for use when the compiled file is loaded into Lisp. Any function definition that is processed by the compiler, including #'(lambda ...) forms and local function definitions made by flet, labels and defun forms, result in an object of type compiled-function.

The primary value returned by compile-file, output-truename, is the truename of the output file, or nil if the file could not be created.

The secondary value, warnings-p, is false if no conditions of type error or warning were detected by the compiler, and true otherwise.

The tertiary value, failure-p, is false if no conditions of type error or warning (other than style-warning) were detected by the compiler, and true otherwise.

For general information about how *files* are processed by the *file compiler*, see Section 3.2.3 (File Compilation).

Programs to be compiled by the file compiler must only contain externalizable objects; for details on such objects, see Section 3.2.4 (Literal Objects in Compiled Files). For information on how to extend the set of externalizable objects, see the function make-load-form and Section 3.2.4.4 (Additional Constraints on Externalizable Objects).

#### Affected By:

\*error-output\*, \*standard-output\*, \*compile-verbose\*, \*compile-print\*

The computer's file system.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

For information about errors detected during the compilation process, see Section 3.2.5 (Exceptional Situations in the Compiler).

An error of type file-error might be signaled if (wild-pathname-p input-file) returns true.

If either the attempt to open the *source file* for input or the attempt to open the *compiled file* for output fails, an error of *type* file-error is signaled.

#### See Also:

compile, declare, eval-when, pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

# compile-file-pathname

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

compile-file-pathname input-file &key output-file &allow-other-keys  $\rightarrow$  pathname

### **Arguments and Values:**

input-file—a pathname designator. (Default fillers for unspecified components are taken from \*default-pathname-defaults\*.)

output-file—a pathname designator. The default is implementation-defined.

pathname—a pathname.

# Description:

Returns the pathname that compile-file would write into, if given the same arguments.

The defaults for the output-file are taken from the pathname that results from merging the input-file with the value of \*default-pathname-defaults\*, except that the type component should default to the appropriate implementation-defined default type for compiled files.

If input-file is a logical pathname and output-file is unsupplied, the result is a logical pathname. If input-file is a logical pathname, it is translated into a physical pathname as if by calling translate-logical-pathname. If input-file is a stream, the stream can be either open or closed. compile-file-pathname returns the same pathname after a file is closed as it did when the file was open. It is an error if input-file is a stream that is created with make-two-way-stream, make-echo-stream, make-broadcast-stream,  $make-concatenated-stream,\ make-string-input-stream,\ make-string-output-stream.$ 

If an implementation supports additional keyword arguments to compile-file, compile-file-pathname must accept the same arguments.

#### **Examples:**

See logical-pathname-translations.

#### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of type file-error might be signaled if either input-file or output-file is wild.

#### See Also:

**compile-file**, **pathname**, **logical-pathname**, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

load

### Syntax:

load filespec &key verbose print if-does-not-exist external-format

 $\rightarrow$  generalized-boolean

# **Arguments and Values:**

filespec—a stream, or a pathname designator. The default is taken from \*default-pathname-defaults\*.

verbose—a generalized boolean. The default is the value of \*load-verbose\*.

print—a generalized boolean. The default is the value of \*load-print\*.

if-does-not-exist—a generalized boolean. The default is true.

external-format—an external file format designator. The default is :default.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

### **Description:**

load loads the file named by filespec into the Lisp environment.

The manner in which a source file is distinguished from a compiled file is implementation-dependent. If the file specification is not complete and both a source file and a compiled file exist which might match, then which of those files **load** selects is implementation-dependent.

If *filespec* is a *stream*, **load** determines what kind of *stream* it is and loads directly from the *stream*. If *filespec* is a *logical pathname*, it is translated into a *physical pathname* as if by calling **translate-logical-pathname**.

load sequentially executes each form it encounters in the file named by filespec. If the file is a source file and the implementation chooses to perform implicit compilation, load must recognize top level forms as described in Section 3.2.3.1 (Processing of Top Level Forms) and arrange for each top level form to be executed before beginning implicit compilation of the next. (Note, however, that processing of eval-when forms by load is controlled by the :execute situation.)

If verbose is true, load prints a message in the form of a comment (i.e., with a leading semicolon) to standard output indicating what file is being loaded and other useful information. If verbose is false, load does not print this information.

If print is true, load incrementally prints information to standard output showing the progress of the loading process. For a source file, this information might mean printing the values yielded by each form in the file as soon as those values are returned. For a compiled file, what is printed might not reflect precisely the contents of the source file, but some information is generally printed. If *print* is *false*, **load** does not print this information.

If the file named by *filespec* is successfully loaded, **load** returns *true*.

If the file does not exist, the specific action taken depends on *if-does-not-exist*: if it is nil, load returns nil; otherwise, load signals an error.

The external-format specifies the external file format to be used when opening the file (see the function open), except that when the file named by filespec is a compiled file, the external-format is ignored. compile-file and load cooperate in an implementation-dependent way to assure the preservation of the similarity of characters referred to in the source file at the time the source file was processed by the file compiler under a given external file format, regardless of the value of external-format at the time the compiled file is loaded.

load binds \*readtable\* and \*package\* to the values they held before loading the file.

\*load-truename\* is bound by load to hold the truename of the pathname of the file being loaded.

\*load-pathname\* is bound by load to hold a pathname that represents filespec merged against the defaults. That is, (pathname (merge-pathnames filespec)).

### **Examples:**

```
;Establish a data file...
 (with-open-file (str "data.in" :direction :output :if-exists :error)
   (print 1 str) (print '(setq a 888) str) t)
\rightarrow T
 (load "data.in") 
ightarrow true
 a \rightarrow 888
 (load (setq p (merge-pathnames "data.in")) :verbose t)
; Loading contents of file /fred/data.in
; Finished loading /fred/data.in
\rightarrow true
 (load p :print t)
; Loading contents of file /fred/data.in
; 1
; 888
; Finished loading /fred/data.in
\rightarrow true
```

```
;--[Begin file SETUP]--
(in-package "MY-STUFF")
(defmacro compile-truename () '',*compile-file-truename*)
(defvar *my-compile-truename* (compile-truename) "Just for debugging.")
(defvar *my-load-pathname* *load-pathname*)
(defun load-my-system ()
   (dolist (module-name '("FOO" "BAR" "BAZ"))
        (load (merge-pathnames module-name *my-load-pathname*))))
;--[End of file SETUP]--
(load "SETUP")
(load-my-system)
```

#### Affected By:

The implementation, and the host computer's file system.

## **Exceptional Situations:**

If :if-does-not-exist is supplied and is *true*, or is not supplied, load signals an error of *type* file-error if the file named by *filespec* does not exist, or if the *file system* cannot perform the requested operation.

An error of type file-error might be signaled if (wild-pathname-p filespec) returns true.

#### See Also:

error, merge-pathnames, \*load-verbose\*, \*default-pathname-defaults\*, pathname, logical-pathname, Section 20.1 (File System Concepts), Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

# with-compilation-unit

Macro

#### Syntax:

```
with-compilation-unit (\llbracket \downarrow option \rrbracket) \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^* option::=:override override
```

#### **Arguments and Values:**

```
override—a generalized boolean; evaluated. The default is nil.
forms—an implicit progn.
results—the values returned by the forms.
```

around its *code*.

# Description:

Executes forms from left to right. Within the dynamic environment of with-compilation-unit, actions deferred by the compiler until the end of compilation will be deferred until the end of the outermost call to with-compilation-unit.

The set of options permitted may be extended by the implementation, but the only standardized keyword is :override.

If nested dynamically only the outer call to with-compilation-unit has any effect unless the value associated with :override is true, in which case warnings are deferred only to the end of the innermost call for which override is true.

The function **compile-file** provides the effect of (with-compilation-unit (:override nil) ...)

Any implementation-dependent extensions can only be provided as the result of an explicit programmer request by use of an implementation-dependent keyword. Implementations are forbidden from attaching additional meaning to a use of this macro which involves either no keywords or just the keyword :override.

# **Examples:**

If an *implementation* would normally defer certain kinds of warnings, such as warnings about undefined functions, to the end of a compilation unit (such as a file), the following example shows how to cause those warnings to be deferred to the end of the compilation of several files.

```
(defun compile-files (&rest files)
  (with-compilation-unit ()
    (mapcar #'(lambda (file) (compile-file file)) files)))
(compile-files "A" "B" "C")
```

Note however that if the implementation does not normally defer any warnings, use of with-compilation-unit might not have any effect.

#### See Also:

compile, compile-file

# \*features\*

\*features\* Variable

### Value Type:

a proper list.

### **Initial Value:**

 $implementation\mbox{-}dependent.$ 

### **Description:**

The value of \*features\* is called the features list. It is a list of symbols, called features, that correspond to some aspect of the implementation or environment.

Most features have implementation-dependent meanings; The following meanings have been assigned to feature names:

#### :cltl1

If present, indicates that the LISP package purports to conform to the 1984 specification Common Lisp: The Language. It is possible, but not required, for a conforming implementation to have this feature because this specification specifies that its symbols are to be in the COMMON-LISP package, not the LISP package.

#### :clt12

If present, indicates that the implementation purports to conform to Common Lisp: The Language, Second Edition. This feature must not be present in any conforming implementation, since conformance to that document is not compatible with conformance to this specification. The name, however, is reserved by this specification in order to help programs distinguish implementations which conform to that document from implementations which conform to this specification.

### :ieee-floating-point

If present, indicates that the implementation purports to conform to the requirements of IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point Arithmetic.

### :x3j13

If present, indicates that the implementation conforms to some particular working draft of this specification, or to some subset of features that approximates a belief about what this specification might turn out to contain. A *conforming implementation* might or might not contain such a feature. (This feature is intended primarily as a stopgap in order to provide implementors something to use prior to the availability of a draft standard, in order to discourage them from introducing the :draft-ansi-cl and :ansi-cl features prematurely.)

### :draft-ansi-cl

If present, indicates that the implementation purports to conform to the first full draft of this specification, which went to public review in 1992. A conforming implementation which has the :draft-ansi-cl-2 or :ansi-cl feature is not permitted to retain the :draft-ansi-cl feature since incompatible changes were made subsequent to the first draft.

#### :draft-ansi-cl-2

If present, indicates that a second full draft of this specification has gone to public review, and that the implementation purports to conform to that specification. (If additional public review drafts are produced, this keyword will continue to refer to the second draft, and additional keywords will be added to identify conformance with such later drafts. As such, the meaning of this keyword can be relied upon not to change over time.) A conforming implementation which has the :ansi-cl feature is only permitted to retain the :draft-ansi-cl feature if the finally approved standard is not incompatible with the draft standard.

#### :ansi-cl

If present, indicates that this specification has been adopted by ANSI as an official standard, and that the implementation purports to conform.

#### :common-lisp

This feature must appear in \*features\* for any implementation that has one or more of the features :x3j13, :draft-ansi-cl, or :ansi-cl. It is intended that it should also appear in implementations which have the features :cltl1 or :cltl2, but this specification cannot force such behavior. The intent is that this feature should identify the language family named "Common Lisp," rather than some specific dialect within that family.

### See Also:

Section 1.5.2.1.1 (Use of Read-Time Conditionals), Section 2.4 (Standard Macro Characters)

### Notes:

The value of \*features\* is used by the #+ and #- reader syntax.

Symbols in the features list may be in any package, but in practice they are generally in the KEYWORD package. This is because KEYWORD is the package used by default when reading<sub>2</sub> feature expressions in the #+ and #- reader macros. Code that needs to name a feature, in a package P (other than KEYWORD) can do so by making explicit use of a package prefix for P, but note that such code must also assure that the package P exists in order for the feature expression to be  $read_2$ —even in cases where the *feature expression* is expected to fail.

It is generally considered wise for an *implementation* to include one or more features identifying the specific *implementation*, so that conditional expressions can be written which distinguish idiosyncrasies of one *implementation* from those of another. Since features are normally symbols in the KEYWORD package where name collisions might easily result, and since no uniquely defined

mechanism is designated for deciding who has the right to use which *symbol* for what reason, a conservative strategy is to prefer names derived from one's own company or product name, since those names are often trademarked and are hence less likely to be used unwittingly by another *implementation*.

# $*compile-file-pathname*, *compile-file-truename* \\Variable$

### Value Type:

The value of \*compile-file-pathname\* must always be a pathname or nil. The value of \*compile-file-truename\* must always be a physical pathname or nil.

### **Initial Value:**

nil.

# **Description:**

During a call to **compile-file**, \*compile-file-pathname\* is bound to the pathname denoted by the first argument to **compile-file**, merged against the defaults; that is, it is bound to (pathname (merge-pathnames input-file)). During the same time interval, \*compile-file-truename\* is bound to the truename of the file being compiled.

At other times, the value of these variables is nil.

If a *break loop* is entered while **compile-file** is ongoing, it is *implementation-dependent* whether these *variables* retain the *values* they had just prior to entering the *break loop* or whether they are *bound* to **nil**.

The consequences are unspecified if an attempt is made to assign or bind either of these variables.

### Affected By:

The file system.

### See Also:

compile-file

# \*load-pathname\*, \*load-truename\*

Variable

# Value Type:

The value of \*load-pathname\* must always be a pathname or nil. The value of \*load-truename\* must always be a *physical pathname* or nil.

### **Initial Value:**

nil.

# **Description:**

During a call to load, \*load-pathname\* is bound to the pathname denoted by the the first argument to load, merged against the defaults; that is, it is bound to (pathname (merge-pathnames filespec)). During the same time interval, \*load-truename\* is bound to the truename of the file being loaded.

At other times, the value of these variables is nil.

If a break loop is entered while load is ongoing, it is implementation-dependent whether these variables retain the values they had just prior to entering the break loop or whether they are bound

The consequences are unspecified if an attempt is made to assign or bind either of these variables.

# Affected By:

The file system.

### See Also:

load

# \*compile-print\*, \*compile-verbose\*

Variable

### Value Type:

a generalized boolean.

### **Initial Value:**

implementation-dependent.

### **Description:**

The value of \*compile-print\* is the default value of the :print argument to compile-file. The value of \*compile-verbose\* is the default value of the :verbose argument to compile-file.

### See Also:

compile-file

# \*load-print\*, \*load-verbose\*

Variable

# Value Type:

a generalized boolean.

### **Initial Value:**

The initial value of \*load-print\* is false. The initial value of \*load-verbose\* is implementation-dependent.

# **Description:**

The value of \*load-print\* is the default value of the :print argument to load. The value of \*load-verbose\* is the default value of the :verbose argument to load.

### See Also:

load

\*modules\*

# Value Type:

a list of strings.

# Initial Value:

implementation-dependent.

### Description:

The value of \*modules\* is a list of names of the modules that have been loaded into the current Lisp image.

### Affected By:

provide

### See Also:

provide, require

### Notes:

The variable \*modules\* is deprecated.

# provide, require

# provide, require

*Function* 

# Syntax:

```
 \begin{array}{ll} \textbf{provide} \ \textit{module-name} & \rightarrow \textit{implementation-dependent} \\ \textbf{require} \ \textit{module-name} \ \texttt{\&optional} \ \textit{pathname-list} & \rightarrow \textit{implementation-dependent} \end{array}
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

module-name—a string designator.

pathname-list—nil, or a designator for a non-empty list of pathname designators. The default is nil.

# **Description:**

**provide** adds the *module-name* to the *list* held by \*modules\*, if such a name is not already present.

require tests for the presence of the *module-name* in the *list* held by \*modules\*. If it is present, require immediately returns. Otherwise, an attempt is made to load an appropriate set of *files* as follows: The *pathname-list* argument, if *non-nil*, specifies a list of *pathnames* to be loaded in order, from left to right. If the *pathname-list* is nil, an *implementation-dependent* mechanism will be invoked in an attempt to load the module named *module-name*; if no such module can be loaded, an error of *type* error is signaled.

Both functions use **string**= to test for the presence of a *module-name*.

### **Examples:**

```
;;; This illustrates a nonportable use of REQUIRE, because it
;;; depends on the implementation-dependent file-loading mechanism.

(require "CALCULUS")

;;; This use of REQUIRE is nonportable because of the literal
;;; physical pathname.

(require "CALCULUS" "/usr/lib/lisp/calculus")

;;; One form of portable usage involves supplying a logical pathname,
;;; with appropriate translations defined elsewhere.

(require "CALCULUS" "lib:calculus")

;;; Another form of portable usage involves using a variable or
;;; table lookup function to determine the pathname, which again
```

# provide, require

```
;;; must be initialized elsewhere.
(require "CALCULUS" *calculus-module-pathname*)
```

### Side Effects:

provide modifies \*modules\*.

### Affected By:

The specific action taken by **require** is affected by calls to **provide** (or, in general, any changes to the *value* of \*modules\*).

# **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if module-name is not a string designator.

If **require** fails to perform the requested operation due to a problem while interacting with the *file* system, an error of type **file-error** is signaled.

An error of type file-error might be signaled if any pathname in pathname-list is a designator for a wild pathname.

### See Also:

\*modules\*, Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

### Notes:

The functions **provide** and **require** are deprecated.

If a module consists of a single package, it is customary for the package and module names to be the same.

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

25. Environment

#### The External Environment 25.1

# 25.1.1 Top level loop

The top level loop is the Common Lisp mechanism by which the user normally interacts with the Common Lisp system. This loop is sometimes referred to as the Lisp read-eval-print loop because it typically consists of an endless loop that reads an expression, evaluates it and prints the results.

The top level loop is not completely specified; thus the user interface is implementation-defined. The top level loop prints all values resulting from the evaluation of a form. Figure 25–1 lists variables that are maintained by the Lisp read-eval-print loop.



Figure 25-1. Variables maintained by the Read-Eval-Print Loop

# 25.1.2 Debugging Utilities

Figure 25–2 shows defined names relating to debugging.

*debugger-hook*	documentation	step
apropos	dribble	time
apropos-list	ed	trace
break describe	inspect invoke-debugger	${ m untrace}$

Figure 25–2. Defined names relating to debugging

# 25.1.3 Environment Inquiry

Environment inquiry defined names provide information about the hardware and software configuration on which a Common Lisp program is being executed.

Figure 25–3 shows defined names relating to environment inquiry.

*features*	machine-instance	short-site-name
lisp-implementation-type	${f machine-type}$	${f software-type}$
lisp-implementation-version	machine-version	software-version
long-site-name	room	

Figure 25-3. Defined names relating to environment inquiry.

### 25.1.4 Time

Time is represented in four different ways in Common Lisp: decoded time, universal time, internal time, and seconds. Decoded time and universal time are used primarily to represent calendar time, and are precise only to one second. Internal time is used primarily to represent measurements of computer time (such as run time) and is precise to some implementation-dependent fraction of a second called an internal time unit, as specified by internal-time-units-per-second. An internal time can be used for either absolute and relative time measurements. Both a universal time and a decoded time can be used only for absolute time measurements. In the case of one function, sleep, time intervals are represented as a non-negative real number of seconds.

Figure 25–4 shows defined names relating to time.

decode-universal-time	get-internal-run-time
encode-universal-time	get-universal-time
get-decoded-time	internal-time-units-per-second
get-internal-real-time	sleep

Figure 25-4. Defined names involving Time.

### 25.1.4.1 Decoded Time

A **decoded time** is an ordered series of nine values that, taken together, represent a point in calendar time (ignoring *leap seconds*):

### Second

An integer between 0 and 59, inclusive.

### Minute

An *integer* between 0 and 59, inclusive.

#### Hour

An integer between 0 and 23, inclusive.

### **25–2** Programming Language—Common Lisp

#### Date

An *integer* between 1 and 31, inclusive (the upper limit actually depends on the month and year, of course).

#### Month

An *integer* between 1 and 12, inclusive; 1 means January, 2 means February, and so on; 12 means December.

### Year

An *integer* indicating the year A.D. However, if this *integer* is between 0 and 99, the "obvious" year is used; more precisely, that year is assumed that is equal to the *integer* modulo 100 and within fifty years of the current year (inclusive backwards and exclusive forwards). Thus, in the year 1978, year 28 is 1928 but year 27 is 2027. (Functions that return time in this format always return a full year number.)

### Day of week

An integer between 0 and 6, inclusive; 0 means Monday, 1 means Tuesday, and so on; 6 means Sunday.

### Daylight saving time flag

A generalized boolean that, if true, indicates that daylight saving time is in effect.

### Time zone

A time zone.

Figure 25–5 shows defined names relating to decoded time.

${\bf decode\text{-}universal\text{-}time}$	${f get-decoded-time}$

Figure 25-5. Defined names involving time in Decoded Time.

### 25.1.4.2 Universal Time

Universal time is an absolute time represented as a single non-negative integer—the number of seconds since midnight, January 1, 1900 GMT (ignoring leap seconds). Thus the time 1 is 00:00:01 (that is, 12:00:01 a.m.) on January 1, 1900 GMT. Similarly, the time 2398291201 corresponds to time 00:00:01 on January 1, 1976 GMT. Recall that the year 1900 was not a leap year; for the purposes of Common Lisp, a year is a leap year if and only if its number is divisible by 4, except that years divisible by 100 are not leap years, except that years divisible by 400 are leap years.

Therefore the year 2000 will be a leap year. Because *universal time* must be a non-negative *integer*, times before the base time of midnight, January 1, 1900 GMT cannot be processed by Common Lisp.

decode-universal-time get-universal-time encode-universal-time

Figure 25-6. Defined names involving time in Universal Time.

### 25.1.4.3 Internal Time

Internal time represents time as a single *integer*, in terms of an *implementation-dependent* unit called an *internal time unit*. Relative time is measured as a number of these units. Absolute time is relative to an arbitrary time base.

Figure 25–7 shows defined names related to internal time.

get-internal-real-time internal-time-units-per-second get-internal-run-time

Figure 25–7. Defined names involving time in Internal Time.

### 25.1.4.4 Seconds

One function, **sleep**, takes its argument as a non-negative *real* number of seconds. Informally, it may be useful to think of this as a *relative universal time*, but it differs in one important way: *universal times* are always non-negative *integers*, whereas the argument to **sleep** can be any kind of non-negative *real*, in order to allow for the possibility of fractional seconds.

sleep

Figure 25–8. Defined names involving time in Seconds.

# decode-universal-time

Function

# Syntax:

decode-universal-time universal-time &optional time-zone

→ second, minute, hour, date, month, year, day, daylight-p, zone

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
universal-time—a universal time.
```

time-zone—a time zone.

second, minute, hour, date, month, year, day, daylight-p, zone—a decoded time.

### **Description:**

Returns the decoded time represented by the given universal time.

If *time-zone* is not supplied, it defaults to the current time zone adjusted for daylight saving time. If *time-zone* is supplied, daylight saving time information is ignored. The daylight saving time flag is nil if *time-zone* is supplied.

# **Examples:**

# Affected By:

*Implementation-dependent* mechanisms for calculating when or if daylight savings time is in effect for any given session.

### See Also:

encode-universal-time, get-universal-time, Section 25.1.4 (Time)

# encode-universal-time

function

# Syntax:

encode-universal-time second minute hour date month year &optional time-zone

ightarrow universal-time

# **Arguments and Values:**

second, minute, hour, date, month, year, time-zone—the corresponding parts of a decoded time. (Note that some of the nine values in a full decoded time are redundant, and so are not used as inputs to this function.)

universal-time—a universal time.

### **Description:**

**encode-universal-time** converts a time from Decoded Time format to a *universal time*.

If time-zone is supplied, no adjustment for daylight savings time is performed.

### **Examples:**

```
(encode-universal-time 0 0 0 1 1 1900 0) \rightarrow 0 (encode-universal-time 0 0 1 4 7 1976 5) \rightarrow 2414296800;; The next example assumes Eastern Daylight Time. (encode-universal-time 0 0 1 4 7 1976) \rightarrow 2414293200
```

### See Also:

decode-universal-time, get-decoded-time

# get-universal-time, get-decoded-time

*Function* 

### Syntax:

```
get-universal-time \langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow universal-time get-decoded-time \langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow second, minute, hour, date, month, year, day, daylight-p, zone
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

```
universal-time—a universal time.
```

second, minute, hour, date, month, year, day, daylight-p, zone—a decoded time.

# Description:

get-universal-time returns the current time, represented as a universal time.

get-decoded-time returns the current time, represented as a decoded time.

### **Examples:**

```
;; At noon on July 4, 1976 in Eastern Daylight Time. (get-decoded-time) \rightarrow 0, 0, 12, 4, 7, 1976, 6, true, 5 ;; At exactly the same instant. (get-universal-time) \rightarrow 2414332800 ;; Exactly five minutes later. (get-universal-time) \rightarrow 2414333100 ;; The difference is 300 seconds (five minutes) (-***) \rightarrow 300
```

# Affected By:

The time of day (*i.e.*, the passage of time), the system clock's ability to keep accurate time, and the accuracy of the system clock's initial setting.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

An error of type error might be signaled if the current time cannot be determined.

### See Also:

decode-universal-time, encode-universal-time, Section 25.1.4 (Time)

### Notes:

```
(get-decoded-time) \equiv (decode-universal-time (get-universal-time))
```

No *implementation* is required to have a way to verify that the time returned is correct. However, if an *implementation* provides a validity check (e.g., the failure to have properly initialized the system clock can be reliably detected) and that validity check fails, the *implementation* is strongly encouraged (but not required) to signal an error of type error (rather than, for example, returning a known-to-be-wrong value) that is correctable by allowing the user to interactively set the correct time.

**sleep** Function

### Syntax:

```
sleep seconds \rightarrow nil
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

seconds—a non-negative real.

# **Description:**

Causes execution to cease and become dormant for approximately the seconds of real time indicated by **seconds**, whereupon execution is resumed.

### **Examples:**

### Side Effects:

Causes processing to pause.

### Affected By:

The granularity of the scheduler.

# **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if seconds is not a non-negative real.

# apropos, apropos-list

**Function** 

# Syntax:

```
apropos string & optional package \rightarrow \langle no \ values \rangle apropos-list string & optional package \rightarrow symbols
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

```
string—a string designator.
package—a package designator or nil. The default is nil.
symbols—a list of symbols.
```

### **Description:**

These functions search for interned symbols whose names contain the substring string.

For **apropos**, as each such *symbol* is found, its name is printed on *standard output*. In addition, if such a *symbol* is defined as a *function* or *dynamic variable*, information about those definitions might also be printed.

For apropos-list, no output occurs as the search proceeds; instead a list of the matching *symbols* is returned when the search is complete.

If package is non-nil, only the symbols accessible in that package are searched; otherwise all symbols accessible in any package are searched.

Because a *symbol* might be available by way of more than one inheritance path, **apropos** might print information about the *same symbol* more than once, or **apropos-list** might return a *list* containing duplicate *symbols*.

Whether or not the search is case-sensitive is *implementation-defined*.

# Affected By:

The set of symbols which are currently interned in any packages being searched.

apropos is also affected by \*standard-output\*.

describe

# **Syntax:**

**describe** object &optional stream  $\rightarrow \langle no \ values \rangle$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

object—an object.

stream—an output stream designator. The default is standard output.

### Description:

describe displays information about object to stream.

For example, **describe** of a *symbol* might show the *symbol*'s value, its definition, and each of its properties. **describe** of a *float* might show the number's internal representation in a way that is useful for tracking down round-off errors. In all cases, however, the nature and format of the output of **describe** is *implementation-dependent*.

**describe** can describe something that it finds inside the *object*; in such cases, a notational device such as increased indentation or positioning in a table is typically used in order to visually distinguish such recursive descriptions from descriptions of the argument *object*.

The actual act of describing the object is implemented by **describe-object**. **describe** exists as an interface primarily to manage argument defaulting (including conversion of arguments **t** and **nil** into *stream objects*) and to inhibit any return values from **describe-object**.

describe is not intended to be an interactive function. In a *conforming implementation*, describe must not, by default, prompt for user input. User-defined methods for describe-object are likewise restricted.

### **Side Effects:**

Output to standard output or terminal I/O.

# Affected By:

\*standard-output\* and \*terminal-io\*, methods on describe-object and print-object for objects having user-defined classes.

#### See Also:

inspect, describe-object

# describe-object

Standard Generic Function

# Syntax:

describe-object object stream  $\rightarrow implementation-dependent$ 

### Method Signatures:

describe-object (object standard-object) stream

### **Arguments and Values:**

object—an object.

stream—a stream.

### Description:

The generic function **describe-object** prints a description of *object* to a *stream*. **describe-object** is called by **describe**; it must not be called by the user.

Each implementation is required to provide a *method* on the *class* **standard-object** and *methods* on enough other *classes* so as to ensure that there is always an applicable *method*. Implementations are free to add *methods* for other *classes*. Users can write *methods* for **describe-object** for their own *classes* if they do not wish to inherit an implementation-supplied *method*.

Methods on describe-object can recursively call describe. Indentation, depth limits, and circularity detection are all taken care of automatically, provided that each method handles exactly one level of structure and calls describe recursively if there are more structural levels. The consequences are undefined if this rule is not obeyed.

In some implementations the *stream* argument passed to a **describe-object** method is not the original *stream*, but is an intermediate *stream* that implements parts of **describe**. *Methods* should therefore not depend on the identity of this *stream*.

### **Examples:**

```
(defclass spaceship ()
   ((captain :initarg :captain :accessor spaceship-captain)
    (serial# :initarg :serial-number :accessor spaceship-serial-number)))
 (defclass federation-starship (spaceship) ())
 (defmethod describe-object ((s spaceship) stream)
   (with-slots (captain serial#) s
     (format stream "~&~S is a spaceship of type ~S,~
                       ~%with ~A at the helm ~
                         and with serial number ~D.~%"
              s (type-of s) captain serial#)))
 (make-instance 'federation-starship
                 :captain "Rachel Garrett"
                 :serial-number "NCC-1701-C")
\rightarrow #<FEDERATION-STARSHIP 26312465>
 (describe *)
\triangleright #<FEDERATION-STARSHIP 26312465> is a spaceship of type FEDERATION-STARSHIP,
\triangleright with Rachel Garrett at the helm and with serial number NCC-1701-C.
\rightarrow \langle no \ values \rangle
```

### See Also:

describe

### **Notes:**

The same implementation techniques that are applicable to **print-object** are applicable to **describe-object**.

The reason for making the return values for **describe-object** unspecified is to avoid forcing users to include explicit (values) in all of their *methods*. **describe** takes care of that.

# trace, untrace

# trace, untrace

Macro

# Syntax:

```
trace \{function-name\}^* \rightarrow trace-result
untrace \{function-name\}^* \rightarrow untrace-result
```

# **Arguments and Values:**

function-name—a function name.

trace-result—implementation-dependent, unless no function-names are supplied, in which case trace-result is a list of function names.

untrace-result-implementation-dependent.

# **Description:**

trace and untrace control the invocation of the trace facility.

Invoking **trace** with one or more *function-names* causes the denoted *functions* to be "traced." Whenever a traced *function* is invoked, information about the call, about the arguments passed, and about any eventually returned values is printed to *trace output*. If **trace** is used with no *function-names*, no tracing action is performed; instead, a list of the *functions* currently being traced is returned.

Invoking untrace with one or more function names causes those functions to be "untraced" (i.e., no longer traced). If untrace is used with no function-names, all functions currently being traced are untraced.

If a function to be traced has been open-coded (e.g., because it was declared **inline**), a call to that function might not produce trace output.

### **Examples:**

```
(defun fact (n) (if (zerop n) 1 (* n (fact (- n 1)))))

→ FACT
  (trace fact)

→ (FACT)
;; Of course, the format of traced output is implementation-dependent.
  (fact 3)

▷ 1 Enter FACT 3

▷ | 2 Enter FACT 2

▷ | 3 Enter FACT 1

▷ | 4 Exit FACT 1

▷ | 3 Exit FACT 1

▷ | 2 Exit FACT 1
```

```
ho 1 Exit FACT 6 
ightarrow 6
```

### Side Effects:

Might change the definitions of the functions named by function-names.

# Affected By:

Whether the functions named are defined or already being traced.

### **Exceptional Situations:**

Tracing an already traced function, or untracing a function not currently being traced, should produce no harmful effects, but might signal a warning.

### See Also:

\*trace-output\*, step

# Notes:

trace and untrace may also accept additional *implementation-dependent* argument formats. The format of the trace output is *implementation-dependent*.

Although **trace** can be extended to permit non-standard options, *implementations* are nevertheless encouraged (but not required) to warn about the use of syntax or options that are neither specified by this standard nor added as an extension by the *implementation*, since they could be symptomatic of typographical errors or of reliance on features supported in *implementations* other than the current *implementation*.

 ${f step}$ 

### Syntax:

step form  $\rightarrow \{result\}^*$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

form—a form; evaluated as described below.

results—the values returned by the form.

### Description:

step implements a debugging paradigm wherein the programmer is allowed to *step* through the *evaluation* of a *form*. The specific nature of the interaction, including which I/O streams are used and whether the stepping has lexical or dynamic scope, is *implementation-defined*.

**step** evaluates *form* in the current *environment*. A call to **step** can be compiled, but it is acceptable for an implementation to interactively step through only those parts of the computation that are interpreted.

It is technically permissible for a *conforming implementation* to take no action at all other than normal *execution* of the *form*. In such a situation, (step *form*) is equivalent to, for example, (let () *form*). In implementations where this is the case, the associated documentation should mention that fact.

### See Also:

trace

### Notes:

*Implementations* are encouraged to respond to the typing of ? or the pressing of a "help key" by providing help including a list of commands.

 ${f time}$ 

# Syntax:

time form  $\rightarrow \{result\}^*$ 

### Arguments and Values:

form—a form; evaluated as described below.

results—the values returned by the form.

### Description:

 $\mathbf{time}$  evaluates form in the current environment (lexical and dynamic). A call to  $\mathbf{time}$  can be compiled.

time prints various timing data and other information to *trace output*. The nature and format of the printed information is *implementation-defined*. Implementations are encouraged to provide such information as elapsed real time, machine run time, and storage management statistics.

### Affected By:

The accuracy of the results depends, among other things, on the accuracy of the corresponding functions provided by the underlying operating system.

The magnitude of the results may depend on the hardware, the operating system, the lisp implementation, and the state of the global environment. Some specific issues which frequently affect the outcome are hardware speed, nature of the scheduler (if any), number of competing processes (if any), system paging, whether the call is interpreted or compiled, whether functions called are compiled, the kind of garbage collector involved and whether it runs, whether internal data structures (e.g., hash tables) are implicitly reorganized, etc.

### See Also:

get-internal-real-time, get-internal-run-time

### Notes:

In general, these timings are not guaranteed to be reliable enough for marketing comparisons. Their value is primarily heuristic, for tuning purposes.

For useful background information on the complicated issues involved in interpreting timing results, see *Performance and Evaluation of Lisp Programs*.

# internal-time-units-per-second

 $Constant\ Variable$ 

### Constant Value:

A positive integer, the magnitude of which is implementation-dependent.

### **Description:**

The number of internal time units in one second.

### See Also:

get-internal-run-time, get-internal-real-time

### Notes:

These units form the basis of the Internal Time format representation.

# get-internal-real-time

**Function** 

### Syntax:

get-internal-real-time  $\langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow internal-time$ 

# Arguments and Values:

internal-time—a non-negative integer.

### Description:

**get-internal-real-time** returns as an *integer* the current time in *internal time units*, relative to an arbitrary time base. The difference between the values of two calls to this function is the amount of elapsed real time (*i.e.*, clock time) between the two calls.

### Affected By:

Time of day (i.e., the passage of time). The time base affects the result magnitude.

### See Also:

internal-time-units-per-second

# get-internal-run-time

**Function** 

# Syntax:

get-internal-run-time  $\langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow internal-time$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

internal-time—a non-negative integer.

### **Description:**

Returns as an *integer* the current run time in *internal time units*. The precise meaning of this quantity is *implementation-defined*; it may measure real time, run time, CPU cycles, or some other quantity. The intent is that the difference between the values of two calls to this function be the amount of time between the two calls during which computational effort was expended on behalf of the executing program.

# Affected By:

The *implementation*, the time of day (*i.e.*, the passage of time).

### See Also:

internal-time-units-per-second

### **Notes:**

Depending on the *implementation*, paging time and garbage collection time might be included in this measurement. Also, in a multitasking environment, it might not be possible to show the time for just the running process, so in some *implementations*, time taken by other processes during the same time interval might be included in this measurement as well.

disassemble Function

# Syntax:

disassemble  $fn \rightarrow nil$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

fn—an extended function designator or a lambda expression.

# **Description:**

The function disassemble is a debugging aid that composes symbolic instructions or expressions in some implementation-dependent language which represent the code used to produce the function which is or is named by the argument fn. The result is displayed to  $standard\ output$  in an implementation-dependent format.

If fn is a lambda expression or interpreted function, it is compiled first and the result is disassembled.

If the fn designator is a function name, the function that it names is disassembled. (If that function is an interpreted function, it is first compiled but the result of this implicit compilation is not installed.)

# Examples:

```
 \begin{array}{ll} (\text{defun f (a) (1+ a))} \to \texttt{F} \\ (\text{eq (symbol-function 'f)} \\ (\text{progn (disassemble 'f)} \\ (\text{symbol-function 'f)})) \to \textit{true} \end{array}
```

### Affected By:

\*standard-output\*.

# **Exceptional Situations:**

Should signal an error of type type-error if fn is not an extended function designator or a lambda expression.

# documentation, (setf documentation)

Standard Generic

Function

### Syntax:

# documentation, (setf documentation)

# **Argument Precedence Order:**

doc-type, object

# Method Signatures:

```
Functions, Macros, and Special Forms:
documentation (x function) (doc-type (eql 't))
documentation (x function) (doc-type (eql 'function))
documentation (x list) (doc-type (eql 'function))
documentation (x list) (doc-type (eql 'compiler-macro))
documentation (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'function))
documentation (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'compiler-macro))
documentation (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'setf))
(setf documentation) new-value (x function) (doc-type (eql 't))
(setf documentation) new-value (x function) (doc-type (eql 'function))
(setf documentation) new-value (x list) (doc-type (eql 'function))
(setf documentation) new-value (x list) (doc-type (eql 'compiler-macro))
(setf documentation) new-value (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'function))
(setf documentation) new-value (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'compiler-macro))
(setf documentation) new-value (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'setf))
Method Combinations:
documentation (x method-combination) (doc-type (eql 't))
documentation (x method-combination) (doc-type (eql 'method-combination))
documentation (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'method-combination))
(setf documentation) new-value (x method-combination) (doc-type (eql 't))
(setf documentation) new-value (x method-combination) (doc-type (eql 'method-combination))
(setf documentation) new-value (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'method-combination))
```

Methods:

# documentation, (setf documentation)

```
documentation (x standard-method) (doc-type (eql 't))
          (setf documentation) new-value (x standard-method) (doc-type (eql 't))
          Packages:
          documentation (x package) (doc-type (eql 't))
          (setf documentation) new-value (x package) (doc-type (eql 't))
          Types, Classes, and Structure Names:
          documentation (x standard-class) (doc-type (eql 't))
          documentation (x standard-class) (doc-type (eql 'type))
          documentation (x structure-class) (doc-type (eql 't))
          documentation (x structure-class) (doc-type (eql 'type))
          documentation (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'type))
          documentation (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'structure))
          (setf documentation) new-value (x standard-class) (doc-type (eql 't))
          (setf documentation) new-value (x standard-class) (doc-type (eql 'type))
          (setf documentation) new-value (x structure-class) (doc-type (eql 't))
          (setf documentation) new-value (x structure-class) (doc-type (eql 'type))
          (setf documentation) new-value (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'type))
          (setf documentation) new-value (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'structure))
          Variables:
          documentation (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'variable))
          (setf documentation) new-value (x symbol) (doc-type (eql 'variable))
Arguments and Values:
          x—an object.
          doc-type—a symbol.
          documentation—a string, or nil.
          new-value—a string.
```

# documentation, (setf documentation)

# **Description:**

The generic function documentation returns the documentation string associated with the given object if it is available; otherwise it returns nil.

The generic function (setf documentation) updates the documentation string associated with x to new-value. If x is a list, it must be of the form (setf symbol).

Documentation strings are made available for debugging purposes. Conforming programs are permitted to use documentation strings when they are present, but should not depend for their correct behavior on the presence of those documentation strings. An implementation is permitted to discard documentation strings at any time for implementation-defined reasons.

The nature of the documentation string returned depends on the doc-type, as follows:

### compiler-macro

Returns the documentation string of the compiler macro whose name is the function name x.

#### function

If x is a function name, returns the documentation string of the function, macro, or special operator whose name is x.

If x is a function, returns the documentation string associated with x.

### method-combination

If x is a symbol, returns the  $documentation\ string$  of the  $method\ combination$  whose name is x.

If x is a method combination, returns the documentation string associated with x.

#### setf

Returns the documentation string of the setf expander whose name is the symbol x.

### structure

Returns the documentation string associated with the structure name x.

 $\mathbf{t}$ 

Returns a documentation string specialized on the class of the argument x itself. For example, if x is a function, the documentation string associated with the function x is returned.

#### type

If x is a symbol, returns the documentation string of the class whose name is the symbol x, if there is such a class. Otherwise, it returns the documentation string of the type which is the type specifier symbol x.

If x is a structure class or standard class, returns the documentation string associated with the class x.

### variable

Returns the documentation string of the dynamic variable or constant variable whose name is the symbol x.

A conforming implementation or a conforming program may extend the set of symbols that are acceptable as the doc-type.

### Notes:

This standard prescribes no means to retrieve the *documentation strings* for individual slots specified in a **defclass** form, but *implementations* might still provide debugging tools and/or programming language extensions which manipulate this information. Implementors wishing to provide such support are encouraged to consult the *Metaobject Protocol* for suggestions about how this might be done.

**room** Function

### Syntax:

 $\mathbf{room} \ \& optional \ x \rightarrow implementation-dependent$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

x—one of t, nil, or :default.

# Description:

room prints, to *standard output*, information about the state of internal storage and its management. This might include descriptions of the amount of memory in use and the degree of memory compaction, possibly broken down by internal data type if that is appropriate. The nature and format of the printed information is *implementation-dependent*. The intent is to provide information that a *programmer* might use to tune a *program* for a particular *implementation*.

(room nil) prints out a minimal amount of information. (room t) prints out a maximal amount of information. (room) or (room :default) prints out an intermediate amount of information that is likely to be useful.

### Side Effects:

Output to standard output.

# Affected By:

\*standard-output\*.

**ed** Function

### Syntax:

ed &optional  $x \rightarrow implementation-dependent$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

x—nil, a pathname, a string, or a function name. The default is nil.

### **Description:**

ed invokes the editor if the *implementation* provides a resident editor.

If x is **nil**, the editor is entered. If the editor had been previously entered, its prior state is resumed, if possible.

If x is a pathname or string, it is taken as the pathname designator for a file to be edited.

If x is a function name, the text of its definition is edited. The means by which the function text is obtained is implementation-defined.

# **Exceptional Situations:**

The consequences are undefined if the *implementation* does not provide a resident editor.

Might signal type-error if its argument is supplied but is not a symbol, a pathname, or nil.

If a failure occurs when performing some operation on the *file system* while attempting to edit a *file*, an error of *type* **file-error** is signaled.

An error of type file-error might be signaled if x is a designator for a wild pathname.

Implementation-dependent additional conditions might be signaled as well.

### See Also:

pathname, logical-pathname, compile-file, load, Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

inspect Function

# Syntax:

inspect object  $\rightarrow implementation-dependent$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

object—an object.

# **Description:**

**inspect** is an interactive version of **describe**. The nature of the interaction is *implementation-dependent*, but the purpose of **inspect** is to make it easy to wander through a data structure, examining and modifying parts of it.

### Side Effects:

implementation-dependent.

# Affected By:

 $implementation\hbox{-} dependent.$ 

### **Exceptional Situations:**

implementation-dependent.

### See Also:

describe

### **Notes:**

Implementations are encouraged to respond to the typing of ? or a "help key" by providing help, including a list of commands.

dribble

# Syntax:

dribble &optional pathname  $\rightarrow implementation-dependent$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

pathname—a pathname designator.

# **Description:**

Either binds \*standard-input\* and \*standard-output\* or takes other appropriate action, so as to send a record of the input/output interaction to a file named by pathname. dribble is intended to create a readable record of an interactive session.

If *pathname* is a *logical pathname*, it is translated into a physical pathname as if by calling translate-logical-pathname.

(dribble) terminates the recording of input and output and closes the dribble file.

If **dribble** is *called* while a *stream* to a "dribble file" is still open from a previous *call* to **dribble**, the effect is *implementation-defined*. For example, the already-*open stream* might be *closed*, or dribbling might occur both to the old *stream* and to a new one, or the old *stream* might stay open but not receive any further output, or the new request might be ignored, or some other action might be taken.

### Affected By:

The implementation.

# **Exceptional Situations:**

If a failure occurs when performing some operation on the *file system* while creating the dribble file, an error of *type* **file-error** is signaled.

An error of type file-error might be signaled if pathname is a designator for a wild pathname.

### See Also:

Section 19.1.2 (Pathnames as Filenames)

### Notes:

dribble can return before subsequent *forms* are executed. It also can enter a recursive interaction loop, returning only when (dribble) is done.

dribble is intended primarily for interactive debugging; its effect cannot be relied upon when used in a program.

— Variable

### Value Type:

a form.

### **Initial Value:**

implementation-dependent.

# **Description:**

The value of - is the form that is currently being evaluated by the Lisp read-eval-print loop.

# **Examples:**

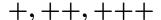
```
(format t "~&Evaluating ~S~%" -) \triangleright Evaluating (FORMAT T "~&Evaluating ~S~%" -) \rightarrow NIL.
```

### Affected By:

Lisp read-eval-print loop.

### See Also:

```
+ (variable), * (variable), / (variable), Section 25.1.1 (Top level loop)
```



Variable

# Value Type:

an object.

### **Initial Value:**

implementation-dependent.

### Description:

The variables +, ++, and +++ are maintained by the  $Lisp\ read-eval-print\ loop$  to save forms that were recently evaluated.

The value of + is the last form that was evaluated, the value of ++ is the previous value of +, and the value of +++ is the previous value of ++.

### **Examples:**

```
 \begin{array}{l} (+\ 0\ 1) \ \rightarrow \ 1 \\ (-\ 4\ 2) \ \rightarrow \ 2 \\ (/\ 9\ 3) \ \rightarrow \ 3 \\ (\ list\ +\ ++\ +++) \ \rightarrow \ ((/\ 9\ 3)\ (-\ 4\ 2)\ (+\ 0\ 1)) \\ (setq\ a\ 1\ b\ 2\ c\ 3\ d\ (\ list\ a\ b\ c)) \ \rightarrow \ (1\ 2\ 3) \\ (setq\ a\ 4\ b\ 5\ c\ 6\ d\ (\ list\ a\ b\ c)) \ \rightarrow \ (4\ 5\ 6) \\ (\ list\ a\ b\ c) \ \rightarrow \ (4\ 5\ 6) \\ (eval\ +++) \ \rightarrow \ (1\ 2\ 3) \\ \#.\ `(\ ,0++\ d) \ \rightarrow \ (1\ 2\ 3\ (1\ 2\ 3)) \\ \end{array}
```

# Affected By:

 $Lisp\ read\text{-}eval\text{-}print\ loop.$ 

### See Also:

```
- (variable), * (variable), / (variable), Section 25.1.1 (Top level loop)
```

```
*, **, ***
```

Variable

# Value Type:

an object.

### **Initial Value:**

implementation-dependent.

# **Description:**

The variables \*, \*\*, and \*\*\* are maintained by the Lisp read-eval-print loop to save the values of results that are printed each time through the loop.

The value of \* is the most recent primary value that was printed, the value of \*\* is the previous value of \*, and the value of \*\*\* is the previous value of \*\*.

If several values are produced, \* contains the first value only; \* contains nil if zero values are produced.

The values of \*, \*\*, and \*\*\* are updated immediately prior to printing the return value of a top-level form by the Lisp read-eval-print loop. If the evaluation of such a form is aborted prior to its normal return, the values of \*, \*\*, and \*\*\* are not updated.

### **Examples:**

```
(values 'a1 'a2) \rightarrow A1, A2
'b \rightarrow B
(values 'c1 'c2 'c3) \rightarrow C1, C2, C3
(list * ** ***) \rightarrow (C1 B A1)

(defun cube-root (x) (expt x 1/3)) \rightarrow CUBE-ROOT (compile *) \rightarrow CUBE-ROOT (setq a (cube-root 27.0)) \rightarrow 3.0
(* * 9.0) \rightarrow 27.0
```

### Affected By:

Lisp read-eval-print loop.

#### See Also:

```
- (variable), + (variable), / (variable), Section 25.1.1 (Top level loop)
```

#### Notes:

```
* \equiv (car /)
** \equiv (car //)
*** \equiv (car ///)
```

/,//,//

### Value Type:

a proper list.

#### **Initial Value:**

implementation-dependent.

### **Description:**

The variables /, //, and /// are maintained by the Lisp read-eval-print loop to save the values of results that were printed at the end of the loop.

The *value* of / is a *list* of the most recent *values* that were printed, the *value* of // is the previous value of /, and the *value* of //.

The values of /, //, and /// are updated immediately prior to printing the return value of a top-level form by the Lisp read-eval-print loop. If the evaluation of such a form is aborted prior to its normal return, the values of /, //, and /// are not updated.

#### **Examples:**

```
(floor 22 7) \rightarrow 3, 1 (+ (* (car /) 7) (cadr /)) \rightarrow 22
```

### Affected By:

Lisp read-eval-print loop.

#### See Also:

```
- (variable), + (variable), * (variable), Section 25.1.1 (Top level loop)
```

Variable

# lisp-implementation-type, lisp-implementationversion Function

#### Syntax:

```
lisp-implementation-type \langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow description
lisp-implementation-version \langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow description
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

description—a string or nil.

# **Description:**

**lisp-implementation-type** and **lisp-implementation-version** identify the current implementation of Common Lisp.

lisp-implementation-type returns a string that identifies the generic name of the particular Common Lisp implementation.

lisp-implementation-version returns a string that identifies the version of the particular Common Lisp implementation.

If no appropriate and relevant result can be produced, nil is returned instead of a string.

## **Examples:**

```
 \begin{array}{l} (\text{lisp-implementation-type}) \\ \rightarrow \text{ "ACME Lisp"} \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \text{ "Joe's Common Lisp"} \\ (\text{lisp-implementation-version}) \\ \rightarrow \text{ "1.3a"} \\ \rightarrow \text{ "V2"} \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \text{ "Release 17.3, ECO #6"} \end{array}
```

# short-site-name, long-site-name

**Function** 

# Syntax:

```
short-site-name \langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow description
long-site-name \langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow description
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

description—a string or nil.

### **Description:**

**short-site-name** and **long-site-name** return a *string* that identifies the physical location of the computer hardware, or **nil** if no appropriate *description* can be produced.

# Examples:

```
\begin{array}{l} \text{(short-site-name)} \\ \rightarrow \text{ "MIT AI Lab"} \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \text{ "CMU-CSD"} \\ \text{(long-site-name)} \\ \rightarrow \text{ "MIT Artificial Intelligence Laboratory"} \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \text{ "CMU Computer Science Department"} \end{array}
```

### Affected By:

The implementation, the location of the computer hardware, and the installation/configuration process.

# machine-instance

Function

### **Syntax:**

machine-instance  $\langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow description$ 

# **Arguments and Values:**

description—a string or nil.

#### **Description:**

Returns a *string* that identifies the particular instance of the computer hardware on which Common Lisp is running, or **nil** if no such *string* can be computed.

#### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{c} \text{(machine-instance)} \\ \rightarrow \text{ "ACME.COM"} \\ \xrightarrow{or} \text{ "S/N 123231"} \\ \xrightarrow{or} \text{ "18.26.0.179"} \\ \xrightarrow{or} \text{ "AA-00-04-00-A7-A4"} \end{array}
```

#### Affected By:

The machine instance, and the implementation.

#### See Also:

machine-type, machine-version

# machine-type

*Function* 

# Syntax:

machine-type  $\langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow description$ 

### **Arguments and Values:**

description—a string or nil.

#### **Description:**

Returns a string that identifies the generic name of the computer hardware on which Common Lisp is running.

### **Examples:**

```
\begin{array}{c} \text{(machine-type)} \\ \rightarrow \text{ "DEC PDP-10"} \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \text{ "Symbolics LM-2"} \end{array}
```

#### Affected By:

The machine type. The implementation.

#### See Also:

machine-version

# machine-version

Function

#### **Syntax:**

machine-version  $\langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow description$ 

#### **Arguments and Values:**

description—a string or nil.

#### **Description:**

Returns a *string* that identifies the version of the computer hardware on which Common Lisp is running, or **nil** if no such value can be computed.

### **Examples:**

```
(machine-version) 
ightarrow "KL-10, microcode 9"
```

## Affected By:

The machine version, and the *implementation*.

#### See Also:

machine-type, machine-instance

# software-type, software-version

Function

#### **Syntax:**

```
software-type \langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow description
software-version \langle no \ arguments \rangle \rightarrow description
```

### **Arguments and Values:**

description—a string or nil.

# **Description:**

software-type returns a *string* that identifies the generic name of any relevant supporting software, or **nil** if no appropriate or relevant result can be produced.

**software-version** returns a *string* that identifies the version of any relevant supporting software, or **nil** if no appropriate or relevant result can be produced.

#### **Examples:**

```
(software-type) \rightarrow "Multics" (software-version) \rightarrow "1.3x"
```

#### Affected By:

Operating system environment.

# Notes:

This information should be of use to maintainers of the *implementation*.

# user-homedir-pathname

# user-homedir-pathname

*Function* 

#### Syntax:

user-homedir-pathname &optional host 
ightarrow pathname

### **Arguments and Values:**

 $\textit{host}\text{---}a\ \textit{string},\ a\ \textit{list}\ of\ \textit{strings},\ or\ \texttt{:unspecific}.$ 

pathname—a pathname, or nil.

### **Description:**

user-homedir-pathname determines the *pathname* that corresponds to the user's home directory on *host*. If *host* is not supplied, its value is *implementation-dependent*. For a description of :unspecific, see Section 19.2.1 (Pathname Components).

The definition of home directory is *implementation-dependent*, but defined in Common Lisp to mean the directory where the user keeps personal files such as initialization files and mail.

**user-homedir-pathname** returns a *pathname* without any name, type, or version component (those components are all **nil**) for the user's home directory on *host*.

If it is impossible to determine the user's home directory on *host*, then **nil** is returned. **user-homedir-pathname** never returns **nil** if *host* is not supplied.

#### **Examples:**

(pathnamep (user-homedir-pathname))  $\rightarrow true$ 

### Affected By:

The host computer's file system, and the *implementation*.

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

26. Glossary

# 26.1 Glossary

Each entry in this glossary has the following parts:

- the term being defined, set in boldface.
- optional pronunciation, enclosed in square brackets and set in boldface, as in the following example: [ 'a<sub>1</sub>list]. The pronunciation key follows Webster's Third New International Dictionary the English Language, Unabridged, except that "ϵ" is used to notate the schwa (upside-down "e") character.
- the part or parts of speech, set in italics. If a term can be used as several parts of speech, there is a separate definition for each part of speech.
- one or more definitions, organized as follows:
  - an optional number, present if there are several definitions. Lowercase letters might also be used in cases where subdefinitions of a numbered definition are necessary.
  - an optional part of speech, set in italics, present if the term is one of several parts of speech.
  - an optional discipline, set in italics, present if the term has a standard definition being repeated. For example, "Math."
  - an optional context, present if this definition is meaningful only in that context. For example, "(of a *symbol*)".
  - the definition.
  - an optional example sentence. For example, "This is an example of an example."
  - optional cross references.

In addition, some terms have idiomatic usage in the Common Lisp community which is not shared by other communities, or which is not technically correct. Definitions labeled "*Idiom*." represent such idiomatic usage; these definitions are sometimes followed by an explanatory note.

Words in *this font* are words with entries in the glossary. Words in example sentences do not follow this convention.

When an ambiguity arises, the longest matching substring has precedence. For example, "complex float" refers to a single glossary entry for "complex float" rather than the combined meaning of the glossary terms "complex" and "float."

Subscript notation, as in "something" means that the nth definition of "something" is intended. This notation is used only in situations where the context might be insufficient to disambiguate.

The following are abbreviations used in the glossary:

Abbreviation	Meaning
adj.	adjective
adv.	adverb
ANSI	compatible with one or more ANSI standards
Comp.	computers
Idiom.	idiomatic
IEEE	compatible with one or more IEEE standards
ISO	compatible with one or more ISO standards
Math.	mathematics
Trad.	traditional
n.	noun
v.	verb
v.t.	transitive verb

#### Non-alphabetic

() [  $^{1}$  nil], n. an alternative notation for writing the symbol nil, used to emphasize the use of nil as an empty list.

#### $\mathbf{A}$

absolute adj. 1. (of a time) representing a specific point in time. 2. (of a pathname) representing a specific position in a directory hierarchy. See relative.

access n., v.t. 1. v.t. (a place, or array) to  $read_1$  or  $write_1$  the value of the place or an element of the array. 2. n. (of a place) an attempt to access, the value of the place.

accessibility n. the state of being accessible.

accessible adj. 1. (of an object) capable of being referenced. 2. (of shared slots or local slots in an instance of a class) having been defined by the class of the instance or inherited from a superclass of that class. 3. (of a symbol in a package) capable of being referenced without a package prefix when that package is current, regardless of whether the *symbol* is *present* in that *package* or is *inherited*.

**accessor** n. an operator that performs an access. See reader and writer.

active adj. 1. (of a handler, a restart, or a catch tag) having been established but not yet disestablished. 2. (of an element of an array) having an index that is greater than or equal to zero, but less than the fill pointer (if any). For an array that has no fill pointer, all elements are considered active.

**actual adjustability** *n.* (of an array) a generalized boolean that is associated with the array, representing whether the array is actually adjustable. See also expressed adjustability and adjustable-array-p.

actual argument n. Trad. an argument.

**actual array element type** n. (of an array) the type for which the array is actually specialized, which is the upgraded array element type of the expressed array element type of the array. See the function array-element-type.

actual complex part type n. (of a complex) the type in which the real and imaginary parts of the complex are actually represented, which is the upgraded complex part type of the expressed complex part type of the complex.

actual parameter n. Trad. an argument.

actually adjustable adj. (of an array) such that adjust-array can adjust its characteristics by direct modification. A conforming program may depend on an array being actually adjustable only if either that array is known to have been expressly adjustable or if that array has been explicitly tested by adjustable-array-p.

adjustability n. (of an array) 1. expressed adjustability. 2. actual adjustability.

adjustable adj. (of an array) 1. expressly adjustable. 2. actually adjustable.

after method n. a method having the qualifier :after.

alist  $[ \frac{1}{a_1} list ]$ , n. an association list.

alphabetic n., adj. 1. adj. (of a character) being one of the standard characters A through Z or a through z, or being any implementation-defined character that has case, or being some other graphic character defined by the implementation to be alphabetic<sub>1</sub>. 2. a. n. one of several possible constituent traits of a character. For details, see Section 2.1.4.1 (Constituent Characters) and Section 2.2 (Reader Algorithm). b. adj. (of a character) being a character that has syntax type constituent in the current readtable and that has the constituent trait alphabetic<sub>2a</sub>. See Figure 2–8.

**alphanumeric** adj. (of a character) being either an  $alphabetic_1$  character or a numeric character.

ampersand n. the standard character that is called "ampersand" (&). See Figure 2-5.

anonymous adj. 1. (of a class or function) having no name 2. (of a restart) having a name of nil.

apparently uninterned adj. having a home package of nil. (An apparently uninterned symbol might or might not be an uninterned symbol. Uninterned symbols have a home package of nil, but symbols which have been uninterned from their home package also have a home package of nil, even though they might still be interned in some other package.)

**applicable** adj. 1. (of a handler) being an applicable handler. 2. (of a method) being an applicable method. 3. (of a restart) being an applicable restart.

applicable handler n. (for a condition being signaled) an active handler for which the associated type contains the *condition*.

applicable method n. (of a generic function called with arguments) a method of the generic function for which the arguments satisfy the parameter specializers of that method. See Section 7.6.6.1.1 (Selecting the Applicable Methods).

applicable restart n. 1. (for a condition) an active handler for which the associated test returns true when given the condition as an argument. 2. (for no particular condition) an active handler for which the associated test returns true when given nil as an argument.

apply v.t. (a function to a list) to call the function with arguments that are the elements of the list. "Applying the function + to a list of integers returns the sum of the elements of that list.'

**argument** n. 1. (of a function) an object which is offered as data to the function when it is called. 2. (of a format control) a format argument.

argument evaluation order n. the order in which arguments are evaluated in a function call. "The argument evaluation order for Common Lisp is left to right." See Section 3.1 (Evaluation).

argument precedence order n. the order in which the arguments to a generic function are considered when sorting the applicable methods into precedence order.

around method n. a method having the qualifier : around.

**array** n. an object of type **array**, which serves as a container for other objects arranged in a Cartesian coordinate system.

**array element type** n. (of an array) 1. a type associated with the array, and of which all elements of the array are constrained to be members. 2. the actual array element type of the array. 3. the expressed array element type of the array.

**array total size** *n*. the total number of *elements* in an *array*, computed by taking the product of the *dimensions* of the *array*. (The size of a zero-dimensional *array* is therefore one.)

assign v.t. (a variable) to change the value of the variable in a binding that has already been established. See the special operator setq.

association list n. a list of conses representing an association of keys with values, where the car of each cons is the key and the cdr is the value associated with that key.

**asterisk** n. the *standard character* that is variously called "asterisk" or "star" (\*). See Figure 2–5.

**at-sign** *n*. the *standard character* that is variously called "commercial at" or "at sign" (a). See Figure 2–5.

**atom** *n*. any *object* that is not a *cons*. "A vector is an atom."

atomic adj. being an atom. "The number 3, the symbol foo, and nil are atomic."

atomic type specifier n. a type specifier that is atomic. For every atomic type specifier, x, there is an equivalent compound type specifier with no arguments supplied, (x).

attribute n. (of a character) a program-visible aspect of the character. The only standardized attribute of a character is its code<sub>2</sub>, but implementations are permitted to have additional implementation-defined attributes. See Section 13.1.3 (Character Attributes). "An implementation that support fonts might make font information an attribute of a character, while others might represent font information separately from characters."

**aux variable** n. a variable that occurs in the part of a lambda list that was introduced by &aux. Unlike all other variables introduced by a lambda-list, aux variables are not parameters.

auxiliary method n. a member of one of two sets of methods (the set of primary methods is the other) that form an exhaustive partition of the set of methods on the method's generic function. How these sets are determined is dependent on the method combination type; see Section 7.6.2 (Introduction to Methods).

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backquote n. the standard character that is variously called "grave accent" or "backquote" ('). See Figure 2–5.

backslash n. the standard character that is variously called "reverse solidus" or "backslash" ( $\backslash$ ). See Figure 2–5.

base character n. a character of type base-char.

base string n. a string of type base-string.

**before method** n. a method having the qualifier :before.

bidirectional adj. (of a stream) being both an input stream and an output stream.

**binary** adj. 1. (of a stream) being a stream that has an element type that is a subtype of type integer. The most fundamental operation on a binary input stream is read-byte and on a binary output stream is write-byte. See character. 2. (of a file) having been created by opening a binary stream. (It is implementation-dependent whether this is an detectable aspect of the file, or whether any given character file can be treated as a binary file.)

**bind** v.t. (a variable) to establish a binding for the variable.

binding n. an association between a name and that which the name denotes. "A lexical binding is a lexical association between a name and its value." When the term binding is qualified by the name of a namespace, such as "variable" or "function," it restricts the binding to the indicated namespace, as in: "let establishes variable bindings." or "let establishes bindings of variables.'

**bit** n. an object of type **bit**; that is, the integer 0 or the integer 1.

bit array n. a specialized array that is of type (array bit), and whose elements are of type bit.

bit vector n. a specialized vector that is of type bit-vector, and whose elements are of type bit.

bit-wise logical operation specifier n. an object which names one of the sixteen possible bit-wise logical operations that can be performed by the boole function, and which is the value of exactly one of the constant variables boole-clr, boole-set, boole-1, boole-2, boole-c1, boole-c2, boole-and, boole-ior, boole-xor, boole-eqv, boole-nand, boole-nor, boole-andc1, boole-andc2, boole-orc1, or boole-orc2.

**block** n. a named lexical *exit point*, *established* explicitly by **block** or implicitly by *operators* such as **loop**, **do** and **prog**, to which control and values may be transferred by using a **return-from** form with the name of the *block*.

**block tag** *n.* the *symbol* that, within the *lexical scope* of a **block** *form*, names the *block established* by that **block** *form*. See **return** or **return-from**.

**boa lambda list** *n.* a *lambda list* that is syntactically like an *ordinary lambda list*, but that is processed in "by order of argument" style. See Section 3.4.6 (Boa Lambda Lists).

**body parameter** n. a parameter available in certain lambda lists which from the point of view of conforming programs is like a rest parameter in every way except that it is introduced by &body instead of &rest. (Implementations are permitted to provide extensions which distinguish body parameters and rest parameters—e.g., the forms for operators which were defined using a body parameter might be pretty printed slightly differently than forms for operators which were defined using rest parameters.)

**boolean** n. an object of type **boolean**; that is, one of the following objects: the symbol  $\mathbf{t}$  (representing true), or the symbol  $\mathbf{nil}$  (representing false). See generalized boolean.

**boolean equivalent** n. (of an object  $O_1$ ) any object  $O_2$  that has the same truth value as  $O_1$  when both  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  are viewed as generalized booleans.

**bound** adj., v.t. 1. adj. having an associated denotation in a binding. "The variables named by a **let** are bound within its body." See unbound. 2. adj. having a local binding which  $shadows_2$  another. "The variable \*print-escape\* is bound while in the princ function." 3. v.t. the past tense of bind.

bound declaration n. a declaration that refers to or is associated with a variable or function and that appears within the special form that establishes the variable or function, but before the body of that special form (specifically, at the head of that form's body). (If a bound declaration refers to a function binding or a lexical variable binding, the scope of the declaration is exactly the scope of that binding. If the declaration refers to a dynamic variable binding, the scope of the declaration is what the scope of the binding would have been if it were lexical rather than dynamic.)

**bounded** adj. (of a sequence S, by an ordered pair of bounding indices  $i_{start}$  and  $i_{end}$ ) restricted to a subrange of the elements of S that includes each element beginning with (and including) the one indexed by  $i_{start}$  and continuing up to (but not including) the one indexed by  $i_{end}$ .

**bounding index** n. (of a sequence with length n) either of a conceptual pair of integers,  $i_{start}$  and  $i_{end}$ , respectively called the "lower bounding index" and "upper

bounding index", such that  $0 \le i_{start} \le i_{end} \le n$ , and which therefore delimit a subrange of the sequence bounded by  $i_{start}$  and  $i_{end}$ .

**bounding index designator** (for a *sequence*) one of two *objects* that, taken together as an ordered pair, behave as a *designator* for *bounding indices* of the *sequence*; that is, they denote *bounding indices* of the *sequence*, and are either: an *integer* (denoting itself) and **nil** (denoting the *length* of the *sequence*), or two *integers* (each denoting themselves).

**break loop** n. A variant of the normal Lisp read-eval-print loop that is recursively entered, usually because the ongoing evaluation of some other form has been suspended for the purpose of debugging. Often, a break loop provides the ability to exit in such a way as to continue the suspended computation. See the function **break**.

broadcast stream n. an output stream of type broadcast-stream.

built-in class n. a class that is a generalized instance of class built-in-class.

**built-in type** *n.* one of the *types* in Figure 4–2.

byte n. 1. adjacent bits within an *integer*. (The specific number of bits can vary from point to point in the program; see the *function* byte.) 2. an integer in a specified range. (The specific range can vary from point to point in the program; see the *functions* open and write-byte.)

**byte specifier** n. An object of implementation-dependent nature that is returned by the function **byte** and that specifies the range of bits in an integer to be used as a byte by functions such as ldb.

 $\mathbf{C}$ 

 $\operatorname{cadr} [ {}^{\mathsf{I}} \operatorname{ka}_{\mathsf{I}} \operatorname{d} \epsilon \mathbf{r} ], n. \text{ (of an object) the } \operatorname{car} \text{ of the } \operatorname{cdr} \text{ of that object.}$ 

**call** v.t., n. 1. v.t. (a function with arguments) to cause the code represented by that function to be executed in an environment where bindings for the values of its parameters have been established based on the arguments. "Calling the function + with the arguments 5 and 1 yields a value of 6." 2. n. a situation in which a function is called.

**captured initialization form** n. an initialization form along with the lexical environment in which the form that defined the initialization form was evaluated. "Each newly added shared slot is set to the result of evaluating the captured initialization form for the slot that was specified in the **defclass** form for the new class."

car n. 1. a. (of a cons) the component of a cons corresponding to the first argument to cons; the other component is the cdr. "The function rplaca modifies the car of a cons." b. (of a list) the first element of the list, or nil if the list is the empty list. 2. the object that is held in the  $car_1$ . "The function car returns the car of a cons."

case n. (of a character) the property of being either uppercase or lowercase. Not all characters have case. "The characters #\A and #\a have case, but the character #\\$ has no case." See Section 13.1.4.3 (Characters With Case) and the function both-case-p.

case sensitivity mode n. one of the symbols :upcase, :downcase, :preserve, or :invert.

**catch** *n*. an *exit point* which is *established* by a **catch** *form* within the *dynamic scope* of its body, which is named by a *catch tag*, and to which control and *values* may be *thrown*.

**catch tag** n. an *object* which names an *active catch*. (If more than one *catch* is active with the same *catch tag*, it is only possible to *throw* to the innermost such *catch* because the outer one is  $shadowed_2$ .)

 $\mathbf{cddr} \left[ {}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{k} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{d} \epsilon_{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{d} \epsilon_{\mathsf{T}} \right]$  or  $\left[ {}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{k} \epsilon_{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{d} \underline{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{d} \epsilon_{\mathsf{T}} \right]$ , n. (of an object) the cdr of the cdr of that object.

 $\mathbf{cdr}$  [  ${}^{\mathbf{k}}\mathbf{u}_{1}\mathbf{d}\epsilon\mathbf{r}$ ], n. 1. a. (of a cons) the component of a cons corresponding to the second argument to  $\mathbf{cons}$ ; the other component is the car. "The function  $\mathbf{rplacd}$  modifies the cdr of a cons." b. (of a list  $L_{1}$ ) either the list  $L_{2}$  that contains the elements of  $L_{1}$  that follow after the first, or else  $\mathbf{nil}$  if  $L_{1}$  is the empty list. 2. the object that is held in the  $\mathbf{cdr}_{1}$ . "The function  $\mathbf{cdr}$  returns the cdr of a cons."

**cell** n. Trad. (of an object) a conceptual slot of that object. The dynamic variable and global function bindings of a symbol are sometimes referred to as its value cell and function cell, respectively.

**character** n., adj. 1. n. an object of type **character**; that is, an object that represents a unitary token in an aggregate quantity of text; see Section 13.1 (Character Concepts). 2. adj. a. (of a stream) having an element type that is a subtype of type **character**. The most fundamental operation on a character input stream is **read-char** and on a character output stream is **write-char**. See binary. b. (of a file) having been created by opening a character stream. (It is implementation-dependent whether this is an inspectable aspect of the file, or whether any given binary file can be treated as a character file.)

**character code** n. 1. one of possibly several *attributes* of a *character*. 2. a non-negative *integer* less than the *value* of **char-code-limit** that is suitable for use as a *character code*<sub>1</sub>.

character designator n. a designator for a character; that is, an object that denotes a character and that is one of: a designator for a string of length one (denoting the character that is its only element), or a character (denoting itself).

circular adj. 1. (of a list) a circular list. 2. (of an arbitrary object) having a component, element, constituent<sub>2</sub>, or subexpression (as appropriate to the context) that is the *object* itself.

circular list n. a chain of conses that has no termination because some cons in the chain is the cdr of a later cons.

class n. 1. an object that uniquely determines the structure and behavior of a set of other objects called its direct instances, that contributes structure and behavior to a set of other *objects* called its *indirect instances*, and that acts as a type specifier for a set of objects called its *qeneralized instances*. "The class integer is a subclass of the class number." (Note that the phrase "the class foo" is often substituted for the more precise phrase "the class named foo"—in both cases, a class object (not a symbol) is denoted.) 2. (of an object) the uniquely determined class of which the object is a direct instance. See the function class-of. "The class of the object returned by gensym is symbol." (Note that with this usage a phrase such as "its class is foo" is often substituted for the more precise phrase "its class is the class named foo"—in both cases, a *class object* (not a *symbol*) is denoted.)

**class designator** n. a designator for a class; that is, an object that denotes a class and that is one of: a symbol (denoting the class named by that symbol; see the function find-class) or a *class* (denoting itself).

class precedence list n. a unique total ordering on a class and its superclasses that is consistent with the local precedence orders for the class and its superclasses. For detailed information, see Section 4.3.5 (Determining the Class Precedence List).

**close** v.t. (a stream) to terminate usage of the stream as a source or sink of data, permitting the *implementation* to reclaim its internal data structures, and to free any external resources which might have been locked by the *stream* when it was opened.

**closed** adj. (of a stream) having been closed (see close). Some (but not all) operations that are valid on open streams are not valid on closed streams. See Section 21.1.1.1.2 (Open and Closed Streams).

**closure** n. a lexical closure.

coalesce v.t. (literal objects that are similar) to consolidate the identity of those objects, such that they become the same object. See Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology).

**code** n. 1. Trad. any representation of actions to be performed, whether conceptual or as an actual object, such as forms, lambda expressions, objects of type function, text in a source file, or instruction sequences in a compiled file. This is a generic term; the specific nature of the representation depends on its context. 2. (of a character) a character code.

**coerce** v.t. (an object to a type) to produce an object from the given object, without modifying that object, by following some set of coercion rules that must be specifically stated for any context in which this term is used. The resulting object is necessarily of the indicated type, except when that type is a subtype of type **complex**; in that case, if a complex rational with an imaginary part of zero would result, the result is a rational rather than a complex—see Section 12.1.5.3 (Rule of Canonical Representation for Complex Rationals).

**colon** *n*. the *standard character* that is called "colon" (:). See Figure 2–5.

**comma** *n.* the *standard character* that is called "comma" (,). See Figure 2–5.

**compilation** n. the process of *compiling code* by the *compiler*.

**compilation environment** n. 1. An environment that represents information known by the compiler about a form that is being compiled. See Section 3.2.1 (Compiler Terminology). 2. An object that represents the compilation environment<sub>1</sub> and that is used as a second argument to a macro function (which supplies a value for any &environment parameter in the macro function's definition).

**compilation unit** n. an interval during which a single unit of compilation is occurring. See the macro with-compilation-unit.

compile v.t. 1. (code) to perform semantic preprocessing of the code, usually optimizing one or more qualities of the code, such as run-time speed of execution or run-time storage usage. The minimum semantic requirements of compilation are that it must remove all macro calls and arrange for all load time values to be resolved prior to run time. 2. (a function) to produce a new object of type compiled-function which represents the result of compiling the code represented by the function. See the function compile. 3. (a source file) to produce a compiled file from a source file. See the function compile-file.

**compile time** n. the duration of time that the *compiler* is processing *source code*.

**compile-time definition** n. a definition in the *compilation environment*.

**compiled code** *n.* 1. compiled functions. 2. code that represents compiled functions, such as the contents of a compiled file.

compiled file n. a file which represents the results of compiling the forms which appeared in a corresponding source file, and which can be loaded. See the function compile-file.

**compiled function** *n.* an *object* of *type* **compiled-function**, which is a *function* that has been compiled, which contains no references to macros that must be expanded at run time, and which contains no unresolved references to load time values.

compiler n. a facility that is part of Lisp and that translates code into an implementation-dependent form that might be represented or executed efficiently. The functions **compile** and **compile-file** permit programs to invoke the *compiler*.

**compiler macro** n. an auxiliary macro definition for a globally defined function or macro which might or might not be called by any given conforming implementation and which must preserve the semantics of the globally defined function or macro but which might perform some additional optimizations. (Unlike a macro, a compiler macro does not extend the syntax of Common Lisp; rather, it provides an alternate implementation strategy for some existing syntax or functionality.)

compiler macro expansion n. 1. the process of translating a form into another form by a compiler macro. 2. the form resulting from this process.

**compiler macro form** n. a function form or macro form whose operator has a definition as a compiler macro, or a funcal form whose first argument is a function form whose argument is the name of a function that has a definition as a compiler macro.

**compiler macro function** n. a function of two arguments, a form and an environment, that implements compiler macro expansion by producing either a form to be used in place of the original argument form or else nil, indicating that the original form should not be replaced. See Section 3.2.2.1 (Compiler Macros).

**complex** n. an object of type complex.

**complex float** n. an object of type **complex** which has a complex part type that is a subtype of float. A complex float is a complex, but it is not a float.

complex part type n. (of a complex) 1. the type which is used to represent both the real part and the imaginary part of the complex. 2. the actual complex part type of the complex. 3. the expressed complex part type of the complex.

**complex rational** n. an object of type **complex** which has a complex part type that is a subtype of rational. A complex rational is a complex, but it is not a rational. No complex rational has an imaginary part of zero because such a number is always represented by Common Lisp as an object of type rational; see Section 12.1.5.3 (Rule of Canonical Representation for Complex Rationals).

**complex single float** n. an object of type **complex** which has a complex part type that is a subtype of **single-float**. A complex single float is a complex, but it is not a single float.

**composite stream** *n.* a *stream* that is composed of one or more other *streams*. "**make-synonym-stream** creates a composite stream."

**compound form** *n.* a non-empty list which is a form: a special form, a lambda form, a macro form, or a function form.

**compound type specifier** n. a type specifier that is a cons; i.e., a type specifier that is not an atomic type specifier. "(vector single-float) is a compound type specifier."

concatenated stream n. an input stream of type concatenated-stream.

**condition** n. 1. an *object* which represents a *situation*—usually, but not necessarily, during *signaling*. 2. an *object* of *type* **condition**.

**condition designator** *n.* one or more *objects* that, taken together, denote either an existing *condition object* or a *condition object* to be implicitly created. For details, see Section 9.1.2.1 (Condition Designators).

**condition handler** *n.* a function that might be invoked by the act of signaling, that receives the condition being signaled as its only argument, and that is permitted to handle the condition or to decline. See Section 9.1.4.1 (Signaling).

**condition reporter** *n.* a function that describes how a condition is to be printed when the Lisp printer is invoked while \*print-escape\* is false. See Section 9.1.3 (Printing Conditions).

**conditional newline** *n.* a point in output where a *newline* might be inserted at the discretion of the *pretty printer*. There are four kinds of *conditional newlines*, called "linear-style," "fill-style," "miser-style," and "mandatory-style." See the *function* **pprint-newline** and Section 22.2.1.1 (Dynamic Control of the Arrangement of Output).

**conformance** n. a state achieved by proper and complete adherence to the requirements of this specification. See Section 1.5 (Conformance).

**conforming code** *n. code* that is all of part of a *conforming program*.

**conforming implementation** *n.* an *implementation*, used to emphasize complete and correct adherance to all conformance criteria. A *conforming implementation* is capable of accepting a *conforming program* as input, preparing that *program* for *execution*, and executing the prepared *program* in accordance with this specification. An *implementation* which has been extended may still be a *conforming implementation* 

provided that no extension interferes with the correct function of any *conforming* program.

**conforming processor** n. ANSI a conforming implementation.

**conforming program** n. a program, used to emphasize the fact that the program depends for its correctness only upon documented aspects of Common Lisp, and can therefore be expected to run correctly in any conforming implementation.

**congruent** n. conforming to the rules of lambda list congruency, as detailed in Section 7.6.4 (Congruent Lambda-lists for all Methods of a Generic Function).

**cons** *n.v.* 1. *n.* a compound data *object* having two components called the *car* and the *cdr*. 2. *v.* to create such an *object*. 3. *v. Idiom.* to create any *object*, or to allocate storage.

**constant** n. 1. a constant form. 2. a constant variable. 3. a constant object. 4. a self-evaluating object.

**constant form** n. any form for which evaluation always yields the same value, that neither affects nor is affected by the environment in which it is evaluated (except that it is permitted to refer to the names of constant variables defined in the environment), and that neither affects nor is affected by the state of any object except those objects that are otherwise inaccessible parts of objects created by the form itself. "A car form in which the argument is a quote form is a constant form."

**constant object** n. an object that is constrained (e.g., by its context in a program or by the source from which it was obtained) to be immutable. "A literal object that has been processed by **compile-file** is a constant object."

**constant variable** n. a variable, the value of which can never change; that is, a  $keyword_1$  or a  $named\ constant$ . "The symbols  $\mathbf{t}$ ,  $\mathbf{nil}$ , :direction, and  $\mathbf{most\text{-}positive\text{-}fixnum}$  are constant variables."

**constituent** n., adj. 1. a. n. the  $syntax\ type$  of a character that is part of a token. For details, see Section 2.1.4.1 (Constituent Characters). b. adj. (of a character) having the  $constituent_{1a}\ syntax\ type_2$ . c. n. a  $constituent_{1b}\ character$ . 2. n. (of a  $composite\ stream$ ) one of possibly several objects that collectively comprise the source or sink of that stream.

**constituent trait** n. (of a character) one of several classifications of a constituent character in a readtable. See Section 2.1.4.1 (Constituent Characters).

**constructed stream** n. a stream whose source or sink is a Lisp object. Note that since a stream is another Lisp object, composite streams are considered constructed streams. "A string stream is a constructed stream."

**contagion** n. a process whereby operations on *objects* of differing types (e.g., arithmetic on mixed types of numbers) produce a result whose type is controlled by the dominance of one argument's type over the types of the other arguments. See Section 12.1.1.2 (Contagion in Numeric Operations).

**continuable** n. (of an error) an error that is correctable by the continue restart.

**control form** n. 1. a form that establishes one or more places to which control can be transferred. 2. a form that transfers control.

copy n. 1. (of a cons C) a fresh cons with the same car and cdr as C. 2. (of a list L) a fresh list with the same elements as L. (Only the list structure is fresh; the elements are the same.) See the function copy-list. 3. (of an association list A with elements  $A_i$ ) a fresh list B with elements  $B_i$ , each of which is nil if  $A_i$  is nil, or else a copy of the cons  $A_i$ . See the function copy-alist. 4. (of a tree T) a fresh tree with the same leaves as T. See the function copy-tree. 5. (of a random state R) a fresh random state that, if used as an argument to to the function random would produce the same series of "random" values as R would produce. 6. (of a structure S) a fresh structure that has the same type as S, and that has slot values, each of which is the same as the corresponding slot value of S. (Note that since the difference between a cons, a list, and a tree is a matter of "view" or "intention," there can be no general-purpose function which, based solely on the type of an object, can determine which of these distinct meanings is intended. The distinction rests solely on the basis of the text description within this document. For example, phrases like "a copy of the given list" or "copy of the list x" imply the second definition.)

correctable adj. (of an error) 1. (by a restart other than abort that has been associated with the error) capable of being corrected by invoking that restart. "The function cerror signals an error that is correctable by the continue restart." (Note that correctability is not a property of an error object, but rather a property of the dynamic environment that is in effect when the error is signaled. Specifically, the restart is "associated with" the error condition object. See Section 9.1.4.2.4 (Associating a Restart with a Condition).) 2. (when no specific restart is mentioned) correctable 1 by at least one restart. "import signals a correctable error of type package-error if any of the imported symbols has the same name as some distinct symbol already accessible in the package."

**current input base** n. (in a dynamic environment) the radix that is the value of \*read-base\* in that environment, and that is the default radix employed by the Lisp reader and its related functions.

current logical block n, the context of the innermost lexically enclosing use of pprint-logical-block.

**current output base** n. (in a dynamic environment) the radix that is the value of

\*print-base\* in that environment, and that is the default radix employed by the Lisp printer and its related functions.

**current package** n. (in a dynamic environment) the package that is the value of **\*package\*** in that environment, and that is the default package employed by the Lisp reader and Lisp printer, and their related functions.

**current pprint dispatch table** n. (in a dynamic environment) the pprint dispatch table that is the value of \*print-pprint-dispatch\* in that environment, and that is the default pprint dispatch table employed by the pretty printer.

**current random state** n. (in a dynamic environment) the random state that is the value of \*random-state\* in that environment, and that is the default random state employed by random.

**current readtable** n. (in a dynamic environment) the readtable that is the value of \*readtable\* in that environment, and that affects the way in which expressions<sub>2</sub> are parsed into objects by the Lisp reader.

D

data type n. Trad. a type.

**debug I/O** n. the bidirectional stream that is the value of the variable \*debug-io\*.

**debugger** n. a facility that allows the user to handle a condition interactively. For example, the debugger might permit interactive selection of a restart from among the active restarts, and it might perform additional implementation-defined services for the purposes of debugging.

**declaration** n. a global declaration or local declaration.

declaration identifier n. one of the symbols declaration, dynamic-extent, ftype, function, ignore, inline, notinline, optimize, special, or type; or a symbol which is the name of a type; or a symbol which has been declared to be a declaration identifier by using a declaration declaration.

**declaration specifier** *n*. an *expression* that can appear at top level of a **declare** expression or a **declaim** form, or as the argument to **proclaim**, and which has a *car* which is a *declaration identifier*, and which has a *cdr* that is data interpreted according to rules specific to the *declaration identifier*.

declare v. to establish a declaration. See declare, declaim, or proclaim.

**decline** v. (of a handler) to return normally without having handled the condition being signaled, permitting the signaling process to continue as if the handler had not been present.

**decoded time** *n. absolute time*, represented as an ordered series of nine *objects* which, taken together, form a description of a point in calendar time, accurate to the nearest second (except that *leap seconds* are ignored). See Section 25.1.4.1 (Decoded Time).

**default method** n. a method having no parameter specializers other than the class t. Such a method is always an applicable method but might be shadowed<sub>2</sub> by a more specific method.

**defaulted initialization argument list** *n.* a *list* of alternating initialization argument *names* and *values* in which unsupplied initialization arguments are defaulted, used in the protocol for initializing and reinitializing *instances* of *classes*.

**define-method-combination arguments lambda list** *n.* a *lambda list* used by the :arguments option to **define-method-combination**. See Section 3.4.10 (Define-method-combination Arguments Lambda Lists).

define-modify-macro lambda list n. a lambda list used by define-modify-macro. See Section 3.4.9 (Define-modify-macro Lambda Lists).

**defined name** n. a symbol the meaning of which is defined by Common Lisp.

**defining form** *n.* a *form* that has the side-effect of *establishing* a definition. "**defun** and **defparameter** are defining forms."

**defsetf lambda list** n. a lambda list that is like an ordinary lambda list except that it does not permit &aux and that it permits use of &environment. See Section 3.4.7 (Defsetf Lambda Lists).

**deftype lambda list** n. a lambda list that is like a macro lambda list except that the default value for unsupplied optional parameters and keyword parameters is the symbol \* (rather than nil). See Section 3.4.8 (Deftype Lambda Lists).

denormalized adj., ANSI, IEEE (of a float) conforming to the description of "denormalized" as described by IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point Arithmetic. For example, in an implementation where the minimum possible exponent was -7 but where 0.001 was a valid mantissa, the number 1.0e-10 might be representable as 0.001e-7 internally even if the normalized representation would call for it to be represented instead as 1.0e-10 or 0.1e-9. By their nature, denormalized floats generally have less precision than normalized floats.

**derived type** *n.* a *type specifier* which is defined in terms of an expansion into another *type specifier*. **deftype** defines *derived types*, and there may be other *implementation-defined operators* which do so as well.

**derived type specifier** n. a type specifier for a derived type.

**designator** n. an object that denotes another object. In the dictionary entry for an operator if a parameter is described as a designator for a type, the description of the operator is written in a way that assumes that appropriate coercion to that type has already occurred; that is, that the parameter is already of the denoted type. For more detailed information, see Section 1.4.1.5 (Designators).

**destructive** adj. (of an operator) capable of modifying some program-visible aspect of one or more objects that are either explicit arguments to the operator or that can be obtained directly or indirectly from the global environment by the operator.

**destructuring lambda list** *n.* an *extended lambda list* used in **destructuring-bind** and nested within *macro lambda lists*. See Section 3.4.5 (Destructuring Lambda Lists).

**different** *adj.* not the *same* "The strings "FOO" and "foo" are different under **equal** but not under **equalp**."

**digit** n. (in a radix) a character that is among the possible digits (0 to 9, A to Z, and a to z) and that is defined to have an associated numeric weight as a digit in that radix. See Section 13.1.4.6 (Digits in a Radix).

**dimension** n. 1. a non-negative *integer* indicating the number of *objects* an *array* can hold along one axis. If the *array* is a *vector* with a *fill pointer*, the *fill pointer* is ignored. "The second dimension of that array is 7." 2. an axis of an array. "This array has six dimensions."

direct instance n. (of a class C) an object whose class is C itself, rather than some subclass of C. "The function make-instance always returns a direct instance of the class which is (or is named by) its first argument."

direct subclass n. (of a class  $C_1$ ) a class  $C_2$ , such that  $C_1$  is a direct superclass of  $C_2$ .

direct superclass n. (of a class  $C_1$ ) a class  $C_2$  which was explicitly designated as a superclass of  $C_1$  in the definition of  $C_1$ .

**disestablish** v.t. to withdraw the establishment of an object, a binding, an exit point, a tag, a handler, a restart, or an environment.

**disjoint** n. (of types) having no elements in common.

**dispatching macro character** *n.* a macro character that has an associated table that specifies the function to be called for each character that is seen following the dispatching macro character. See the function make-dispatch-macro-character.

**displaced array** n. an array which has no storage of its own, but which is instead indirected to the storage of another array, called its target, at a specified offset, in such a way that any attempt to access the displaced array implicitly references the target array.

distinct adj. not identical.

**documentation string** n. (in a defining form) A literal string which because of the context in which it appears (rather than because of some intrinsically observable aspect of the string) is taken as documentation. In some cases, the documentation string is saved in such a way that it can later be obtained by supplying either an object, or by supplying a name and a "kind" to the function documentation. "The body of code in a defmacro form can be preceded by a documentation string of kind function."

**dot** *n.* the *standard character* that is variously called "full stop," "period," or "dot" (.). See Figure 2–5.

**dotted list** *n*. a *list* which has a terminating *atom* that is not **nil**. (An *atom* by itself is not a *dotted list*, however.)

**dotted pair** n. 1. a cons whose cdr is a non-list. 2. any cons, used to emphasize the use of the cons as a symmetric data pair.

**double float** *n.* an *object* of *type* **double-float**.

**double-quote** *n.* the *standard character* that is variously called "quotation mark" or "double quote" ("). See Figure 2–5.

**dynamic binding** *n.* a binding in a dynamic environment.

**dynamic environment** n. that part of an environment that contains bindings with dynamic extent. A dynamic environment contains, among other things: exit points established by **unwind-protect**, and bindings of dynamic variables, exit points established by **catch**, condition handlers, and restarts.

**dynamic extent** n. an extent whose duration is bounded by points of establishment and disestablishment within the execution of a particular form. See indefinite extent. "Dynamic variable bindings have dynamic extent."

**dynamic scope** n. indefinite scope along with dynamic extent.

**dynamic variable** n. a variable the binding for which is in the dynamic environment. See special.

 $\mathbf{E}$ 

echo stream n. a stream of type echo-stream.

**effective method** n. the combination of applicable methods that are executed when a generic function is invoked with a particular sequence of arguments.

**element** n. 1. (of a list) an object that is the car of one of the conses that comprise the list. 2. (of an array) an object that is stored in the array. 3. (of a sequence) an object that is an element of the list or array that is the sequence. 4. (of a type) an object that is a member of the set of objects designated by the type. 5. (of an input stream) a character or number (as appropriate to the element type of the stream) that is among the ordered series of *objects* that can be read from the *stream* (using **read-char** or **read-byte**, as appropriate to the *stream*). 6. (of an *output stream*) a character or number (as appropriate to the element type of the stream) that is among the ordered series of objects that has been or will be written to the stream (using write-char or write-byte, as appropriate to the stream). 7. (of a class) a generalized instance of the class.

**element type** n. 1. (of an array) the array element type of the array. 2. (of a stream) the stream element type of the stream.

em n. Trad. a context-dependent unit of measure commonly used in typesetting, equal to the displayed width of of a letter "M" in the current font. (The letter "M" is traditionally chosen because it is typically represented by the widest glyph in the font, and other characters' widths are typically fractions of an em. In implementations providing non-Roman characters with wider characters than "M," it is permissible for another character to be the *implementation-defined* reference character for this measure, and for "M" to be only a fraction of an em wide.) In a fixed width font, a line with n characters is n ems wide; in a variable width font, n ems is the expected upper bound on the width of such a line.

**empty list** n. the *list* containing no *elements*. See ().

**empty type** n. the type that contains no elements, and that is a subtype of all types (including itself). See *nil*.

end of file n. 1. the point in an *input stream* beyond which there is no further data. Whether or not there is such a point on an interactive stream is implementationdefined. 2. a situation that occurs upon an attempt to obtain data from an input stream that is at the end of file<sub>1</sub>.

**environment** n. 1. a set of bindings. See Section 3.1.1 (Introduction to Environments). 2. an environment object. "**macroexpand** takes an optional environment argument."

**environment object** n. an object representing a set of lexical bindings, used in the processing of a form to provide meanings for names within that form. "macroexpand takes an optional environment argument." (The object nil when used as an environment object denotes the null lexical environment; the values of environment parameters to macro functions are objects of implementation-dependent nature which represent the environment<sub>1</sub> in which the corresponding macro form is to be expanded.) See Section 3.1.1.4 (Environment Objects).

**environment parameter** n. A parameter in a defining form f for which there is no corresponding argument; instead, this parameter receives as its value an environment object which corresponds to the lexical environment in which the defining f appeared.

**error** n. 1. (only in the phrase "is an error") a *situation* in which the semantics of a program are not specified, and in which the consequences are undefined. 2. a *condition* which represents an *error situation*. See Section 1.4.2 (Error Terminology). 3. an *object* of *type* **error**.

**error output** *n.* the *output stream* which is the *value* of the *dynamic variable* \*error-output\*.

**escape** n., adj. 1. n. a single escape or a multiple escape. 2. adj. single escape or multiple escape.

**establish** v.t. to build or bring into being a binding, a declaration, an exit point, a tag, a handler, a restart, or an environment. "let establishes lexical bindings."

**evaluate** v.t. (a form or an implicit progn) to execute the code represented by the form (or the series of forms making up the implicit progn) by applying the rules of evaluation, returning zero or more values.

**evaluation** n. a model whereby forms are executed, returning zero or more values. Such execution might be implemented directly in one step by an interpreter or in two steps by first compiling the form and then executing the compiled code; this choice is dependent both on context and the nature of the implementation, but in any case is not in general detectable by any program. The evaluation model is designed in such a way that a conforming implementation might legitimately have only a compiler and no interpreter, or vice versa. See Section 3.1.2 (The Evaluation Model).

**evaluation environment** *n.* a *run-time environment* in which macro expanders and code specified by **eval-when** to be evaluated are evaluated. All evaluations initiated by the *compiler* take place in the *evaluation environment*.

**execute** v.t. Trad. (code) to perform the imperative actions represented by the code.

**execution time** *n*. the duration of time that *compiled code* is being *executed*.

**exhaustive partition** n. (of a type) a set of pairwise disjoint types that form an exhaustive union.

**exhaustive union** n. (of a type) a set of subtypes of the type, whose union contains all elements of that type.

**exit point** *n.* a point in a *control form* from which (*e.g.*, **block**), through which (*e.g.*, **unwind-protect**), or to which (*e.g.*, **tagbody**) control and possibly *values* can be transferred both actively by using another *control form* and passively through the normal control and data flow of *evaluation*. "**catch** and **block** establish bindings for exit points to which **throw** and **return-from**, respectively, can transfer control and values; **tagbody** establishes a binding for an exit point with lexical extent to which **go** can transfer control; and **unwind-protect** establishes an exit point through which control might be transferred by operators such as **throw**, **return-from**, and **go**."

**explicit return** n. the act of transferring control (and possibly values) to a block by using **return-from** (or **return**).

**explicit use** n. (of a variable V in a form F) a reference to V that is directly apparent in the normal semantics of F; i.e., that does not expose any undocumented details of the macro expansion of the form itself. References to V exposed by expanding subforms of F are, however, considered to be explicit uses of V.

**exponent marker** n. a character that is used in the textual notation for a *float* to separate the mantissa from the exponent. The characters defined as *exponent markers* in the *standard readtable* are shown in Figure 26–1. For more information, see Section 2.1 (Character Syntax). "The exponent marker 'd' in '3.0d7' indicates that this number is to be represented as a double float."

Marker	Meaning
D or d	double-float
E or e	float (see *read-default-float-format*)
F or f	single-float
L or 1	long-float
S or s	short-float

Figure 26–1. Exponent Markers

**export** v.t. (a symbol in a package) to add the symbol to the list of external symbols of the package.

**exported** adj. (of a symbol in a package) being an external symbol of the package.

**expressed adjustability** n. (of an array) a generalized boolean that is conceptually (but not necessarily actually) associated with the array, representing whether the array is expressly adjustable. See also actual adjustability.

expressed array element type n. (of an array) the type which is the array element type implied by a type declaration for the array, or which is the requested array element type at its time of creation, prior to any selection of an upgraded array element type. (Common Lisp does not provide a way of detecting this type directly at run time, but an implementation is permitted to make assumptions about the array's contents and the operations which may be performed on the array when this type is noted during code analysis, even if those assumptions would not be valid in general for the upgraded array element type of the expressed array element type.)

**expressed complex part type** n. (of a complex) the type which is implied as the complex part type by a type declaration for the complex, or which is the requested complex part type at its time of creation, prior to any selection of an upgraded complex part type. (Common Lisp does not provide a way of detecting this type directly at run time, but an implementation is permitted to make assumptions about the operations which may be performed on the complex when this type is noted during code analysis, even if those assumptions would not be valid in general for the upgraded complex part type of the expressed complex part type.)

**expression** n. 1. an *object*, often used to emphasize the use of the *object* to encode or represent information in a specialized format, such as program text. "The second expression in a **let** form is a list of bindings." 2. the textual notation used to notate an *object* in a source file. "The expression 'sample is equivalent to (quote sample)."

**expressly adjustable** adj. (of an array) being actually adjustable by virtue of an explicit request for this characteristic having been made at the time of its creation. All arrays that are expressly adjustable are actually adjustable, but not necessarily vice versa.

**extended character** n. a character of type **extended-char**: a character that is not a base character.

**extended function designator** n. a designator for a function; that is, an object that denotes a function and that is one of: a function name (denoting the function it names in the global environment), or a function (denoting itself). The consequences are undefined if a function name is used as an extended function designator but it does not have a global definition as a function, or if it is a symbol that has a global definition as a macro or a special form. See also function designator.

extended lambda list n. a list resembling an ordinary lambda list in form and

purpose, but offering additional syntax or functionality not available in an *ordinary lambda lists*. "**defmacro** uses extended lambda lists."

**extension** n. a facility in an *implementation* of Common Lisp that is not specified by this standard.

**extent** n. the interval of time during which a reference to an object, a binding, an exit point, a tag, a handler, a restart, or an environment is defined.

**external file format** n. an object of implementation-dependent nature which determines one of possibly several implementation-dependent ways in which characters are encoded externally in a character file.

external file format designator n. a designator for an external file format; that is, an object that denotes an external file format and that is one of: the symbol :default (denoting an implementation-dependent default external file format that can accommodate at least the base characters), some other object defined by the implementation to be an external file format designator (denoting an implementation-defined external file format), or some other object defined by the implementation to be an external file format (denoting itself).

**external symbol** n. (of a package) a symbol that is part of the 'external interface' to the package and that are inherited<sub>3</sub> by any other package that uses the package. When using the Lisp reader, if a package prefix is used, the name of an external symbol is separated from the package name by a single package marker while the name of an internal symbol is separated from the package name by a double package marker; see Section 2.3.4 (Symbols as Tokens).

**externalizable object** n. an object that can be used as a literal object in code to be processed by the file compiler.

 $\mathbf{F}$ 

**false** n. the symbol nil, used to represent the failure of a predicate test.

**fbound** [  $^{\dagger}$  **ef**<sub>1</sub>**baund**] adj. (of a function name) bound in the function namespace. (The names of macros and special operators are fbound, but the nature and type of the object which is their value is implementation-dependent. Further, defining a setf expander F does not cause the setf function (setf F) to become defined; as such, if there is a such a definition of a setf expander F, the function (setf F) can be fbound if and only if, by design or coincidence, a function binding for (setf F) has been independently established.) See the functions **fboundp** and **symbol-function**.

**feature** n. 1. an aspect or attribute of Common Lisp, of the *implementation*, or of the *environment*. 2. a *symbol* that names a *feature*<sub>1</sub>. See Section 24.1.2 (Features). "The :ansi-cl feature is present in all conforming implementations."

**feature expression** n. A boolean combination of *features* used by the #+ and #reader macros in order to direct conditional reading of expressions by the Lisp reader.
See Section 24.1.2.1 (Feature Expressions).

**features list** *n*. the *list* that is the *value* of \*features\*.

file n. a named entry in a file system, having an implementation-defined nature.

file compiler n. any compiler which compiles source code contained in a file, producing a compiled file as output. The compile-file function is the only interface to such a compiler provided by Common Lisp, but there might be other, implementation-defined mechanisms for invoking the file compiler.

file position n. (in a stream) a non-negative integer that represents a position in the stream. Not all streams are able to represent the notion of file position; in the description of any operator which manipulates file positions, the behavior for streams that don't have this notion must be explicitly stated. For binary streams, the file position represents the number of preceding bytes in the stream. For character streams, the constraint is more relaxed: file positions must increase monotonically, the amount of the increase between file positions corresponding to any two successive characters in the stream is implementation-dependent.

file position designator n. (in a stream) a designator for a file position in that stream; that is, the symbol :start (denoting 0, the first file position in that stream), the symbol :end (denoting the last file position in that stream; i.e., the position following the last element of the stream), or a file position (denoting itself).

file stream n. an object of type file-stream.

**file system** n. a facility which permits aggregations of data to be stored in named files on some medium that is external to the Lisp image and that therefore persists from session to session.

**filename** n. a handle, not necessarily ever directly represented as an object, that can be used to refer to a file in a file system. Pathnames and namestrings are two kinds of objects that substitute for filenames in Common Lisp.

fill pointer n. (of a vector) an integer associated with a vector that represents the index above which no elements are active. (A fill pointer is a non-negative integer no larger than the total number of elements in the vector. Not all vectors have fill pointers.)

finite adj. (of a type) having a finite number of elements. "The type specifier (integer 0 5) denotes a finite type, but the type specifiers integer and (integer 0) do not."

**fixnum** n. an integer of type fixnum.

float n. an object of type float.

for-value adj. (of a reference to a binding) being a reference that reads<sub>1</sub> the value of the binding.

form n. 1. any object meant to be evaluated. 2. a symbol, a compound form, or a self-evaluating object. 3. (for an operator, as in "\( operator \) form") a compound form having that operator as its first element. "A quote form is a constant form."

formal argument n. Trad. a parameter.

formal parameter n. Trad. a parameter.

format v.t. (a format control and format arguments) to perform output as if by format, using the format string and format arguments.

format argument n. an object which is used as data by functions such as format which interpret format controls.

format control n. a format string, or a function that obeys the argument conventions for a function returned by the formatter macro. See Section 22.2.1.3 (Compiling Format Strings).

format directive n. 1. a sequence of characters in a format string which is introduced by a tilde, and which is specially interpreted by code which processes format strings to mean that some special operation should be performed, possibly involving data supplied by the format arguments that accompanied the format string. See the function format. "In "~D base 10 = ~8R", the character sequences '~D' and '~8R' are format directives." 2. the conceptual category of all format directives, which use the same dispatch character. "Both "~3d" and "~3,'OD" are valid uses of the '~D' format directive."

format string n. a string which can contain both ordinary text and format directives, and which is used in conjunction with format arguments to describe how text output should be formatted by certain functions, such as format.

free declaration n. a declaration that is not a bound declaration. See declare.

fresh adj. 1. (of an object yielded by a function) having been newly-allocated by that function. (The caller of a function that returns a fresh object may freely modify the object without fear that such modification will compromise the future correct behavior of that function.) 2. (of a binding for a name) newly-allocated; not shared with other bindings for that name.

freshline n. a conceptual operation on a stream, implemented by the function fresh-line and by the format directive ~&, which advances the display position to the beginning of the next line (as if a newline had been typed, or the function terpri had been called) unless the stream is already known to be positioned at the beginning of a line. Unlike newline, freshline is not a character.

**funbound** [ 'efunbaund ] n. (of a function name) not fbound.

function n. 1. an *object* representing code, which can be *called* with zero or more *arguments*, and which produces zero or more *values*. 2. an *object* of *type* function.

function block name n. (of a function name) The symbol that would be used as the name of an implicit block which surrounds the body of a function having that function name. If the function name is a symbol, its function block name is the function name itself. If the function name is a list whose car is setf and whose cadr is a symbol, its function block name is the symbol that is the cadr of the function name. An implementation which supports additional kinds of function names must specify for each how the corresponding function block name is computed.

function cell n. Trad. (of a symbol) The place which holds the definition of the global function binding, if any, named by that symbol, and which is accessed by symbol-function. See cell.

function designator n. a designator for a function; that is, an object that denotes a function and that is one of: a symbol (denoting the function named by that symbol in the global environment), or a function (denoting itself). The consequences are undefined if a symbol is used as a function designator but it does not have a global definition as a function, or it has a global definition as a macro or a special form. See also extended function designator.

**function form** n. a form that is a list and that has a first element which is the name of a function to be called on arguments which are the result of evaluating subsequent elements of the function form.

function name n. 1. (in an environment) A symbol or a list (setf symbol) that is the name of a function in that environment. 2. A symbol or a list (setf symbol).

functional evaluation n. the process of extracting a functional value from a function name or a lambda expression. The evaluator performs functional evaluation implicitly when it encounters a function name or a lambda expression in the car of a compound form, or explicitly when it encounters a function special form. Neither a use of a symbol as a function designator nor a use of the function symbol-function to extract the functional value of a symbol is considered a functional evaluation.

functional value n. 1. (of a function name N in an environment E) The value of the binding named N in the function namespace for environment E; that is, the

contents of the function cell named N in environment E. 2. (of an fbound symbol S) the contents of the symbol's function cell; that is, the value of the binding named S in the function namespace of the global environment. (A name that is a macro name in the global environment or is a special operator might or might not be fbound. But if S is such a name and is fbound, the specific nature of its functional value is implementation-dependent; in particular, it might or might not be a function.)

**further compilation** *n. implementation-dependent* compilation beyond *minimal compilation*. Further compilation is permitted to take place at *run time*. "Block compilation and generation of machine-specific instructions are examples of further compilation."

 $\mathbf{G}$ 

**general** adj. (of an array) having element type t, and consequently able to have any object as an element.

**generalized boolean** n. an object used as a truth value, where the symbol nil represents false and all other objects represent true. See boolean.

**generalized instance** n. (of a class) an object the class of which is either that class itself, or some subclass of that class. (Because of the correspondence between types and classes, the term "generalized instance of X" implies "object of type X" and in cases where X is a class (or  $class\ name$ ) the reverse is also true. The former terminology emphasizes the view of X as a class while the latter emphasizes the view of X as a class while the latter emphasizes the view of C0.

**generalized reference** *n.* a reference to a location storing an *object* as if to a *variable*. (Such a reference can be either to *read* or *write* the location.) See Section 5.1 (Generalized Reference). See also *place*.

generalized synonym stream n. (with a synonym stream symbol) 1. (to a stream) a synonym stream to the stream, or a composite stream which has as a target a generalized synonym stream to the stream. 2. (to a symbol) a synonym stream to the symbol, or a composite stream which has as a target a generalized synonym stream to the symbol.

**generic function** n. a function whose behavior depends on the classes or identities of the arguments supplied to it and whose parts include, among other things, a set of methods, a  $lambda\ list$ , and a  $method\ combination$  type.

**generic function lambda list** n. A lambda list that is used to describe data flow into a generic function. See Section 3.4.2 (Generic Function Lambda Lists).

**gensym** n. Trad. an uninterned symbol. See the function **gensym**.

**global declaration** n. a form that makes certain kinds of information about code globally available; that is, a **proclaim** form or a **declaim** form.

**global environment** n. that part of an *environment* that contains *bindings* with *indefinite scope* and *indefinite extent*.

**global variable** n. a dynamic variable or a constant variable.

glyph n. a visual representation. "Graphic characters have associated glyphs."

go v. to transfer control to a go point. See the special operator go.

**go point** one of possibly several *exit points* that are *established* by **tagbody** (or other abstractions, such as **prog**, which are built from **tagbody**).

go tag n. the symbol or integer that, within the lexical scope of a tagbody form, names an exit point established by that tagbody form.

**graphic** adj. (of a character) being a "printing" or "displayable" character that has a standard visual representation as a single glyph, such as A or \* or =. Space is defined to be graphic. Of the standard characters, all but newline are graphic. See non-graphic.

 $\mathbf{H}$ 

**handle** v. (of a condition being signaled) to perform a non-local transfer of control, terminating the ongoing signaling of the condition.

handler n. a condition handler.

hash table n. an object of type hash-table, which provides a mapping from keys to values.

**home package** n. (of a symbol) the package, if any, which is contents of the package cell of the symbol, and which dictates how the Lisp printer prints the symbol when it is not accessible in the current package. (Symbols which have nil in their package cell are said to have no home package, and also to be apparently uninterned.)

Ι

I/O customization variable n one of the stream variables in Figure 26–2, or some other (implementation-defined) stream variable that is defined by the implementation to be an I/O customization variable.

*debug-io*	*error-io*	query-io*	
*standard-input*	*standard-output*	*trace-output*	

Figure 26–2. Standardized I/O Customization Variables

identical adj. the same under eq.

**identifier** n. 1. a symbol used to identify or to distinguish names. 2. a string used the same way.

**immutable** adj. not subject to change, either because no operator is provided which is capable of effecting such change or because some constraint exists which prohibits the use of an operator that might otherwise be capable of effecting such a change. Except as explicitly indicated otherwise, implementations are not required to detect attempts to modify immutable objects or cells; the consequences of attempting to make such modification are undefined. "Numbers are immutable."

**implementation** n. a system, mechanism, or body of code that implements the semantics of Common Lisp.

**implementation limit** n. a restriction imposed by an *implementation*.

**implementation-defined** adj. implementation-dependent, but required by this specification to be defined by each conforming implementation and to be documented by the corresponding implementor.

implementation-dependent adj. describing a behavior or aspect of Common Lisp which has been deliberately left unspecified, that might be defined in some conforming implementations but not in others, and whose details may differ between implementations. A conforming implementation is encouraged (but not required) to document its treatment of each item in this specification which is marked implementation-dependent, although in some cases such documentation might simply identify the item as "undefined."

**implementation-independent** adj. used to identify or emphasize a behavior or aspect of Common Lisp which does not vary between *conforming implementations*.

**implicit block** n. a block introduced by a  $macro\ form$  rather than by an explicit block form.

**implicit compilation** *n. compilation* performed during *evaluation*.

**implicit progn** n. an ordered set of adjacent forms appearing in another form, and defined by their context in that form to be executed as if within a **progn**.

**implicit tagbody** *n*. an ordered set of adjacent *forms* and/or *tags* appearing in another *form*, and defined by their context in that *form* to be executed as if within a **tagbody**.

**import** v.t. (a symbol into a package) to make the symbol be present in the package.

**improper list** n. a list which is not a proper list: a circular list or a dotted list.

inaccessible adj. not accessible.

**indefinite extent** n. an extent whose duration is unlimited. "Most Common Lisp objects have indefinite extent."

**indefinite scope** *n. scope* that is unlimited.

**indicator** n. a property indicator.

**indirect instance** n. (of a class  $C_1$ ) an object of class  $C_2$ , where  $C_2$  is a subclass of  $C_1$ . "An integer is an indirect instance of the class **number**."

**inherit** v.t. 1. to receive or acquire a quality, trait, or characteristic; to gain access to a feature defined elsewhere. 2. (a class) to acquire the structure and behavior defined by a superclass. 3. (a package) to make symbols exported by another package accessible by using use-package.

**initial pprint dispatch table** *n.* the *value* of \*print-pprint-dispatch\* at the time the *Lisp image* is started.

**initial readtable** n. the value of \*readtable\* at the time the Lisp image is started.

**initialization argument list** n. a property list of initialization argument names and values used in the protocol for initializing and reinitializing instances of classes. See Section 7.1 (Object Creation and Initialization).

**initialization form** *n.* a *form* used to supply the initial *value* for a *slot* or *variable*. "The initialization form for a slot in a **defclass** form is introduced by the keyword :initform."

**input** adj. (of a stream) supporting input operations (i.e., being a "data source"). An input stream might also be an output stream, in which case it is sometimes called a bidirectional stream. See the function input-stream-p.

instance n. 1. a direct instance. 2. a generalized instance. 3. an indirect instance.

**integer** n. an object of type **integer**, which represents a mathematical integer.

**interactive stream** n. a stream on which it makes sense to perform interactive querying. See Section 21.1.1.1.3 (Interactive Streams).

**intern** v.t. 1. (a string in a package) to look up the string in the package, returning either a symbol with that name which was already accessible in the package or a newly created internal symbol of the package with that name. 2. Idiom. generally, to observe a protocol whereby objects which are equivalent or have equivalent names under some predicate defined by the protocol are mapped to a single canonical object.

**internal symbol** n. (of a package) a symbol which is accessible in the package, but which is not an external symbol of the package.

**internal time** n. time, represented as an integer number of internal time units. Absolute internal time is measured as an offset from an arbitrarily chosen, implementation-dependent base. See Section 25.1.4.3 (Internal Time).

**internal time unit** n. a unit of time equal to 1/n of a second, for some *implementation*defined integer value of n. See the variable internal-time-units-per-second.

interned adj. Trad. 1. (of a symbol) accessible in any package. 2. (of a symbol in a specific package) present in that package.

**interpreted function** n. a function that is not a compiled function. (It is possible for there to be a conforming implementation which has no interpreted functions, but a conforming program must not assume that all functions are compiled functions.)

**interpreted implementation** n. an implementation that uses an execution strategy for interpreted functions that does not involve a one-time semantic analysis pre-pass, and instead uses "lazy" (and sometimes repetitious) semantic analysis of forms as they are encountered during execution.

**interval designator** n. (of type T) an ordered pair of objects that describe a subtype of T by delimiting an interval on the real number line. See Section 12.1.6 (Interval Designators).

invalid n., adj. 1. n. a possible constituent trait of a character which if present signifies that the *character* cannot ever appear in a *token* except under the control of a single escape character. For details, see Section 2.1.4.1 (Constituent Characters). 2. adj. (of a character) being a character that has syntax type constituent in the current readtable and that has the constituent trait invalid<sub>1</sub>. See Figure 2–8.

**iteration form** n. a compound form whose operator is named in Figure 26–3, or a compound form that has an implementation-defined operator and that is defined by the implementation to be an iteration form.

do	do-external-symbols	dotimes
do*	do-symbols	loop
do-all-symbols	$\operatorname{dolist}$	

Figure 26-3. Standardized Iteration Forms

**iteration variable** n. a variable V, the binding for which was created by an explicit use of V in an iteration form.

 $\mathbf{K}$ 

**key** n. an object used for selection during retrieval. See association list, property list, and hash table. Also, see Section 17.1 (Sequence Concepts).

**keyword** n. 1. a symbol the home package of which is the KEYWORD package. 2. any symbol, usually but not necessarily in the KEYWORD package, that is used as an identifying marker in keyword-style argument passing. See **lambda**. 3. Idiom. a lambda list keyword.

**keyword parameter** n. A parameter for which a corresponding keyword argument is optional. (There is no such thing as a required keyword argument.) If the argument is not supplied, a default value is used. See also supplied-p parameter.

**keyword/value pair** *n.* two successive *elements* (a *keyword* and a *value*, respectively) of a *property list*.

 $\mathbf{L}$ 

lambda combination n. Trad. a lambda form.

lambda expression n. a list which can be used in place of a function name in certain contexts to denote a function by directly describing its behavior rather than indirectly by referring to the name of an established function; its name derives from the fact that its first element is the symbol lambda. See lambda.

**lambda form** n. a form that is a list and that has a first element which is a lambda expression representing a function to be called on arguments which are the result of evaluating subsequent elements of the lambda form.

lambda list n. a list that specifies a set of parameters (sometimes called lambda variables) and a protocol for receiving values for those parameters; that is, an ordinary lambda list, an extended lambda list, or a modified lambda list.

lambda list keyword n. a symbol whose name begins with ampersand and that is specially recognized in a lambda list. Note that no standardized lambda list keyword is in the KEYWORD package.

lambda variable n. a formal parameter, used to emphasize the variable's relation to the lambda list that established it.

**leaf** n. 1. an atom in a tree<sub>1</sub>. 2. a terminal node of a tree<sub>2</sub>.

**leap seconds** *n.* additional one-second intervals of time that are occasionally inserted into the true calendar by official timekeepers as a correction similar to "leap years." All Common Lisp *time* representations ignore *leap seconds*; every day is assumed to be exactly 86400 seconds long.

**left-parenthesis** *n.* the *standard character* "(", that is variously called "left parenthesis" or "open parenthesis" See Figure 2–5.

**length** n. (of a sequence) the number of elements in the sequence. (Note that if the sequence is a vector with a fill pointer, its length is the same as the fill pointer even though the total allocated size of the vector might be larger.)

**lexical binding** n. a binding in a lexical environment.

**lexical closure** n. a function that, when invoked on arguments, executes the body of a lambda expression in the lexical environment that was captured at the time of the creation of the lexical closure, augmented by bindings of the function's parameters to the corresponding arguments.

**lexical environment** n. that part of the *environment* that contains *bindings* whose names have *lexical scope*. A *lexical environment* contains, among other things: ordinary *bindings* of *variable names* to *values*, lexically *established bindings* of *function names* to *functions*, *macros*, *symbol macros*, *blocks*, *tags*, and *local declarations* (see **declare**).

**lexical scope** *n. scope* that is limited to a spatial or textual region within the establishing *form*. "The names of parameters to a function normally are lexically scoped."

**lexical variable** n. a variable the binding for which is in the lexical environment.

**Lisp image** n. a running instantiation of a Common Lisp implementation. A Lisp image is characterized by a single address space in which any object can directly refer to any another in conformance with this specification, and by a single, common, global environment. (External operating systems sometimes call this a "core image," "fork," "incarnation," "job," or "process." Note however, that the issue of a "process" in such

an operating system is technically orthogonal to the issue of a Lisp image being defined here. Depending on the operating system, a single "process" might have multiple Lisp images, and multiple "processes" might reside in a single Lisp image. Hence, it is the idea of a fully shared address space for direct reference among all objects which is the defining characteristic. Note, too, that two "processes" which have a communication area that permits the sharing of some but not all objects are considered to be distinct Lisp images.)

**Lisp printer** *n. Trad.* the procedure that prints the character representation of an *object* onto a *stream*. (This procedure is implemented by the *function* write.)

**Lisp read-eval-print loop** n. Trad. an endless loop that  $reads_2$  a form, evaluates it, and prints  $(i.e., writes_2)$  the results. In many implementations, the default mode of interaction with Common Lisp during program development is through such a loop.

**Lisp reader** *n. Trad.* the procedure that parses character representations of *objects* from a *stream*, producing *objects*. (This procedure is implemented by the *function* read.)

**list** n. 1. a chain of *conses* in which the *car* of each *cons* is an *element* of the *list*, and the *cdr* of each *cons* is either the next link in the chain or a terminating *atom*. See also *proper list*, *dotted list*, or *circular list*. 2. the *type* that is the union of **null** and **cons**.

**list designator** n. a designator for a list of objects; that is, an object that denotes a list and that is one of: a non-nil atom (denoting a singleton list whose element is that non-nil atom) or a proper list (denoting itself).

list structure n. (of a list) the set of conses that make up the list. Note that while the  $car_{1b}$  component of each such cons is part of the list structure, the objects that are elements of the list (i.e., the objects that are the  $cars_2$  of each cons in the list) are not themselves part of its list structure, even if they are conses, except in the  $(circular_2)$  case where the list actually contains one of its tails as an element. (The list structure of a list is sometimes redundantly referred to as its "top-level list structure" in order to emphasize that any conses that are elements of the list are not involved.)

literal adj. (of an object) referenced directly in a program rather than being computed by the program; that is, appearing as data in a **quote** form, or, if the object is a self-evaluating object, appearing as unquoted data. "In the form (cons "one" '("two")), the expressions "one", ("two"), and "two" are literal objects."

load v.t. (a file) to cause the code contained in the file to be executed. See the function load.

**load time** n. the duration of time that the loader is loading compiled code.

**load time value** n. an object referred to in code by a load-time-value form. The value of such a form is some specific object which can only be computed in the run-time environment. In the case of file compilation, the value is computed once as part of the process of loading the compiled file, and not again. See the special operator load-time-value.

**loader** n. a facility that is part of Lisp and that loads a file. See the function load.

local declaration n. an expression which may appear only in specially designated positions of certain forms, and which provides information about the code contained within the containing form; that is, a declare expression.

**local precedence order** n. (of a class) a list consisting of the class followed by its direct superclasses in the order mentioned in the defining form for the class.

local slot n. (of a class) a slot accessible in only one instance, namely the instance in which the *slot* is allocated.

**logical block** n. a conceptual grouping of related output used by the pretty printer. See the macro pprint-logical-block and Section 22.2.1.1 (Dynamic Control of the Arrangement of Output).

**logical host** n. an object of implementation-dependent nature that is used as the representation of a "host" in a logical pathname, and that has an associated set of translation rules for converting logical pathnames belonging to that host into physical pathnames. See Section 19.3 (Logical Pathnames).

**logical host designator** n. a designator for a logical host; that is, an object that denotes a logical host and that is one of: a string (denoting the logical host that it names), or a logical host (denoting itself). (Note that because the representation of a logical host is implementation-dependent, it is possible that an implementation might represent a *logical host* as the *string* that names it.)

**logical pathname** *n.* an *object* of *type* **logical-pathname**.

**long float** n. an object of type **long-float**.

**loop keyword** n. Trad. a symbol that is a specially recognized part of the syntax of an extended loop form. Such symbols are recognized by their name (using string=), not by their identity; as such, they may be in any package. A loop keyword is not a keyword.

lowercase adj. (of a character) being among standard characters corresponding to the small letters a through z, or being some other implementation-defined character that

is defined by the *implementation* to be *lowercase*. See Section 13.1.4.3 (Characters With Case).

 $\mathbf{M}$ 

**macro** n. 1. a macro form 2. a macro function. 3. a macro name.

macro character n. a character which, when encountered by the Lisp reader in its main dispatch loop, introduces a reader  $macro_1$ . (Macro characters have nothing to do with macros.)

**macro expansion** n. 1. the process of translating a macro form into another form. 2. the form resulting from this process.

**macro form** n. a form that stands for another form (e.g., for the purposes of abstraction, information hiding, or syntactic convenience); that is, either a compound form whose first element is a macro name, or a form that is a symbol that names a symbol macro.

**macro function** *n.* a function of two arguments, a form and an environment, that implements macro expansion by producing a form to be evaluated in place of the original argument form.

macro lambda list n. an extended lambda list used in forms that establish macro definitions, such as defmacro and macrolet. See Section 3.4.4 (Macro Lambda Lists).

**macro name** *n.* a *name* for which **macro-function** returns *true* and which when used as the first element of a *compound form* identifies that *form* as a *macro form*.

macroexpand hook n. the function that is the value of \*macroexpand-hook\*.

**mapping** n. 1. a type of iteration in which a function is successively applied to objects taken from corresponding entries in collections such as sequences or hash tables. 2. Math. a relation between two sets in which each element of the first set (the "domain") is assigned one element of the second set (the "range").

**metaclass** n. 1. a class whose instances are classes. 2. (of an object) the class of the class of the object.

Metaobject Protocol n. one of many possible descriptions of how a conforming implementation might implement various aspects of the object system. This description is beyond the scope of this document, and no conforming implementation is required to adhere to it except as noted explicitly in this specification. Nevertheless, its existence helps to establish normative practice, and implementors with no reason to diverge from it are encouraged to consider making their implementation adhere to it where possible. It is described in detail in The Art of the Metaobject Protocol.

**method** n. an object that is part of a generic function and which provides information about how that generic function should behave when its arguments are objects of certain *classes* or with certain identities.

method combination n. 1. generally, the composition of a set of methods to produce an effective method for a generic function. 2. an object of type method-combination, which represents the details of how the method combination, for one or more specific generic functions is to be performed.

**method-defining form** n. a form that defines a method for a generic function, whether explicitly or implicitly. See Section 7.6.1 (Introduction to Generic Functions).

**method-defining operator** n. an operator corresponding to a method-defining form. See Figure 7–1.

minimal compilation n. actions the compiler must take at compile time. See Section 3.2.2 (Compilation Semantics).

modified lambda list n. a list resembling an ordinary lambda list in form and purpose, but which deviates in syntax or functionality from the definition of an ordinary lambda list. See ordinary lambda list. "deftype uses a modified lambda list."

most recent adj. innermost; that is, having been established (and not yet disestablished) more recently than any other of its kind.

multiple escape n., adj. 1. n. the syntax type of a character that is used in pairs to indicate that the enclosed characters are to be treated as alphabetic<sub>2</sub> characters with their case preserved. For details, see Section 2.1.4.5 (Multiple Escape Characters). 2. adj. (of a character) having the multiple escape syntax type. 3. n. a multiple escape<sub>2</sub> character. (In the standard readtable, vertical-bar is a multiple escape character.)

multiple values n. 1. more than one value. "The function truncate returns multiple values." 2. a variable number of values, possibly including zero or one. "The function values returns multiple values." 3. a fixed number of values other than one. "The macro multiple-value-bind is among the few operators in Common Lisp which can detect and manipulate multiple values."

N

**name** n., v.t. 1. n. an identifier by which an object, a binding, or an exit point is referred to by association using a binding. 2. v.t. to give a name to. 3. n. (of an object having a name component) the object which is that component. "The string which is a symbol's name is returned by symbol-name." 4. n. (of a pathname) a. the name component, returned by pathname-name. b. the entire namestring, returned by namestring. 5. n. (of a character) a string that names the character and that

has length greater than one. (All non-graphic characters are required to have names unless they have some implementation-defined attribute which is not null. Whether or not other characters have names is implementation-dependent.)

**named constant** n. a variable that is defined by Common Lisp, by the implementation, or by user code (see the macro **defconstant**) to always yield the same value when evaluated. "The value of a named constant may not be changed by assignment or by binding."

**namespace** n. 1. bindings whose denotations are restricted to a particular kind. "The bindings of names to tags is the tag namespace." 2. any mapping whose domain is a set of names. "A package defines a namespace."

**namestring** n. a string that represents a filename using either the standardized notation for naming logical pathnames described in Section 19.3.1 (Syntax of Logical Pathname Namestrings), or some implementation-defined notation for naming a physical pathname.

**newline** n. the standard character  $\langle Newline \rangle$ , notated for the Lisp reader as #\Newline.

**next method** *n.* the next *method* to be invoked with respect to a given *method* for a particular set of arguments or argument *classes*. See Section 7.6.6.1.3 (Applying method combination to the sorted list of applicable methods).

**nickname** n. (of a package) one of possibly several names that can be used to refer to the package but that is not the primary name of the package.

nil n. the object that is at once the symbol named "NIL" in the COMMON-LISP package, the empty list, the boolean (or generalized boolean) representing false, and the name of the empty type.

**non-atomic** adj. being other than an atom; i.e., being a cons.

**non-constant variable** *n.* a *variable* that is not a *constant variable*.

**non-correctable** adj. (of an error) not intentionally correctable. (Because of the dynamic nature of restarts, it is neither possible nor generally useful to completely prohibit an error from being correctable. This term is used in order to express an intent that no special effort should be made by code signaling an error to make that error correctable; however, there is no actual requirement on conforming programs or conforming implementations imposed by this term.)

**non-empty** adj. having at least one element.

**non-generic function** n. a function that is not a generic function.

**non-graphic** adj. (of a character) not graphic. See Section 13.1.4.1 (Graphic Characters).

**non-list** n., adj. other than a list; i.e., a non-nil atom.

**non-local exit** n. a transfer of control (and sometimes values) to an exit point for reasons other than a normal return. "The operators go, throw, and return-from cause a non-local exit."

**non-nil** n., adj. not **nil**. Technically, any object which is not **nil** can be referred to as true, but that would tend to imply a unique view of the object as a generalized boolean. Referring to such an object as non-nil avoids this implication.

**non-null lexical environment** n. a lexical environment that has additional information not present in the global environment, such as one or more bindings.

non-simple adj. not simple.

**non-terminating** adj. (of a macro character) being such that it is treated as a constituent character when it appears in the middle of an extended token. See Section 2.2 (Reader Algorithm).

**non-top-level form** n. a form that, by virtue of its position as a subform of another form, is not a top level form. See Section 3.2.3.1 (Processing of Top Level Forms).

**normal return** n. the natural transfer of control and values which occurs after the complete execution of a form.

**normalized** adj., ANSI, IEEE (of a float) conforming to the description of "normalized" as described by IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point Arithmetic. See denormalized.

**null** adj., n. 1. adj. a. (of a list) having no elements: empty. See empty list. b. (of a string) having a length of zero. (It is common, both within this document and in observed spoken behavior, to refer to an empty string by an apparent definite reference, as in "the null string" even though no attempt is made to  $intern_2$  null strings. The phrase "a null string" is technically more correct, but is generally considered awkward by most Lisp programmers. As such, the phrase "the null string" should be treated as an indefinite reference in all cases except for anaphoric references.) c. (of an implementation-defined attribute of a character) An object to which the value of that attribute defaults if no specific value was requested. 2. n. an object of type null (the only such *object* being **nil**).

**null lexical environment** n. the lexical environment which has no bindings.

**number** n. an object of type **number**.

**numeric** adj. (of a character) being one of the standard characters 0 through 9, or being some other graphic character defined by the implementation to be numeric.

 $\mathbf{O}$ 

**object** n. 1. any Lisp datum. "The function **cons** creates an object which refers to two other objects." 2. (immediately following the name of a type) an object which is of that type, used to emphasize that the object is not just a name for an object of that type but really an element of the type in cases where objects of that type (such as **function** or **class**) are commonly referred to by name. "The function **symbol-function** takes a function name and returns a function object."

**object-traversing** adj. operating in succession on components of an object. "The operators **mapcar**, **maphash**, **with-package-iterator** and **count** perform object-traversing operations."

**open** adj., v.t. (a file) 1. v.t. to create and return a stream to the file. 2. adj. (of a stream) having been opened<sub>1</sub>, but not yet closed.

**operator** n. 1. a function, macro, or special operator. 2. a symbol that names such a function, macro, or special operator. 3. (in a function special form) the cadr of the function special form, which might be either an operator<sub>2</sub> or a lambda expression.

4. (of a compound form) the car of the compound form, which might be either an operator<sub>2</sub> or a lambda expression, and which is never (setf symbol).

**optimize quality** n. one of several aspects of a program that might be optimizable by certain compilers. Since optimizing one such quality might conflict with optimizing another, relative priorities for qualities can be established in an **optimize** declaration. The standardized optimize qualities are compilation-speed (speed of the compilation process), debug (ease of debugging), safety (run-time error checking), space (both code size and run-time space), and speed (of the object code). Implementations may define additional optimize qualities.

**optional parameter** n. A parameter for which a corresponding positional argument is optional. If the argument is not supplied, a default value is used. See also supplied-p parameter.

**ordinary function** *n.* a function that is not a generic function.

**ordinary lambda list** n. the kind of *lambda list* used by **lambda**. See modified *lambda list* and *extended lambda list*. "**defun** uses an ordinary lambda list."

otherwise inaccessible part n. (of an object,  $O_1$ ) an object,  $O_2$ , which would be made inaccessible if  $O_1$  were made inaccessible. (Every object is an otherwise inaccessible part of itself.)

**output** adj. (of a stream) supporting output operations (i.e., being a "data sink"). An output stream might also be an input stream, in which case it is sometimes called a bidirectional stream. See the function output-stream-p.

P

package n. an object of type package.

package cell n. Trad. (of a symbol) The place in a symbol that holds one of possibly several packages in which the symbol is interned, called the home package, or which holds nil if no such package exists or is known. See the function symbol-package.

package designator n. a designator for a package; that is, an object that denotes a package and that is one of: a string designator (denoting the package that has the string that it designates as its name or as one of its nicknames), or a package (denoting itself).

**package marker** n. a character which is used in the textual notation for a symbol to separate the package name from the symbol name, and which is colon in the standard readtable. See Section 2.1 (Character Syntax).

package prefix n. a notation preceding the name of a symbol in text that is processed by the Lisp reader, which uses a package name followed by one or more package markers, and which indicates that the symbol is looked up in the indicated package.

package registry n. A mapping of names to package objects. It is possible for there to be a package object which is not in this mapping; such a package is called an unregistered package. Operators such as find-package consult this mapping in order to find a package from its name. Operators such as do-all-symbols, find-all-symbols, and list-all-packages operate only on packages that exist in the package registry.

pairwise adv. (of an adjective on a set) applying individually to all possible pairings of elements of the set. "The types A, B, and C are pairwise disjoint if A and B are disjoint, B and C are disjoint, and A and C are disjoint."

parallel adj. Trad. (of binding or assignment) done in the style of psetq, let, or do; that is, first evaluating all of the forms that produce values, and only then assigning or binding the variables (or places). Note that this does not imply traditional computational "parallelism" since the forms that produce values are evaluated sequentially. See sequential.

parameter n. 1. (of a function) a variable in the definition of a function which takes on the value of a corresponding argument (or of a list of corresponding arguments) to that function when it is called, or which in some cases is given a default value because there is no corresponding argument. 2. (of a format directive) an object received as data flow by a format directive due to a prefix notation within the format string at the format directive's point of use. See Section 22.3 (Formatted Output). "In "-3,'0D", the number 3 and the character #\0 are parameters to the ~D format directive."

parameter specializer n. 1. (of a method) an expression which constrains the method to be applicable only to argument sequences in which the corresponding argument matches the parameter specializer. 2. a class, or a list (eql object).

parameter specializer name n. 1. (of a method definition) an expression used in code to name a parameter specializer. See Section 7.6.2 (Introduction to Methods). 2. a class, a symbol naming a class, or a list (eql form).

**pathname** n. an object of type **pathname**, which is a structured representation of the name of a file. A pathname has six components: a "host," a "device," a "directory," a "name," a "type," and a "version."

pathname designator n. a designator for a pathname; that is, an object that denotes a pathname and that is one of: a pathname namestring (denoting the corresponding pathname), a stream associated with a file (denoting the pathname used to open the file; this may be, but is not required to be, the actual name of the file), or a pathname (denoting itself). See Section 21.1.1.1.2 (Open and Closed Streams).

**physical pathname** *n.* a *pathname* that is not a *logical pathname*.

**place** n. 1. a form which is suitable for use as a generalized reference. 2. the conceptual location referred to by such a  $place_1$ .

plist [ | pe<sub>I</sub>list ] n. a property list.

**portable** adj. (of code) required to produce equivalent results and observable side effects in all conforming implementations.

**potential copy** n. (of an object  $O_1$  subject to constriants) an object  $O_2$  that if the specified constraints are satisfied by  $O_1$  without any modification might or might not be identical to  $O_1$ , or else that must be a fresh object that resembles a copy of  $O_1$  except that it has been modified as necessary to satisfy the constraints.

**potential number** n. A textual notation that might be parsed by the *Lisp reader* in some *conforming implementation* as a *number* but is not required to be parsed as a *number*. No *object* is a *potential number*—either an *object* is a *number* or it is not. See Section 2.3.1.1 (Potential Numbers as Tokens).

**pprint dispatch table** n. an object that can be the value of \*print-pprint-dispatch\* and hence can control how objects are printed when \*print-pretty\* is true. See Section 22.2.1.4 (Pretty Print Dispatch Tables).

**predicate** n. a function that returns a generalized boolean as its first value.

**present** n. 1. (of a feature in a Lisp image) a state of being that is in effect if and only if the symbol naming the feature is an element of the features list. 2. (of a symbol in a package) being accessible in that package directly, rather than being inherited from another package.

**pretty print** v.t. (an object) to invoke the pretty printer on the object.

**pretty printer** *n*. the procedure that prints the character representation of an *object* onto a *stream* when the *value* of \*print-pretty\* is *true*, and that uses layout techniques (*e.g.*, indentation) that tend to highlight the structure of the *object* in a way that makes it easier for human readers to parse visually. See the *variable* \*print-print-dispatch\* and Section 22.2 (The Lisp Pretty Printer).

**pretty printing stream** *n.* a *stream* that does pretty printing. Such streams are created by the *function* **pprint-logical-block** as a link between the output stream and the logical block.

**primary method** n. a member of one of two sets of methods (the set of auxiliary methods is the other) that form an exhaustive partition of the set of methods on the method's generic function. How these sets are determined is dependent on the method combination type; see Section 7.6.2 (Introduction to Methods).

**primary value** n. (of values resulting from the evaluation of a form) the first value, if any, or else **nil** if there are no values. "The primary value returned by **truncate** is an integer quotient, truncated toward zero."

**principal** adj. (of a value returned by a Common Lisp function that implements a mathematically irrational or transcendental function defined in the complex domain) of possibly many (sometimes an infinite number of) correct values for the mathematical function, being the particular value which the corresponding Common Lisp function has been defined to return.

**print name** n. Trad. (usually of a symbol) a name<sub>3</sub>.

**printer control variable** n. a variable whose specific purpose is to control some action of the Lisp printer; that is, one of the variables in Figure 22–1, or else some implementation-defined variable which is defined by the implementation to be a printer control variable.

**printer escaping** n. The combined state of the printer control variables \*print-escape\* and \*print-readably\*. If the value of either \*print-readably\* or \*print-escape\* is true, then printer escaping is "enabled"; otherwise (if the values of both \*print-readably\* and \*print-escape\* are false), then printer escaping is "disabled".

**printing** adj. (of a character) being a graphic character other than space.

**process** v.t. (a form by the compiler) to perform minimal compilation, determining the time of evaluation for a form, and possibly evaluating that form (if required).

**processor** n., ANSI an implementation.

**proclaim** v.t. (a proclamation) to establish that proclamation.

**proclamation** n. a global declaration.

**prog tag** n. Trad. a go tag.

**program** *n. Trad.* Common Lisp *code*.

**programmer** n. an active entity, typically a human, that writes a program, and that might or might not also be a user of the program.

**programmer code** n. code that is supplied by the programmer; that is, code that is not system code.

**proper list** n. A list terminated by the empty list. (The empty list is a proper list.) See improper list.

**proper name** n. (of a class) a symbol that names the class whose name is that symbol. See the functions class-name and find-class.

**proper sequence** n. a sequence which is not an improper list; that is, a vector or a proper list.

**proper subtype** n. (of a type) a subtype of the type which is not the  $same\ type$  as the  $type\ (i.e.,$  its elements are a "proper subset" of the type).

**property** n. (of a property list) 1. a conceptual pairing of a property indicator and its associated property value on a property list. 2. a property value.

**property indicator** n. (of a property list) the name part of a property, used as a key when looking up a property value on a property list.

**property list** n. 1. a list containing an even number of elements that are alternating names (sometimes called indicators or keys) and values (sometimes called properties). When there is more than one name and value pair with the identical name in a property list, the first such pair determines the property. 2. (of a symbol) the component of the symbol containing a property list.

**property value** n. (of a property indicator on a property list) the object associated with the property indicator on the property list.

**purports to conform** v. makes a good-faith claim of conformance. This term expresses intention to conform, regardless of whether the goal of that intention is realized in practice. For example, language implementations have been known to have bugs, and while an *implementation* of this specification with bugs might not be a *conforming implementation*, it can still purport to conform. This is an important distinction in certain specific cases; e.g., see the variable \*features\*.

 $\mathbf{Q}$ 

qualified method n. a method that has one or more qualifiers.

**qualifier** n. (of a method for a generic function) one of possibly several objects used to annotate the method in a way that identifies its role in the method combination. The method combination type determines how many qualifiers are permitted for each method, which qualifiers are permitted, and the semantics of those qualifiers.

query I/O n. the bidirectional stream that is the value of the variable \*query-io\*.

**quoted object** n. an object which is the second element of a **quote** form.

 $\mathbf{R}$ 

radix n. an integer between 2 and 36, inclusive, which can be used to designate a base with respect to which certain kinds of numeric input or output are performed. (There are n valid digit characters for any given radix n, and those digits are the first n digits in the sequence 0, 1, ..., 9, A, B, ..., Z, which have the weights 0, 1, ..., 9, 10, 11, ..., 35, respectively. Case is not significant in parsing numbers of radix greater than 10, so "9b8a" and "9B8A" denote the same radix 16 number.)

random state n. an object of type random-state.

rank n. a non-negative integer indicating the number of dimensions of an array.

ratio n. an object of type ratio.

ratio marker n. a character which is used in the textual notation for a ratio to separate the numerator from the denominator, and which is slash in the standard readtable. See Section 2.1 (Character Syntax).

**rational** n. an object of type **rational**.

**read** v.t. 1. (a binding or slot or component) to obtain the value of the binding or slot. 2. (an object from a stream) to parse an object from its representation on the stream.

**readably** adv. (of a manner of printing an object  $O_1$ ) in such a way as to permit the Lisp Reader to later parse the printed output into an object  $O_2$  that is similar to  $O_1$ .

**reader** n. 1. a function that  $reads_1$  a variable or slot. 2. the Lisp reader.

reader macro n. 1. a textual notation introduced by dispatch on one or two characters that defines special-purpose syntax for use by the Lisp reader, and that is implemented by a reader macro function. See Section 2.2 (Reader Algorithm). 2. the character or characters that introduce a reader macro; that is, a macro character or the conceptual pairing of a dispatching macro character and the character that follows it. (A reader macro is not a kind of macro.)

reader macro function n. a function designator that denotes a function that implements a reader macro<sub>2</sub>. See the functions set-macro-character and set-dispatch-macro-character.

 ${f readtable}$  n. an object of type  ${f readtable}$ .

**readtable case** n. an attribute of a readtable whose value is a case sensitivity mode, and that selects the manner in which characters in a symbol's name are to be treated by the Lisp reader and the Lisp printer. See Section 23.1.2 (Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Reader) and Section 22.1.3.3.2 (Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Printer).

**readtable designator** n. a designator for a readtable; that is, an object that denotes a readtable and that is one of: **nil** (denoting the standard readtable), or a readtable (denoting itself).

**recognizable subtype** *n.* (of a *type*) a *subtype* of the *type* which can be reliably detected to be such by the *implementation*. See the *function* **subtypep**.

**reference** n., v.t. 1. n. an act or occurrence of referring to an object, a binding, an exit point, a tag, or an environment. 2. v.t. to refer to an object, a binding, an exit point, a tag, or an environment, usually by name.

**registered package** n. a package object that is installed in the package registry. (Every registered package has a name that is a string, as well as zero or more string nicknames. All packages that are initially specified by Common Lisp or created by **make-package** or **defpackage** are registered packages. Registered packages can be turned into unregistered packages by **delete-package**.)

relative adj. 1. (of a time) representing an offset from an absolute time in the units appropriate to that time. For example, a relative internal time is the difference between two absolute internal times, and is measured in internal time units. 2. (of a pathname) representing a position in a directory hierarchy by motion from a position other than the root, which might therefore vary. "The notation #P"../foo.text" denotes a relative pathname if the host file system is Unix." See absolute.

**repertoire** n., ISO a subtype of **character**. See Section 13.1.2.2 (Character Repertoires).

**report** n. (of a condition) to call the function **print-object** on the condition in an environment where the value of \***print-escape**\* is false.

**report message** *n*. the text that is output by a *condition reporter*.

**required parameter** n. A parameter for which a corresponding positional argument must be supplied when calling the function.

**rest list** n. (of a function having a rest parameter) The list to which the rest parameter is bound on some particular call to the function.

rest parameter n. A parameter which was introduced by &rest.

**restart** *n*. an *object* of *type* **restart**.

**restart designator** n. a designator for a restart; that is, an object that denotes a restart and that is one of: a non-nil symbol (denoting the most recently established active restart whose name is that symbol), or a restart (denoting itself).

**restart function** n. a function that invokes a restart, as if by **invoke-restart**. The primary purpose of a restart function is to provide an alternate interface. By convention, a restart function usually has the same name as the restart which it invokes. Figure 26–4 shows a list of the standardized restart functions.

abort	muffle-warning	use-value
continue	store-value	

Figure 26–4. Standardized Restart Functions

**return** v.t. (of values) 1. (from a block) to transfer control and values from the block; that is, to cause the block to yield the values immediately without doing any further evaluation of the forms in its body. 2. (from a form) to yield the values.

return value n. Trad. a  $value_1$ 

**right-parenthesis** *n.* the *standard character* ")", that is variously called "right parenthesis" or "close parenthesis" See Figure 2–5.

run time n. 1. load time 2. execution time

**run-time compiler** *n*. refers to the **compile** function or to *implicit compilation*, for which the compilation and run-time *environments* are maintained in the same *Lisp image*.

run-time definition n. a definition in the run-time environment.

**run-time environment** n. the *environment* in which a program is *executed*.

 $\mathbf{S}$ 

safe adj. 1. (of code) processed in a lexical environment where the highest safety level (3) was in effect. See optimize. 2. (of a call) a safe call.

safe call n. a call in which the call, the function being called, and the point of functional evaluation are all  $safe_1$  code. For more detailed information, see Section 3.5.1.1 (Safe and Unsafe Calls).

same adj. 1. (of objects under a specified predicate) indistinguishable by that predicate. "The symbol car, the string "car", and the string "CAR" are the same under string-equal". 2. (of objects if no predicate is implied by context) indistinguishable by eql. Note that eq might be capable of distinguishing some numbers and characters which eql cannot distinguish, but the nature of such, if any, is implementation-dependent. Since eq is used only rarely in this specification, eql is the default predicate when none is mentioned explicitly. "The conses returned by two successive calls to cons are never the same." 3. (of types) having the same set of elements; that is, each type is a subtype of the others. "The types specified by (integer 0 1), (unsigned-byte 1), and bit are the same."

satisfy the test v. (of an object being considered by a sequence function) 1. (for a one argument test) to be in a state such that the function which is the predicate argument to the sequence function returns true when given a single argument that is the result of calling the sequence function's key argument on the object being considered. See Section 17.2.2 (Satisfying a One-Argument Test). 2. (for a two argument test) to be in a state such that the two-place predicate which is the sequence function's test

argument returns true when given a first argument that is the object being considered, and when given a second argument that is the result of calling the sequence function's key argument on an element of the sequence function's sequence argument which is being tested for equality; or to be in a state such that the test-not function returns false given the same arguments. See Section 17.2.1 (Satisfying a Two-Argument Test).

**scope** n. the structural or textual region of code in which references to an object, a binding, an exit point, a tag, or an environment (usually by name) can occur.

script n. ISO one of possibly several sets that form an exhaustive partition of the type character. See Section 13.1.2.1 (Character Scripts).

**secondary value** n. (of values resulting from the evaluation of a form) the second value, if any, or else nil if there are fewer than two values. "The secondary value returned by **truncate** is a remainder."

**section** n. a partitioning of output by a conditional newline on a pretty printing stream. See Section 22.2.1.1 (Dynamic Control of the Arrangement of Output).

self-evaluating object n. an object that is neither a symbol nor a cons. If a self-evaluating object is evaluated, it yields itself as its only value. "Strings are self-evaluating objects."

**semi-standard** adj. (of a language feature) not required to be implemented by any conforming implementation, but nevertheless recommended as the canonical approach in situations where an *implementation* does plan to support such a feature. The presence of semi-standard aspects in the language is intended to lessen portability problems and reduce the risk of gratuitous divergence among implementations that might stand in the way of future standardization.

**semicolon** n. the standard character that is called "semicolon" (;). See Figure 2–5.

**sequence** n. 1. an ordered collection of elements 2. a *vector* or a *list*.

sequence function n one of the functions in Figure 17–1, or an implementationdefined function that operates on one or more sequences, and that is defined by the implementation to be a sequence function.

**sequential** adj. Trad. (of binding or assignment) done in the style of **setq**, **let\***, or do\*; that is, interleaving the evaluation of the forms that produce values with the assignments or bindings of the variables (or places). See parallel.

**sequentially** adv. in a sequential way.

**serious condition** *n.* a *condition* of *type* **serious-condition**, which represents a *situation* that is generally sufficiently severe that entry into the *debugger* should be expected if the *condition* is *signaled* but not *handled*.

**session** n. the conceptual aggregation of events in a  $Lisp\ image$  from the time it is started to the time it is terminated.

**set** v.t. Trad. (any variable or a symbol that is the name of a dynamic variable) to assign the variable.

**setf expander** n. a function used by **setf** to compute the *setf expansion* of a *place*.

**setf expansion** n. a set of five  $expressions_1$  that, taken together, describe how to store into a *place* and which subforms of the macro call associated with the *place* are evaluated. See Section 5.1.1.2 (Setf Expansions).

setf function n. a function whose name is (setf symbol).

setf function name n. (of a symbol S) the list (setf S).

**shadow** v.t. 1. to override the meaning of. "That binding of X shadows an outer one." 2. to hide the presence of. "That **macrolet** of F shadows the outer **flet** of F." 3. to replace. "That package shadows the symbol cl:car with its own symbol car."

**shadowing symbol** n. (in a package) an element of the package's shadowing symbols list.

**shadowing symbols list** n. (of a package) a list, associated with the package, of symbols that are to be exempted from 'symbol conflict errors' detected when packages are used. See the function package-shadowing-symbols.

shared slot n. (of a class) a slot accessible in more than one instance of a class; specifically, such a slot is accessible in all direct instances of the class and in those indirect instances whose class does not  $shadow_1$  the slot.

**sharpsign** *n.* the *standard character* that is variously called "number sign," "sharp," or "sharp sign" (#). See Figure 2–5.

**short float** *n*. an *object* of *type* **short-float**.

**sign** *n*. one of the *standard characters* "+" or "-".

**signal** v. to announce, using a standard protocol, that a particular situation, represented by a *condition*, has been detected. See Section 9.1 (Condition System Concepts).

**signature** n. (of a method) a description of the parameters and parameter specializers for the method which determines the method's applicability for a given set of required arguments, and which also describes the argument conventions for its other, non-required arguments.

**similar** adj. (of two objects) defined to be equivalent under the similarity relationship.

**similarity** n. a two-place conceptual equivalence predicate, which is independent of the Lisp image so that two objects in different Lisp images can be understood to be equivalent under this predicate. See Section 3.2.4 (Literal Objects in Compiled Files).

simple adj. 1. (of an array) being of type simple-array. 2. (of a character) having no implementation-defined attributes, or else having implementation-defined attributes each of which has the null value for that attribute.

simple array n. an array of type simple-array.

**simple bit array** n. a bit array that is a simple array; that is, an object of type (simple-array bit).

simple bit vector n. a bit vector of type simple-bit-vector.

simple condition n. a condition of type simple-condition.

simple general vector n. a simple vector.

simple string n. a string of type simple-string.

**simple vector** n. a vector of type **simple-vector**, sometimes called a "simple general vector." Not all vectors that are simple are simple vectors—only those that have element type t.

single escape n., adj. 1. n. the syntax type of a character that indicates that the next character is to be treated as an alphabetic, character with its case preserved. For details, see Section 2.1.4.6 (Single Escape Character). 2. adj. (of a character) having the single escape syntax type. 3. n. a single escape, character. (In the standard readtable, slash is the only single escape.)

single float n. an object of type single-float.

single-quote n. the standard character that is variously called "apostrophe," "acute accent," "quote," or "single quote" (,). See Figure 2–5.

singleton adj. (of a sequence) having only one element. "(list 'hello) returns a singleton list.'

**situation** n. the evaluation of a form in a specific environment.

**slash** n. the *standard character* that is variously called "solidus" or "slash" (/). See Figure 2–5.

**slot** n. a component of an *object* that can store a *value*.

**slot specifier** *n*. a representation of a *slot* that includes the *name* of the *slot* and zero or more *slot* options. A *slot* option pertains only to a single *slot*.

**source code** *n. code* representing *objects* suitable for *evaluation* (*e.g.*, *objects* created by **read**, by *macro expansion*, or by *compiler macro expansion*).

**source file** n. a file which contains a textual representation of source code, that can be edited, loaded, or compiled.

**space** n. the standard character  $\langle Space \rangle$ , notated for the Lisp reader as #\Space.

**special form** n. a list, other than a macro form, which is a form with special syntax or special evaluation rules or both, possibly manipulating the evaluation environment or control flow or both. The first element of a special form is a special operator.

**special operator** n. one of a fixed set of symbols, enumerated in Figure 3–2, that may appear in the car of a form in order to identify the form as a special form.

special variable n. Trad. a dynamic variable.

**specialize** v.t. (a generic function) to define a method for the generic function, or in other words, to refine the behavior of the generic function by giving it a specific meaning for a particular set of classes or arguments.

**specialized** adj. 1. (of a generic function) having methods which specialize the generic function. 2. (of an array) having an actual array element type that is a proper subtype of the type t; see Section 15.1.1 (Array Elements). "(make-array 5 :element-type 'bit) makes an array of length five that is specialized for bits."

**specialized lambda list** n. an extended lambda list used in forms that establish method definitions, such as **defmethod**. See Section 3.4.3 (Specialized Lambda Lists).

spreadable argument list designator n. a designator for a list of objects; that is, an object that denotes a list and that is a non-null list L1 of length n, whose last element is a list L2 of length m (denoting a list L3 of length m+n-1 whose elements are  $L1_i$  for i < n-1 followed by  $L2_j$  for j < m). "The list  $(1\ 2\ (3\ 4\ 5))$  is a spreadable argument list designator for the list  $(1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5)$ ."

stack allocate v.t. Trad. to allocate in a non-permanent way, such as on a stack. Stack-allocation is an optimization technique used in some *implementations* for allocating certain kinds of objects that have dynamic extent. Such objects are allocated on the stack rather than in the heap so that their storage can be freed as part of unwinding the stack rather than taking up space in the heap until the next garbage collection. What types (if any) can have dynamic extent can vary from implementation to implementation. No implementation is ever required to perform stack-allocation.

stack-allocated adj. Trad. having been stack allocated.

**standard character** *n.* a *character* of *type* **standard-char**, which is one of a fixed set of 96 such *characters* required to be present in all *conforming implementations*. See Section 2.1.3 (Standard Characters).

standard class n. a class that is a generalized instance of class standard-class.

standard generic function a function of type standard-generic-function.

**standard input** n. the input stream which is the value of the dynamic variable \*standard-input\*.

standard method combination n. the method combination named standard.

standard object n. an object that is a generalized instance of class standard-object.

**standard output** *n*. the *output stream* which is the *value* of the *dynamic variable* \*standard-output\*.

standard pprint dispatch table n. A pprint dispatch table that is different from the initial pprint dispatch table, that implements pretty printing as described in this specification, and that, unlike other pprint dispatch tables, must never be modified by any program. (Although the definite reference "the standard pprint dispatch table" is generally used within this document, it is actually implementation-dependent whether a single object fills the role of the standard pprint dispatch table, or whether there might be multiple such objects, any one of which could be used on any given occasion where "the standard pprint dispatch table" is called for. As such, this phrase should be seen as an indefinite reference in all cases except for anaphoric references.)

standard readtable n. A readtable that is different from the initial readtable, that implements the expression syntax defined in this specification, and that, unlike other readtables, must never be modified by any program. (Although the definite reference "the standard readtable" is generally used within this document, it is actually implementation-dependent whether a single object fills the role of the standard readtable, or whether there might be multiple such objects, any one of which could be used on any given occasion where "the standard readtable" is called for. As such,

this phrase should be seen as an indefinite reference in all cases except for anaphoric references.)

**standard syntax** *n*. the syntax represented by the *standard readtable* and used as a reference syntax throughout this document. See Section 2.1 (Character Syntax).

**standardized** adj. (of a name, object, or definition) having been defined by Common Lisp. "All standardized variables that are required to hold bidirectional streams have "-io\*" in their name."

**startup environment** n. the global environment of the running Lisp image from which the compiler was invoked.

**step** v.t., n. 1. v.t. (an iteration variable) to assign the variable a new value at the end of an iteration, in preparation for a new iteration. 2. n. the code that identifies how the next value in an iteration is to be computed. 3. v.t. (code) to specially execute the code, pausing at intervals to allow user confirmation or intervention, usually for debugging.

**stream** n. an object that can be used with an input or output function to identify an appropriate source or sink of characters or bytes for that operation.

stream associated with a file n. a file stream, or a synonym stream the target of which is a stream associated with a file. Such a stream cannot be created with make-two-way-stream, make-echo-stream, make-broadcast-stream, make-concatenated-stream, make-string-input-stream, or make-string-output-stream.

**stream designator** n. a designator for a stream; that is, an object that denotes a stream and that is one of: t (denoting the value of \*terminal-io\*), nil (denoting the value of \*standard-input\* for input stream designators or denoting the value of \*standard-output\* for output stream designators), or a stream (denoting itself).

**stream element type** n. (of a stream) the type of data for which the stream is specialized.

**stream variable** n. a variable whose value must be a stream.

**stream variable designator** n. a designator for a stream variable; that is, a symbol that denotes a stream variable and that is one of: **t** (denoting \*terminal-io\*), nil (denoting \*standard-input\* for input stream variable designators or denoting \*standard-output\* for output stream variable designators), or some other symbol (denoting itself).

**string** n. a specialized *vector* that is of *type* **string**, and whose elements are of *type* **character** or a *subtype* of *type* **character**.

**string designator** n. a designator for a string; that is, an object that denotes a string and that is one of: a character (denoting a singleton string that has the character as its only element), a symbol (denoting the string that is its name), or a string (denoting itself). The intent is that this term be consistent with the behavior of string; implementations that extend string must extend the meaning of this term in a compatible way.

string equal adj. the same under string-equal.

string stream n. a stream of type string-stream.

**structure** *n.* an *object* of *type* **structure-object**.

structure class n. a class that is a generalized instance of class structure-class.

**structure name** n. a name defined with **defstruct**. Usually, such a type is also a structure class, but there may be implementation-dependent situations in which this is not so, if the :type option to defstruct is used.

style warning n. a condition of type style-warning.

subclass n. a class that inherits from another class, called a superclass. (No class is a *subclass* of itself.)

subexpression n. (of an expression) an expression that is contained within the expression. (In fact, the state of being a subexpression is not an attribute of the subexpression, but really an attribute of the containing expression since the same object can at once be a subexpression in one context, and not in another.)

**subform** n. (of a form) an expression that is a subexpression of the form, and which by virtue of its position in that form is also a form. "(f x) and x, but not exit, are subforms of (return-from exit (f x))."

**subrepertoire** n. a subset of a repertoire.

**subtype** n. a type whose membership is the same as or a proper subset of the membership of another type, called a supertype. (Every type is a subtype of itself.)

superclass n. a class from which another class (called a subclass) inherits. (No class is a *superclass* of itself.) See *subclass*.

**supertype** n. a type whose membership is the same as or a proper superset of the membership of another type, called a subtype. (Every type is a supertype of itself.) See subtype.

**supplied-p parameter** n. a parameter which recieves its generalized boolean value implicitly due to the presence or absence of an argument corresponding to another parameter (such as an optional parameter or a rest parameter). See Section 3.4.1 (Ordinary Lambda Lists).

**symbol** *n*. an *object* of *type* **symbol**.

symbol macro n. a symbol that stands for another form. See the macro symbol-macrolet.

**synonym stream** n. 1. a stream of type **synonym-stream**, which is consequently a stream that is an alias for another stream, which is the value of a dynamic variable whose name is the synonym stream symbol of the synonym stream. See the function **make-synonym-stream**. 2. (to a stream) a synonym stream which has the stream as the value of its synonym stream symbol. 3. (to a symbol) a synonym stream which has the symbol as its synonym stream symbol.

**synonym stream symbol** n. (of a synonym stream) the symbol which names the  $dynamic \ variable$  which has as its value another stream for which the  $synonym \ stream$  is an alias.

**syntax type** *n.* (of a *character*) one of several classifications, enumerated in Figure 2–6, that are used for dispatch during parsing by the *Lisp reader*. See Section 2.1.4 (Character Syntax Types).

system class n. a class that may be of type built-in-class in a conforming implementation and hence cannot be inherited by classes defined by conforming programs.

**system code** n. code supplied by the *implementation* to implement this specification (e.g., the definition of **mapcar**) or generated automatically in support of this specification (e.g., during method combination); that is, code that is not programmer code.

 $\mathbf{T}$ 

t n. 1. a. the boolean representing true. b. the canonical generalized boolean representing true. (Although any object other than nil is considered true as a generalized boolean, t is generally used when there is no special reason to prefer one such object over another.) 2. the name of the type to which all objects belong—the supertype of all types (including itself). 3. the name of the superclass of all classes except itself.

tag n. 1. a catch tag. 2. a go tag.

tail n. (of a list) an object that is the same as either some cons which makes up that list or the atom (if any) which terminates the list. "The empty list is a tail of every proper list."

target n. 1. (of a constructed stream) a constituent of the constructed stream. "The target of a synonym stream is the value of its synonym stream symbol." 2. (of a displaced array) the array to which the displaced array is displaced. (In the case of a chain of constructed streams or displaced arrays, the unqualified term "target" always refers to the immediate target of the first item in the chain, not the immediate target of the last item.)

terminal I/O n. the bidirectional stream that is the value of the variable \*terminal-io\*.

**terminating** n. (of a macro character) being such that, if it appears while parsing a token, it terminates that token. See Section 2.2 (Reader Algorithm).

**tertiary value** n. (of values resulting from the evaluation of a form) the third value, if any, or else **nil** if there are fewer than three values.

**throw** v. to transfer control and values to a catch. See the special operator **throw**.

tilde n. the standard character that is called "tilde" (~). See Figure 2–5.

time a representation of a point (absolute time) or an interval (relative time) on a time line. See decoded time, internal time, and universal time.

time zone n. a rational multiple of 1/3600 between -24 (inclusive) and 24 (inclusive) that represents a time zone as a number of hours offset from Greenwich Mean Time. Time zone values increase with motion to the west, so Massachusetts, U.S.A. is in time zone 5, California, U.S.A. is time zone 8, and Moscow, Russia is time zone -3. (When "daylight savings time" is separately represented as an argument or return value, the time zone that accompanies it does not depend on whether daylight savings time is in effect.)

token n. a textual representation for a number or a symbol. See Section 2.3 (Interpretation of Tokens).

top level form n. a form which is processed specially by compile-file for the purposes of enabling compile time evaluation of that form. Top level forms include those forms which are not subforms of any other form, and certain other cases. See Section 3.2.3.1 (Processing of Top Level Forms).

trace output n. the output stream which is the value of the dynamic variable \*trace-output\*.

tree n. 1. a binary recursive data structure made up of conses and atoms: the conses are themselves also trees (sometimes called "subtrees" or "branches"), and the atoms are terminal nodes (sometimes called leaves). Typically, the leaves represent data while the branches establish some relationship among that data. 2. in general, any recursive data structure that has some notion of "branches" and leaves.

tree structure n. (of a  $tree_1$ ) the set of conses that make up the tree. Note that while the  $car_{1b}$  component of each such cons is part of the tree structure, the objects that are the  $cars_2$  of each cons in the tree are not themselves part of its tree structure unless they are also conses.

**true** n. any object that is not false and that is used to represent the success of a predicate test. See  $t_1$ .

**truename** n. 1. the canonical filename of a file in the file system. See Section 20.1.3 (Truenames). 2. a pathname representing a truename<sub>1</sub>.

**two-way stream** n. a stream of type **two-way-stream**, which is a bidirectional composite stream that receives its input from an associated input stream and sends its output to an associated output stream.

**type** n. 1. a set of *objects*, usually with common structure, behavior, or purpose. (Note that the expression "X is of type  $S_a$ " naturally implies that "X is of type  $S_b$ " if  $S_a$  is a *subtype* of  $S_b$ .) 2. (immediately following the name of a *type*) a *subtype* of that type. "The type **vector** is an array type."

**type declaration** n. a declaration that asserts that every reference to a specified binding within the scope of the declaration results in some object of the specified type.

**type equivalent** adj. (of two  $types\ X$  and Y) having the same elements; that is, X is a subtype of Y and Y is a subtype of X.

**type expand** n. to fully expand a type specifier, removing any references to derived types. (Common Lisp provides no program interface to cause this to occur, but the semantics of Common Lisp are such that every implementation must be able to do this internally, and some situations involving type specifiers are most easily described in terms of a fully expanded type specifier.)

type specifier n. an expression that denotes a type. "The symbol random-state, the list (integer 3 5), the list (and list (not null)), and the class named standard-class are type specifiers."

 $\mathbf{U}$ 

**unbound** adj. not having an associated denotation in a binding. See bound.

**unbound variable** n. a name that is syntactically plausible as the name of a variable but which is not bound in the variable namespace.

undefined function n. a name that is syntactically plausible as the name of a function but which is not bound in the function namespace.

unintern v.t. (a symbol in a package) to make the symbol not be present in that package. (The symbol might continue to be accessible by inheritance.)

**uninterned** adj. (of a symbol) not accessible in any package; i.e., not interned<sub>1</sub>.

**universal time** n. time, represented as a non-negative integer number of seconds. Absolute universal time is measured as an offset from the beginning of the year 1900 (ignoring leap seconds). See Section 25.1.4.2 (Universal Time).

**unqualified method** *n.* a *method* with no *qualifiers*.

unregistered package n. a package object that is not present in the package registry. An unregistered package has no name; i.e., its name is nil. See the function delete-package.

unsafe adj. (of code) not safe. (Note that, unless explicitly specified otherwise, if a particular kind of error checking is guaranteed only in a safe context, the same checking might or might not occur in that context if it were unsafe; describing a context as unsafe means that certain kinds of error checking are not reliably enabled but does not guarantee that error checking is definitely disabled.)

**unsafe call** n. a call that is not a safe call. For more detailed information, see Section 3.5.1.1 (Safe and Unsafe Calls).

**upgrade** v.t. (a declared type to an actual type) 1. (when creating an array) to substitute an actual array element type for an expressed array element type when choosing an appropriately specialized array representation. See the function upgraded-array-element-type. 2. (when creating a complex) to substitute an actual complex part type for an expressed complex part type when choosing an appropriately specialized complex representation. See the function upgraded-complex-part-type.

**upgraded array element type** n. (of a type) a type that is a supertype of the type and that is used instead of the type whenever the type is used as an array element type for object creation or type discrimination. See Section 15.1.2.1 (Array Upgrading).

**upgraded complex part type** n. (of a type) a type that is a supertype of the type and that is used instead of the type whenever the type is used as a complex part type for object creation or type discrimination. See the function upgraded-complex-part-type. **uppercase** adj. (of a character) being among standard characters corresponding to the capital letters A through Z, or being some other implementation-defined character that is defined by the implementation to be uppercase. See Section 13.1.4.3 (Characters With Case).

use v.t. (a package  $P_1$ ) to inherit the external symbols of  $P_1$ . (If a package  $P_2$  uses  $P_1$ , the external symbols of  $P_1$  become internal symbols of  $P_2$  unless they are explicitly exported.) "The package CL-USER uses the package CL."

use list n. (of a package) a (possibly empty) list associated with each package which determines what other packages are currently being used by that package.

**user** n. an active entity, typically a human, that invokes or interacts with a program at run time, but that is not necessarily a programmer.

 $\mathbf{V}$ 

valid array dimension n. a fixnum suitable for use as an array dimension. Such a fixnum must be greater than or equal to zero, and less than the value of array-dimension-limit. When multiple array dimensions are to be used together to specify a multi-dimensional array, there is also an implied constraint that the product of all of the dimensions be less than the value of array-total-size-limit.

valid array index n. (of an array) a fixnum suitable for use as one of possibly several indices needed to name an element of the array according to a multi-dimensional Cartesian coordinate system. Such a fixnum must be greater than or equal to zero, and must be less than the corresponding  $dimension_1$  of the array. (Unless otherwise explicitly specified, the phrase "a list of valid array indices" further implies that the length of the list must be the same as the rank of the array.) "For a 2 by 3 array, valid array indices for the first dimension are 0 and 1, and valid array indices for the second dimension are 0, 1 and 2."

valid array row-major index n. (of an array, which might have any number of  $dimensions_2$ ) a single fixnum suitable for use in naming any element of the array, by viewing the array's storage as a linear series of elements in row-major order. Such a fixnum must be greater than or equal to zero, and less than the array total size of the array.

**valid fill pointer** *n.* (of an *array*) a *fixnum* suitable for use as a *fill pointer* for the *array*. Such a *fixnum* must be greater than or equal to zero, and less than or equal to the *array total size* of the *array*.

valid logical pathname host n. a string that has been defined as the name of a logical host. See the function load-logical-pathname-translations.

valid pathname device n. a string, nil, :unspecific, or some other object defined by the implementation to be a valid pathname device.

valid pathname directory n. a string, a list of strings, nil, :wild, :unspecific, or some other object defined by the implementation to be a valid directory component.

valid pathname host n. a valid physical pathname host or a valid logical pathname host.

valid pathname name n. a string, nil, :wild, :unspecific, or some other object defined by the *implementation* to be a valid pathname name.

valid pathname type n. a string, nil, :wild, :unspecific.

valid pathname version n. a non-negative integer, or one of :wild, :newest, :unspecific, or nil. The symbols :oldest, :previous, and :installed are semistandard special version symbols.

valid physical pathname host n. any of a string, a list of strings, or the symbol :unspecific, that is recognized by the implementation as the name of a host.

valid sequence index n. (of a sequence) an integer suitable for use to name an element of the sequence. Such an integer must be greater than or equal to zero, and must be less than the length of the sequence. (If the sequence is an array, the valid sequence index is further constrained to be a fixnum.)

**value** n. 1. a. one of possibly several *objects* that are the result of an *evaluation*. b. (in a situation where exactly one value is expected from the evaluation of a form) the primary value returned by the form. c. (of forms in an implicit progn) one of possibly several objects that result from the evaluation of the last form, or nil if there are no forms. 2. an object associated with a name in a binding. 3. (of a symbol) the value of the dynamic variable named by that symbol. 4. an object associated with a key in an association list, a property list, or a hash table.

value cell n. Trad. (of a symbol) The place which holds the value, if any, of the dynamic variable named by that symbol, and which is accessed by symbol-value. See cell.

variable n. a binding in the "variable" namespace. See Section 3.1.2.1.1 (Symbols as Forms).

**vector** n. a one-dimensional array.

**vertical-bar** n. the standard character that is called "vertical bar" (1). See Figure 2–5.

 $\mathbf{W}$ 

whitespace n. 1. one or more characters that are either the graphic character #\Space or else non-graphic characters such as #\Newline that only move the print position. 2. a. n. the syntax type of a character that is a token separator. For details, see Section 2.1.4.7 (Whitespace Characters). b. adj. (of a character) having the whitespace<sub>2a</sub> syntax type<sub>2</sub>. c. n. a whitespace<sub>2b</sub> character.

wild adj. 1. (of a namestring) using an implementation-defined syntax for naming files, which might "match" any of possibly several possible filenames, and which can therefore be used to refer to the aggregate of the files named by those filenames. 2. (of a pathname) a structured representation of a name which might "match" any of possibly several pathnames, and which can therefore be used to refer to the aggregate of the files named by those pathnames. The set of wild pathnames includes, but is not restricted to, pathnames which have a component which is :wild, or which have a directory component which contains :wild or :wild-inferors. See the function wild-pathname-p.

write v.t. 1. (a binding or slot or component) to change the value of the binding or slot. 2. (an object to a stream) to output a representation of the object to the stream.

writer n. a function that writes<sub>1</sub> a variable or slot.

 $\mathbf{Y}$ 

yield  $v.t.\ (values)$  to produce the values as the result of evaluation. "The form (+ 2 3) yields 5."

# Programming Language—Common Lisp

A. Appendix

# A.1 Removed Language Features

#### A.1.1 Requirements for removed and deprecated features

For this standard, some features from the language described in *Common Lisp: The Language* have been removed, and others have been deprecated (and will most likely not appear in future Common Lisp standards). Which features were removed and which were deprecated was decided on a case-by-case basis by the X3J13 committee.

Conforming implementations that wish to retain any removed features for compatibility must assure that such compatibility does not interfere with the correct function of conforming programs. For example, symbols corresponding to the names of removed functions may not appear in the the COMMON-LISP package. (Note, however, that this specification has been devised in such a way that there can be a package named LISP which can contain such symbols.)

Conforming implementations must implement all deprecated features. For a list of deprecated features, see Section 1.8 (Deprecated Language Features).

#### A.1.2 Removed Types

The type string-char was removed.

#### A.1.3 Removed Operators

The functions int-char, char-bits, char-font, make-char, char-bit, set-char-bit, string-char-p, and commonp were removed.

The special operator compiler-let was removed.

# A.1.4 Removed Argument Conventions

The *font* argument to **digit-char** was removed. The *bits* and *font* arguments to **code-char** were removed.

#### A.1.5 Removed Variables

The variables char-font-limit, char-bits-limit, char-control-bit, char-meta-bit, char-super-bit, char-hyper-bit, and \*break-on-warnings\* were removed.

# A.1.6 Removed Reader Syntax

The "#," reader macro in standard syntax was removed.

### A.1.7 Packages No Longer Required

The packages LISP, USER, and SYSTEM are no longer required. It is valid for packages with one or more of these names to be provided by a conforming implementation as extensions.

Appendix A-1