# Programming Language—Common Lisp

2. Syntax

# 2.1 Character Syntax

The Lisp reader takes characters from a stream, interprets them as a printed representation of an object, constructs that object, and returns it.

The syntax described by this chapter is called the **standard syntax**. Operations are provided by Common Lisp so that various aspects of the syntax information represented by a *readtable* can be modified under program control; see Chapter 23 (Reader). Except as explicitly stated otherwise, the syntax used throughout this document is *standard syntax*.

# 2.1.1 Readtables

Syntax information for use by the *Lisp reader* is embodied in an *object* called a **readtable**. Among other things, the *readtable* contains the association between *characters* and *syntax types*.

Figure 2–1 lists some defined names that are applicable to readtables.

*readtable*	readtable-case
${f copy-readtable}$	readtablep
get-dispatch-macro-character	set-dispatch-macro-character
get-macro-character	set-macro-character
make-dispatch-macro-character	set-syntax-from-char

Figure 2-1. Readtable defined names

# 2.1.1.1 The Current Readtable

Several readtables describing different syntaxes can exist, but at any given time only one, called the current readtable, affects the way in which expressions<sub>2</sub> are parsed into objects by the Lisp reader. The current readtable in a given dynamic environment is the value of \*readtable\* in that environment. To make a different readtable become the current readtable, \*readtable\* can be assigned or bound.

#### 2.1.1.2 The Standard Readtable

The **standard readtable** conforms to **standard syntax**. The consequences are undefined if an attempt is made to modify the **standard readtable**. To achieve the effect of altering or extending **standard syntax**, a copy of the **standard readtable** can be created; see the **function copy-readtable**.

The readtable case of the standard readtable is :upcase.

#### 2.1.1.3 The Initial Readtable

The *initial readtable* is the *readtable* that is the *current readtable* at the time when the *Lisp image* starts. At that time, it conforms to *standard syntax*. The *initial readtable* is *distinct* from the *standard readtable*. It is permissible for a *conforming program* to modify the *initial readtable*.

# 2.1.2 Variables that affect the Lisp Reader

The Lisp reader is influenced not only by the current readtable, but also by various dynamic variables. Figure 2–2 lists the variables that influence the behavior of the Lisp reader.



Figure 2-2. Variables that influence the Lisp reader.

### 2.1.3 Standard Characters

All *implementations* must support a *character repertoire* called **standard-char**; *characters* that are members of that *repertoire* are called **standard characters**.

The standard-char repertoire consists of the non-graphic character newline, the graphic character space, and the following additional ninety-four graphic characters or their equivalents:

Graphic ID	Glyph	Description	Graphic ID	Glyph	Description
LA01	a	small a	LN01	n	small n
LA02	A	capital A	LN02	N	capital N
LB01	Ъ	small b	LO01	0	small o
LB02	В	capital B	LO02	0	capital O
LC01	С	small c	LP01	p	small p
LC02	C	capital C	LP02	P	capital P
LD01	d	small d	LQ01	q	$\operatorname{small} q$
LD02	D	capital D	LQ02	Q	capital Q
LE01	е	small e	LR01	r	small r
LE02	E	capital E	LR02	R	capital R
LF01	f	small f	LS01	s	small s
LF02	F	capital F	LS02	S	capital S
LG01	g	$\operatorname{small} g$	LT01	t	small t
LG02	G	capital G	LT02	T	capital T
LH01	h	small h	LU01	u	small u
LH02	H	capital H	LU02	U	capital U
LI01	i	small i	LV01	v	small v
LI02	I	capital I	LV02	V	capital V
LJ01	j	$\operatorname{small} j$	LW01	W	small w
LJ02	J	capital J	LW02	W	capital W
LK01	k	small k	LX01	x	small x
LK02	K	capital K	LX02	X	capital X
LL01	1	small l	LY01	У	small y
LL02	L	capital L	LY02	Y	capital Y
LM01	m	$\operatorname{small} m$	LZ01	z	$\operatorname{small} z$
LM02	M	capital M	LZ02	Z	capital Z

Figure 2–3. Standard Character Subrepertoire (Part 1 of 3: Latin Characters)

Graphic	ID Glyph	Description	Graphic ID	Glyph	Description
ND01	1	digit 1	ND06	6	digit 6
ND02	2	digit 2	ND07	7	digit 7
ND03	3	digit 3	ND08	8	digit 8
ND04	4	digit 4	ND09	9	digit 9
ND05	5	digit 5	ND10	0	digit 0

Figure 2–4. Standard Character Subrepertoire (Part 2 of 3: Numeric Characters)

Graphic ID	Glyph	Description	
SP02	!	exclamation mark	
SC03	\$	dollar sign	
SP04	II	quotation mark, or double quote	
SP05	,	apostrophe, or [single] quote	
SP06	(	left parenthesis, or open parenthesis	
SP07	)	right parenthesis, or close parenthesis	
SP08	,	comma	
SP09	_	low line, or underscore	
SP10	-	hyphen, or minus [sign]	
SP11	•	full stop, period, or dot	
SP12	/	solidus, or slash	
SP13	:	colon	
SP14	;	semicolon	
SP15	?	question mark	
SA01	+	plus [sign]	
SA03	<	less-than [sign]	
SA04	=	equals [sign]	
SA05	>	greater-than [sign]	
SM01	#	number sign, or sharp[sign]	
SM02	%	percent [sign]	
SM03	&	ampersand	
SM04	*	asterisk, or star	
SM05	@	commercial at, or at-sign	
SM06	[	left [square] bracket	
SM07	\	reverse solidus, or backslash	
SM08	]	right [square] bracket	
SM11	{	left curly bracket, or left brace	
SM13	1	vertical bar	
SM14	}	right curly bracket, or right brace	
SD13	(	grave accent, or backquote	
SD15	^	circumflex accent	
SD19	~	tilde	

Figure 2-5. Standard Character Subrepertoire (Part 3 of 3: Special Characters)

The graphic IDs are not used within Common Lisp, but are provided for cross reference purposes with ISO 6937/2. Note that the first letter of the graphic ID categorizes the character as follows: L—Latin, N—Numeric, S—Special.

# 2.1.4 Character Syntax Types

The Lisp reader constructs an object from the input text by interpreting each character according to its syntax type. The Lisp reader cannot accept as input everything that the Lisp printer

produces, and the *Lisp reader* has features that are not used by the *Lisp printer*. The *Lisp reader* can be used as a lexical analyzer for a more general user-written parser.

When the *Lisp reader* is invoked, it reads a single character from the *input stream* and dispatches according to the **syntax type** of that *character*. Every *character* that can appear in the *input stream* is of one of the *syntax types* shown in Figure 2–6.

constituent	$macro\ character$	$single\ escape$	
invalid	$multiple\ escape$	$white space_2$	

Figure 2–6. Possible Character Syntax Types

The *syntax type* of a *character* in a *readtable* determines how that character is interpreted by the *Lisp reader* while that *readtable* is the *current readtable*. At any given time, every character has exactly one *syntax type*.

Figure 2–7 lists the syntax type of each character in standard syntax.

character	syntax type	character	syntax type
Backspace	constituent	0–9	constituent
Tab	$white space_2$	:	constituent
Newline	$white space_2$	;	terminating macro char
Linefeed	$white space_2$	<	constituent
Page	$white space_2$	=	constituent
Return	$white space_2$	>	constituent
Space	$white space_2$	?	constituent*
!	constituent*	@	constituent
II .	terminating macro char	A-Z	constituent
#	non-terminating macro char	[	constituent*
\$	constituent	\	$single\ escape$
%	constituent	]	constituent*
&	constituent	^	constituent
,	terminating macro char	_	constituent
(	terminating macro char	4	terminating macro char
)	terminating macro char	a-z	constituent
*	constituent	{	constituent*
+	constituent	1	$multiple\ escape$
,	terminating macro char	}	constituent*
-	constituent	~	constituent
	constituent	Rubout	constituent
/	constituent		

Figure 2-7. Character Syntax Types in Standard Syntax

The characters marked with an asterisk (\*) are initially *constituents*, but they are not used in any standard Common Lisp notations. These characters are explicitly reserved to the *programmer*. ~ is not used in Common Lisp, and reserved to implementors. \$ and % are *alphabetic*<sub>2</sub> *characters*, but are not used in the names of any standard Common Lisp *defined names*.

Whitespace<sub>2</sub> characters serve as separators but are otherwise ignored. Constituent and escape characters are accumulated to make a token, which is then interpreted as a number or symbol. Macro characters trigger the invocation of functions (possibly user-supplied) that can perform arbitrary parsing actions. Macro characters are divided into two kinds, terminating and non-terminating, depending on whether or not they terminate a token. The following are descriptions of each kind of syntax type.

#### 2.1.4.1 Constituent Characters

Constituent characters are used in tokens. A **token** is a representation of a number or a symbol. Examples of constituent characters are letters and digits.

Letters in symbol names are sometimes converted to letters in the opposite *case* when the name is read; see Section 23.1.2 (Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Reader). *Case* conversion can be suppressed by the use of *single escape* or *multiple escape* characters.

#### 2.1.4.2 Constituent Traits

Every character has one or more constituent traits that define how the character is to be interpreted by the Lisp reader when the character is a constituent character. These constituent traits are alphabetic<sub>2</sub>, digit, package marker, plus sign, minus sign, dot, decimal point, ratio marker, exponent marker, and invalid. Figure 2–8 shows the constituent traits of the standard characters and of certain semi-standard characters; no mechanism is provided for changing the constituent trait of a character. Any character with the alphabetic constituent trait in that figure is a digit if the current input base is greater than that character's digit value, otherwise the character is alphabetic<sub>2</sub>. Any character quoted by a single escape is treated as an alphabetic<sub>2</sub> constituent, regardless of its normal syntax.

constituent	traits	constituent	traits
character	uaus	character	traits
Backspace	invalid	{	$alphabetic_2$
Tab	$invalid^*$	}	$alphabetic_2$
Newline	$invalid^*$	+	$alphabetic_2$ , plus sign
Linefeed	invalid*		$alphabetic_2$ , minus sign
Page	$invalid^*$		alphabetic <sub>2</sub> , dot, decimal point
Return	invalid*	/	$alphabetic_2$ , $ratio\ marker$
Space	invalid*	A, a	alphadigit
1 !	$alphabetic_2$	B, b	alphadigit
п	$alphabetic_2^*$	C, c	alphadigit
#	$alphabetic_2^{-*}*$	D, d	alphadigit, double-float exponent marker
# \$	$alphabetic_2$	E, e	alphadigit, float exponent marker
%	$alphabetic_2$	F, f	alphadigit, single-float exponent marker
&	$alphabetic_2$	G, g	alphadigit
,	$alphabetic_2^*$	H, h	alphadigit
(	$alphabetic_2^*$	I, i	alphadigit
)	$alphabetic_2*$	J, j	alphadigit
*	$alphabetic_2$	K, k	alphadigit
,	$alphabetic_2*$	L, 1	alphadigit, long-float exponent marker
0-9	alphadigit	M, m	alphadigit
:	$package\ marker$	N, n	alphadigit
<b>!</b> ;	$alphabetic_2*$	О, о	alphadigit
<	$alphabetic_2$	P, p	alphadigit
=	$alphabetic_2$	Q, q	alphadigit
>	$alphabetic_2$	R, r	alphadigit
?	$alphabetic_2$	S, s	alphadigit, short-float exponent marker
0	$alphabetic_2$	T, t	alphadigit
[	$alphabetic_2$	U, u	alphadigit
\	$alphabetic_2*$	V, v	alphadigit
]	$alphabetic_2$	W, w	alphadigit
^	$alphabetic_2$	X, x	alphadigit
_	$alphabetic_2$	Y, y	alphadigit
'	$alphabetic_2*$	Z, z	alphadigit
	$alphabetic_2*$	Rubout	invalid
_~	$alphabetic_2$		

Figure 2–8. Constituent Traits of Standard Characters and Semi-Standard Characters

The interpretations in this table apply only to characters whose syntax type is constituent. Entries marked with an asterisk (\*) are normally  $shadowed_2$  because the indicated characters are of syntax type  $whitespace_2$ ,  $macro\ character$ ,  $single\ escape$ , or  $multiple\ escape$ ; these  $constituent\ traits$  apply to them only if their  $syntax\ types$  are changed to constituent.

#### 2.1.4.3 Invalid Characters

Characters with the constituent trait invalid cannot ever appear in a token except under the control of a single escape character. If an invalid character is encountered while an object is being read, an error of type reader-error is signaled. If an invalid character is preceded by a single escape character, it is treated as an alphabetic<sub>2</sub> constituent instead.

#### 2.1.4.4 Macro Characters

When the *Lisp reader* encounters a macro character on an input stream, special parsing of subsequent characters on the input stream is performed.

A macro character has an associated function called a **reader macro function** that implements its specialized parsing behavior. An association of this kind can be established or modified under control of a conforming program by using the functions **set-macro-character** and **set-dispatch-macro-character**.

Upon encountering a macro character, the Lisp reader calls its reader macro function, which parses one specially formatted object from the input stream. The function either returns the parsed object, or else it returns no values to indicate that the characters scanned by the function are being ignored (e.g., in the case of a comment). Examples of macro characters are backquote, single-quote, left-parenthesis, and right-parenthesis.

A macro character is either terminating or non-terminating. The difference between terminating and non-terminating macro characters lies in what happens when such characters occur in the middle of a token. If a non-terminating macro character occurs in the middle of a token, the function associated with the non-terminating macro character is not called, and the non-terminating macro character does not terminate the token's name; it becomes part of the name as if the macro character were really a constituent character. A terminating macro character terminates any token, and its associated reader macro function is called no matter where the character appears. The only non-terminating macro character in standard syntax is sharpsign.

If a character is a dispatching macro character  $C_1$ , its reader macro function is a function supplied by the implementation. This function reads decimal digit characters until a non-digit  $C_2$  is read. If any digits were read, they are converted into a corresponding integer infix parameter P; otherwise, the infix parameter P is nil. The terminating non-digit  $C_2$  is a character (sometimes called a "sub-character" to emphasize its subordinate role in the dispatching) that is looked up in the dispatch table associated with the dispatching macro character  $C_1$ . The reader macro function associated with the sub-character  $C_2$  is invoked with three arguments: the stream, the sub-character  $C_2$ , and the infix parameter P. For more information about dispatch characters, see the function set-dispatch-macro-character.

For information about the *macro characters* that are available in *standard syntax*, see Section 2.4 (Standard Macro Characters).

### 2.1.4.5 Multiple Escape Characters

A pair of multiple escape characters is used to indicate that an enclosed sequence of characters, including possible  $macro\ characters$  and  $whitespace_2\ characters$ , are to be treated as  $alphabetic_2\ characters$  with case preserved. Any  $single\ escape$  and  $multiple\ escape\ characters$  that are to appear in the sequence must be preceded by a  $single\ escape\ character$ .

Vertical-bar is a multiple escape character in standard syntax.

### 2.1.4.5.1 Examples of Multiple Escape Characters

```
;; The following examples assume the readtable case of *readtable*;; and *print-case* are both :upcase. (eq 'abc 'ABC) \rightarrow true (eq 'abc '|ABC|) \rightarrow true (eq 'abc 'a|B|c) \rightarrow true (eq 'abc '|abc|) \rightarrow false
```

#### 2.1.4.6 Single Escape Character

A **single escape** is used to indicate that the next *character* is to be treated as an *alphabetic*<sub>2</sub> *character* with its *case* preserved, no matter what the *character* is or which *constituent traits* it has.

Backslash is a single escape character in standard syntax.

#### 2.1.4.6.1 Examples of Single Escape Characters

```
;; The following examples assume the readtable case of *readtable* ;; and *print-case* are both :upcase. (eq 'abc '\A\B\C) \rightarrow true (eq 'abc 'a\Bc) \rightarrow true (eq 'abc '\ABC) \rightarrow true (eq 'abc '\ABC) \rightarrow true (eq 'abc '\abc) \rightarrow false
```

#### 2.1.4.7 Whitespace Characters

 $Whitespace_2$  characters are used to separate tokens.

Space and newline are whitespace<sub>2</sub> characters in standard syntax.

# ${\bf 2.1.4.7.1} \ \ {\bf Examples \ of \ Whitespace \ Characters}$

```
(length '(this-that)) 
ightarrow 1
(length '(this - that)) 
ightarrow 3
(length '(a b)) 
ightarrow 2
(+ 34) 
ightarrow 34
(+ 34) 
ightarrow 7
```

# 2.2 Reader Algorithm

This section describes the algorithm used by the *Lisp reader* to parse *objects* from an *input character stream*, including how the *Lisp reader* processes *macro characters*.

When dealing with tokens, the reader's basic function is to distinguish representations of symbols from those of numbers. When a token is accumulated, it is assumed to represent a number if it satisfies the syntax for numbers listed in Figure 2–9. If it does not represent a number, it is then assumed to be a potential number if it satisfies the rules governing the syntax for a potential number. If a valid token is neither a representation of a number nor a potential number, it represents a symbol.

The algorithm performed by the *Lisp reader* is as follows:

- 1. If at end of file, end-of-file processing is performed as specified in **read**. Otherwise, one character, x, is read from the input stream, and dispatched according to the syntax type of x to one of steps 2 to 7.
- 2. If x is an *invalid character*, an error of type reader-error is signaled.
- 3. If x is a whitespace<sub>2</sub> character, then it is discarded and step 1 is re-entered.
- 4. If x is a terminating or non-terminating macro character then its associated reader macro function is called with two arguments, the input stream and x.

The reader macro function may read characters from the input stream; if it does, it will see those characters following the macro character. The Lisp reader may be invoked recursively from the reader macro function.

The reader macro function must not have any side effects other than on the input stream; because of backtracking and restarting of the read operation, front ends to the Lisp reader (e.g., "editors" and "rubout handlers") may cause the reader macro function to be called repeatedly during the reading of a single expression in which x only appears once.

The reader macro function may return zero values or one value. If one value is returned, then that value is returned as the result of the read operation; the algorithm is done. If zero values are returned, then step 1 is re-entered.

- 5. If x is a single escape character then the next character, y, is read, or an error of type end-of-file is signaled if at the end of file. y is treated as if it is a constituent whose only constituent trait is alphabetic<sub>2</sub>. y is used to begin a token, and step 8 is entered.
- 6. If x is a multiple escape character then a token (initially containing no characters) is begun and step 9 is entered.
- 7. If x is a constituent character, then it begins a token. After the token is read in, it will be interpreted either as a Lisp object or as being of invalid syntax. If the token represents an

object, that object is returned as the result of the read operation. If the token is of invalid syntax, an error is signaled. If x is a character with case, it might be replaced with the corresponding character of the opposite case, depending on the readtable case of the current readtable, as outlined in Section 23.1.2 (Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Reader). X is used to begin a token, and step 8 is entered.

- 8. At this point a *token* is being accumulated, and an even number of *multiple escape characters* have been encountered. If at end of file, step 10 is entered. Otherwise, a *character*, y, is read, and one of the following actions is performed according to its *syntax type*:
  - If y is a constituent or non-terminating macro character:
    - If y is a character with case, it might be replaced with the corresponding character of the opposite case, depending on the readtable case of the current readtable, as outlined in Section 23.1.2 (Effect of Readtable Case on the Lisp Reader).
    - Y is appended to the *token* being built.
    - Step 8 is repeated.
  - If y is a single escape character, then the next character, z, is read, or an error of type end-of-file is signaled if at end of file. Z is treated as if it is a constituent whose only constituent trait is alphabetic<sub>2</sub>. Z is appended to the token being built, and step 8 is repeated.
  - If y is a multiple escape character, then step 9 is entered.
  - If y is an *invalid character*, an error of type reader-error is signaled.
  - If y is a terminating macro character, then it terminates the token. First the character y is unread (see unread-char), and then step 10 is entered.
  - If y is a whitespace<sub>2</sub> character, then it terminates the token. First the character y is unread if appropriate (see read-preserving-whitespace), and then step 10 is entered.
- 9. At this point a *token* is being accumulated, and an odd number of *multiple escape characters* have been encountered. If at end of file, an error of *type* end-of-file is signaled. Otherwise, a *character*, y, is read, and one of the following actions is performed according to its *syntax type*:
  - If y is a constituent, macro, or whitespace<sub>2</sub> character, y is treated as a constituent whose only constituent trait is alphabetic<sub>2</sub>. Y is appended to the token being built, and step 9 is repeated.
  - If y is a single escape character, then the next character, z, is read, or an error of type end-of-file is signaled if at end of file. Z is treated as a constituent whose only constituent trait is alphabetic<sub>2</sub>. Z is appended to the token being built, and step 9 is repeated.

- If y is a multiple escape character, then step 8 is entered.
- If y is an *invalid character*, an error of type reader-error is signaled.
- 10. An entire *token* has been accumulated. The *object* represented by the *token* is returned as the result of the read operation, or an error of *type* **reader-error** is signaled if the *token* is not of valid syntax.

# 2.3 Interpretation of Tokens

### 2.3.1 Numbers as Tokens

When a token is read, it is interpreted as a number or symbol. The token is interpreted as a number if it satisfies the syntax for numbers specified in Figure 2–9.

```
numeric-token ::= \downarrowinteger | \downarrowratio | \downarrowfloat integer ::= [sign] \{ decimal-digit \}^+ decimal-point | [sign] \{ digit \}^+ ratio ::= [sign] \{ digit \}^+ slash \{ digit \}^+ float ::= [sign] \{ decimal-digit \}^* decimal-point \{ decimal-digit \}^+ [\downarrowexponent] | [sign] \{ decimal-digit \}^+ [decimal-point \{ decimal-digit \}^* \} \downarrowexponent exponent ::= exponent-marker [sign] \{ digit \}^+ sign—a sign. slash—a slash decimal-point—a dot. exponent-marker—an exponent marker. decimal-digit—a digit in radix 10. digit—a digit in the current input radix.
```

Figure 2-9. Syntax for Numeric Tokens

#### 2.3.1.1 Potential Numbers as Tokens

To allow implementors and future Common Lisp standards to extend the syntax of numbers, a syntax for  $potential\ numbers$  is defined that is more general than the syntax for numbers. A token is a  $potential\ number$  if it satisfies all of the following requirements:

- 1. The token consists entirely of digits, signs, ratio markers, decimal points (.), extension characters (^ or \_), and number markers. A number marker is a letter. Whether a letter may be treated as a number marker depends on context, but no letter that is adjacent to another letter may ever be treated as a number marker. Exponent markers are number markers.
- 2. The *token* contains at least one digit. Letters may be considered to be digits, depending on the *current input base*, but only in *tokens* containing no decimal points.
- 3. The token begins with a digit, sign, decimal point, or extension character, but not a package marker. The syntax involving a leading package marker followed by a potential number is not well-defined. The consequences of the use of notation such as :1, :1/2, and :2^3 in a position where an expression appropriate for read is expected are unspecified.

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#### 4. The token does not end with a sign.

If a potential number has number syntax, a number of the appropriate type is constructed and returned, if the number is representable in an implementation. A number will not be representable in an implementation if it is outside the boundaries set by the implementation-dependent constants for numbers. For example, specifying too large or too small an exponent for a float may make the number impossible to represent in the implementation. A ratio with denominator zero (such as -35/000) is not represented in any implementation. When a token with the syntax of a number cannot be converted to an internal number, an error of type reader-error is signaled. An error must not be signaled for specifying too many significant digits for a float; a truncated or rounded value should be produced.

If there is an ambiguity as to whether a letter should be treated as a digit or as a number marker, the letter is treated as a digit.

#### 2.3.1.1.1 Escape Characters and Potential Numbers

A potential number cannot contain any escape characters. An escape character robs the following character of all syntactic qualities, forcing it to be strictly alphabetic<sub>2</sub> and therefore unsuitable for use in a potential number. For example, all of the following representations are interpreted as symbols, not numbers:

In each case, removing the  $escape\ character\ (or\ characters)$  would cause the token to be a  $potential\ number$ .

#### 2.3.1.1.2 Examples of Potential Numbers

As examples, the *tokens* in Figure 2–10 are *potential numbers*, but they are not actually numbers, and so are reserved *tokens*; a *conforming implementation* is permitted, but not required, to define their meaning.

1b5000	777777q	1.7J	-3/4+6.7J	12/25/83
27^19	3^4/5	6//7	3.1.2.6	^-43^
3.141_592_653_589_793_238_4	-3.7+2.6i-6.17j+19.6k			

Figure 2-10. Examples of reserved tokens

The tokens in Figure 2–11 are not potential numbers; they are always treated as symbols:

/	/5	+	1+	1-	
foo+	ab.cd	-	^	^/-	

Figure 2–11. Examples of symbols

The tokens in Figure 2–12 are potential numbers if the current input base is 16, but they are always treated as symbols if the current input base is 10.

bad-face	25-dec-83	a/b	fad_cafe	f^	

Figure 2–12. Examples of symbols or potential numbers

# 2.3.2 Constructing Numbers from Tokens

A real is constructed directly from a corresponding numeric token; see Figure 2–9.

A complex is notated as a #C (or #c) followed by a *list* of two reals; see Section 2.4.8.11 (Sharpsign C).

The reader macros #B, #0, #X, and #R may also be useful in controlling the input radix in which rationals are parsed; see Section 2.4.8.7 (Sharpsign B), Section 2.4.8.8 (Sharpsign O), Section 2.4.8.9 (Sharpsign X), and Section 2.4.8.10 (Sharpsign R).

This section summarizes the full syntax for *numbers*.

# 2.3.2.1 Syntax of a Rational

#### 2.3.2.1.1 Syntax of an Integer

Integers can be written as a sequence of digits, optionally preceded by a sign and optionally followed by a decimal point; see Figure 2–9. When a decimal point is used, the digits are taken to be in radix 10; when no decimal point is used, the digits are taken to be in radix given by the current input base.

For information on how *integers* are printed, see Section 22.1.3.1.1 (Printing Integers).

#### 2.3.2.1.2 Syntax of a Ratio

Ratios can be written as an optional sign followed by two non-empty sequences of digits separated by a slash; see Figure 2–9. The second sequence may not consist entirely of zeros. Examples of ratios are in Figure 2–13.

ſ	2/3	;This is in canonical form
1	4/6	;A non-canonical form for 2/3
1	-17/23	;A ratio preceded by a sign
1	-30517578125/32768	This is $(-5/2)^{15}$
1	10/5	The canonical form for this is 2
1	#o-101/75	Octal notation for $-65/61$
1	#3r120/21	Ternary notation for $15/7$
1	#Xbc/ad	;Hexadecimal notation for 188/173
1	#xFADED/FACADE	;Hexadecimal notation for 1027565/16435934
- 1		,

Figure 2-13. Examples of Ratios

For information on how ratios are printed, see Section 22.1.3.1.2 (Printing Ratios).

### 2.3.2.2 Syntax of a Float

Floats can be written in either decimal fraction or computerized scientific notation: an optional sign, then a non-empty sequence of digits with an embedded decimal point, then an optional decimal exponent specification. If there is no exponent specifier, then the decimal point is required, and there must be digits after it. The exponent specifier consists of an exponent marker, an optional sign, and a non-empty sequence of digits. If no exponent specifier is present, or if the exponent marker e (or E) is used, then the format specified by \*read-default-float-format\* is used. See Figure 2–9.

An implementation may provide one or more kinds of *float* that collectively make up the *type* **float**. The letters s, f, d, and 1 (or their respective uppercase equivalents) explicitly specify the use of the *types* **short-float**, **single-float**, **double-float**, and **long-float**, respectively.

The internal format used for an external representation depends only on the *exponent marker*, and not on the number of decimal digits in the external representation.

Figure 2–14 contains examples of notations for *floats*:

0.0	;Floating-point zero in default format
0E0	;As input, this is also floating-point zero in default format.
	;As output, this would appear as 0.0.
0e0	; As input, this is also floating-point zero in default format.
	;As output, this would appear as 0.0.
0	;As input, this might be a zero or a minus zero,
	; depending on whether the implementation supports
	; a distinct minus zero.
	;As output, 0.0 is zero and -0.0 is minus zero.
0.	On input, the integer zero—not a floating-point number!
	;Whether this appears as 0 or 0. on output depends
	;on the value of *print-radix*.
0.0s0	;A floating-point zero in short format
0s0	; As input, this is a floating-point zero in short format.
	;As output, such a zero would appear as 0.0s0
	; (or as 0.0 if <b>short-float</b> was the default format).
6.02E+23	;Avogadro's number, in default format
602E+21	;Also Avogadro's number, in default format

Figure 2–14. Examples of Floating-point numbers

For information on how *floats* are printed, see Section 22.1.3.1.3 (Printing Floats).

### 2.3.2.3 Syntax of a Complex

A complex has a Cartesian structure, with a real part and an imaginary part each of which is a real. The parts of a complex are not necessarily floats but both parts must be of the same type: either both are rationals, or both are of the same float subtype. When constructing a complex, if the specified parts are not the same type, the parts are converted to be the same type internally (i.e., the rational part is converted to a float). An object of type (complex rational) is converted internally and represented thereafter as a rational if its imaginary part is an integer whose value is 0.

For further information, see Section 2.4.8.11 (Sharpsign C) and Section 22.1.3.1.4 (Printing Complexes).

# 2.3.3 The Consing Dot

If a *token* consists solely of dots (with no escape characters), then an error of *type* **reader-error** is signaled, except in one circumstance: if the *token* is a single *dot* and appears in a situation where *dotted pair* notation permits a *dot*, then it is accepted as part of such syntax and no error is signaled. See Section 2.4.1 (Left-Parenthesis).

# 2.3.4 Symbols as Tokens

Any token that is not a potential number, does not contain a package marker, and does not consist entirely of dots will always be interpreted as a symbol. Any token that is a potential number but does not fit the number syntax is a reserved token and has an implementation-dependent interpretation. In all other cases, the token is construed to be the name of a symbol.

Examples of the printed representation of *symbols* are in Figure 2–15. For presentational simplicity, these examples assume that the *readtable case* of the *current readtable* is :upcase.

FRORROG	
FROBBOZ	The symbol whose name is FROBBOZ.
frobboz	Another way to notate the same <i>symbol</i> .
fRObBoz	Yet another way to notate it.
unwind-protect	A symbol with a hyphen in its name.
+\$	The $symbol$ named +\$.
1+	The $symbol$ named 1+.
+1	This is the integer 1, not a symbol.
pascal_style	This <i>symbol</i> has an underscore in its <i>name</i> .
file.rel.43	This <i>symbol</i> has periods in its <i>name</i> .
\(	The $symbol$ whose $name$ is (.
\+1	The $symbol$ whose $name$ is +1.
+\1	Also the $symbol$ whose $name$ is +1.
\frobboz	The symbol whose name is frobboz.
3.14159265\s0	The $symbol$ whose $name$ is 3.14159265s0.
3.14159265\S0	A different $symbol$ , whose $name$ is 3.1415926580.
3.14159265s0	A possible short float approximation to $\pi$ .

Figure 2-15. Examples of the printed representation of symbols (Part 1 of 2)

```
APL\\360
                                  The symbol whose name is APL\360.
ap1\\360
                                  Also the symbol whose name is APL\360.
(b^2) -\ 4*a*c
                                  The name is (B^2) - 4*A*C.
                                  Parentheses and two spaces in it.
(b^2) -4*a*c
                                  The name is (b^2) - 4*a*c.
                                  Letters explicitly lowercase.
1"1
                                  The same as writing \".
                                 The name is (b<sup>2</sup>) - 4*a*c.
|(b^2) - 4*a*c|
|frobboz|
                                  The name is frobboz, not FROBBOZ.
                                  The name is APL360.
|APL\360|
|APL\\360|
                                  The name is APL\360.
                                  The name is apl\360.
|ap1\\360|
                                  Same as \ —the name is \ .
1/1/11
                                  The name is (B^2) - 4*A*C.
|(B^2) - 4*A*C|
                                  Parentheses and two spaces in it.
|(b^2) - 4*a*c|
                                  The name is (b^2) - 4*a*c.
```

Figure 2–16. Examples of the printed representation of symbols (Part 2 of 2)

In the process of parsing a symbol, it is implementation-dependent which implementation-defined attributes are removed from the characters forming a token that represents a symbol.

When parsing the syntax for a symbol, the Lisp reader looks up the name of that symbol in the current package. This lookup may involve looking in other packages whose external symbols are inherited by the current package. If the name is found, the corresponding symbol is returned. If the name is not found (that is, there is no symbol of that name accessible in the current package), a new symbol is created and is placed in the current package as an internal symbol. The current package becomes the owner (home package) of the symbol, and the symbol becomes interned in the current package. If the name is later read again while this same package is current, the same symbol will be found and returned.

#### 2.3.5Valid Patterns for Tokens

The valid patterns for tokens are summarized in Figure 2–17.

nnnnn	a number
xxxxx	a symbol in the current package
: xxxxx	a $symbol$ in the the KEYWORD $package$
ppppp:xxxxx	an external symbol in the ppppp package
ppppp::xxxxx	a (possibly internal) symbol in the ppppp package
:nnnnn	undefined
ppppp:nnnnn	undefined
ppppp::nnnnn	undefined
:: aaaaa	undefined
aaaaa:	undefined
aaaaa:aaaaa:aaaaa	undefined

Figure 2–17. Valid patterns for tokens

Note that nnnn has number syntax, neither xxxxx nor ppppp has number syntax, and aaaaa has any syntax.

A summary of rules concerning *package markers* follows. In each case, examples are offered to illustrate the case; for presentational simplicity, the examples assume that the *readtable case* of the *current readtable* is :upcase.

1. If there is a single package marker, and it occurs at the beginning of the token, then the token is interpreted as a symbol in the KEYWORD package. It also sets the symbol-value of the newly-created symbol to that same symbol so that the symbol will self-evaluate.

For example, :bar, when read, interns BAR as an external symbol in the KEYWORD package.

2. If there is a single *package marker* not at the beginning or end of the *token*, then it divides the *token* into two parts. The first part specifies a *package*; the second part is the name of an *external symbol* available in that package.

For example, foo:bar, when read, looks up BAR among the  $external\ symbols$  of the package named FOO.

3. If there are two adjacent *package markers* not at the beginning or end of the *token*, then they divide the *token* into two parts. The first part specifies a *package*; the second part is the name of a *symbol* within that *package* (possibly an *internal symbol*).

For example, foo::bar, when read, interns BAR in the package named FOO.

4. If the token contains no package markers, and does not have potential number syntax, then the entire token is the name of the symbol. The symbol is looked up in the current package.

For example, bar, when read, interns BAR in the current package.

5. The consequences are unspecified if any other pattern of package markers in a token is used. All other uses of package markers within names of symbols are not defined by this standard but are reserved for *implementation-dependent* use.

For example, assuming the readtable case of the current readtable is :upcase, editor:buffer refers to the external symbol named BUFFER present in the package named editor, regardless of whether there is a symbol named BUFFER in the current package. If there is no package named editor, or if no symbol named BUFFER is present in editor, or if BUFFER is not exported by editor, the reader signals a correctable error. If editor::buffer is seen, the effect is exactly the same as reading buffer with the EDITOR package being the current package.

# Package System Consistency Rules

The following rules apply to the package system as long as the value of \*package\* is not changed:

#### Read-read consistency

Reading the same symbol name always results in the same symbol.

#### Print-read consistency

An interned symbol always prints as a sequence of characters that, when read back in, yields the same symbol.

For information about how the Lisp printer treats symbols, see Section 22.1.3.3 (Printing Symbols).

#### Print-print consistency

If two interned symbols are not the same, then their printed representations will be different sequences of characters.

These rules are true regardless of any implicit interning. As long as the current package is not changed, results are reproducible regardless of the order of loading files or the exact history of what symbols were typed in when. If the value of \*package\* is changed and then changed back to the previous value, consistency is maintained. The rules can be violated by changing the value of \*package\*, forcing a change to symbols or to packages or to both by continuing from an error, or calling one of the following functions: unintern, unexport, shadow, shadowing-import, or unuse-package.

An inconsistency only applies if one of the restrictions is violated between two of the named symbols. shadow, unexport, unintern, and shadowing-import can only affect the consistency of symbols with the same names (under string=) as the ones supplied as arguments.

# 2.4 Standard Macro Characters

If the reader encounters a macro character, then its associated reader macro function is invoked and may produce an object to be returned. This function may read the characters following the macro character in the stream in any syntax and return the object represented by that syntax.

Any character can be made to be a macro character. The macro characters defined initially in a conforming implementation include the following:

# 2.4.1 Left-Parenthesis

The *left-parenthesis* initiates reading of a *list*. **read** is called recursively to read successive *objects* until a right parenthesis is found in the input *stream*. A *list* of the *objects* read is returned. Thus

```
(a b c)
```

is read as a *list* of three *objects* (the *symbols* a, b, and c). The right parenthesis need not immediately follow the printed representation of the last *object*; *whitespace*<sub>2</sub> characters and comments may precede it.

If no objects precede the right parenthesis, it reads as a list of zero objects (the empty list).

If a *token* that is just a dot not immediately preceded by an escape character is read after some *object* then exactly one more *object* must follow the dot, possibly preceded or followed by  $whitespace_2$  or a comment, followed by the right parenthesis:

```
(a b c . d)
```

This means that the cdr of the last cons in the list is not nil, but rather the object whose representation followed the dot. The above example might have been the result of evaluating

```
(cons 'a (cons 'b (cons 'c 'd)))
Similarly,
```

```
(cons 'this-one 'that-one) 
ightarrow (this-one . that-one)
```

It is permissible for the *object* following the dot to be a *list*:

```
(a b c d . (e f . (g))) \equiv (a b c d e f g)
```

For information on how the *Lisp printer* prints *lists* and *conses*, see Section 22.1.3.5 (Printing Lists and Conses).

# 2.4.2 Right-Parenthesis

The *right-parenthesis* is invalid except when used in conjunction with the left parenthesis character. For more information, see Section 2.2 (Reader Algorithm).

# 2.4.3 Single-Quote

Syntax:  $\langle \langle exp \rangle \rangle$ 

A single-quote introduces an expression to be "quoted." Single-quote followed by an expression exp is treated by the Lisp reader as an abbreviation for and is parsed identically to the expression (quote exp). See the special operator quote.

# 2.4.3.1 Examples of Single-Quote

```
'foo \rightarrow F00 "foo \rightarrow (QUOTE F00) (car "foo) \rightarrow QUOTE
```

### 2.4.4 Semicolon

Syntax:  $\langle \langle text \rangle \rangle$ 

A semicolon introduces characters that are to be ignored, such as comments. The semicolon and all characters up to and including the next newline or end of file are ignored.

# 2.4.4.1 Examples of Semicolon

```
(+ 3 ; three
4)
→ 7
```

# 2.4.4.2 Notes about Style for Semicolon

Some text editors make assumptions about desired indentation based on the number of *semicolons* that begin a comment. The following style conventions are common, although not by any means universal.

#### 2.4.4.2.1 Use of Single Semicolon

Comments that begin with a single *semicolon* are all aligned to the same column at the right (sometimes called the "comment column"). The text of such a comment generally applies only to the line on which it appears. Occasionally two or three contain a single sentence together; this is sometimes indicated by indenting all but the first with an additional space (after the *semicolon*).

#### 2.4.4.2.2 Use of Double Semicolon

Comments that begin with a double *semicolon* are all aligned to the same level of indentation as a *form* would be at that same position in the *code*. The text of such a comment usually describes the state of the *program* at the point where the comment occurs, the *code* which follows the comment, or both.

#### 2.4.4.2.3 Use of Triple Semicolon

Comments that begin with a triple *semicolon* are all aligned to the left margin. Usually they are used prior to a definition or set of definitions, rather than within a definition.

#### 2.4.4.2.4 Use of Quadruple Semicolon

Comments that begin with a quadruple *semicolon* are all aligned to the left margin, and generally contain only a short piece of text that serve as a title for the code which follows, and might be used in the header or footer of a program that prepares code for presentation as a hardcopy document.

#### 2.4.4.2.5 Examples of Style for Semicolon

```
;;;; Math Utilities
;;; FIB computes the the Fibonacci function in the traditional
;;; recursive way.
(defun fib (n)
 (check-type n integer)
 ;; At this point we're sure we have an integer argument.
 ;; Now we can get down to some serious computation.
 (cond ((< n 0)
        ;; Hey, this is just supposed to be a simple example.
        ;; Did you really expect me to handle the general case?
        (error "FIB got ~D as an argument." n))
        ((< n 2) n)
                                ;fib[0]=0 and fib[1]=1
        ;; The cheap cases didn't work.
        ;; Nothing more to do but recurse.
        (t (+ (fib (- n 1))
                               ;The traditional formula
              (fib (-n 2)))))); is fib[n-1]+fib[n-2].
```

# 2.4.5 Double-Quote

```
Syntax: "\langle \langle text \rangle \rangle"
```

The double-quote is used to begin and end a string. When a double-quote is encountered, characters are read from the input stream and accumulated until another double-quote is encountered. If a single escape character is seen, the single escape character is discarded, the next character is accumulated, and accumulation continues. The accumulated characters up to but not including the matching double-quote are made into a simple string and returned. It is implementation-dependent which attributes of the accumulated characters are removed in this process.

Examples of the use of the *double-quote* character are in Figure 2–18.

```
"Foo" ;A string with three characters in it ;An empty string ;A string with twenty characters ;A ten-character string
```

Figure 2–18. Examples of the use of double-quote

Note that to place a single escape character or a *double-quote* into a string, such a character must be preceded by a single escape character. Note, too, that a multiple escape character need not be quoted by a single escape character within a string.

For information on how the *Lisp printer* prints strings, see Section 22.1.3.4 (Printing Strings).

# 2.4.6 Backquote

The backquote introduces a template of a data structure to be built. For example, writing

Where a comma occurs in the template, the *expression* following the comma is to be evaluated to produce an *object* to be inserted at that point. Assume b has the value 3, for example, then evaluating the *form* denoted by '(a b ,b ,(+ b 1) b) produces the result (a b 3 4 b).

If a comma is immediately followed by an at-sign, then the form following the at-sign is evaluated to produce a list of objects. These objects are then "spliced" into place in the template. For example, if x has the value (a b c), then

```
'(x ,x ,0x foo ,(cadr x) bar ,(cdr x) baz ,0(cdr x)) \rightarrow (x (a b c) a b c foo b bar (b c) baz b c)
```

The backquote syntax can be summarized formally as follows.

- 'basic is the same as 'basic, that is, (quote basic), for any expression basic that is not a list or a general vector.
- ', form is the same as form, for any form, provided that the representation of form does not begin with at-sign or dot. (A similar caveat holds for all occurrences of a form after a comma.)
- ', of orm has undefined consequences.
- '(x1 x2 x3 ... xn . atom) may be interpreted to mean

```
(append [x1] [x2] [x3] ... [xn] (quote atom))
```

where the brackets are used to indicate a transformation of an xj as follows:

- [form] is interpreted as (list 'form), which contains a backquoted form that must then be further interpreted.
- [, form] is interpreted as (list form).
- [,@form] is interpreted as form.
- '(x1 x2 x3 ... xn) may be interpreted to mean the same as the backquoted form '(x1 x2 x3 ... xn . nil), thereby reducing it to the previous case.
- '(x1 x2 x3 ... xn . ,form) may be interpreted to mean

```
(append [x1] [x2] [x3] ... [xn] form)
```

where the brackets indicate a transformation of an xj as described above.

- '(x1 x2 x3 ... xn . ,@form) has undefined consequences.
- '#(x1 x2 x3 ... xn) may be interpreted to mean (apply #'vector '(x1 x2 x3 ... xn)).

Anywhere ",©" may be used, the syntax ",." may be used instead to indicate that it is permissible to operate *destructively* on the *list structure* produced by the form following the ",." (in effect, to use **nconc** instead of **append**).

If the backquote syntax is nested, the innermost backquoted form should be expanded first. This means that if several commas occur in a row, the leftmost one belongs to the innermost backquote.

An implementation is free to interpret a backquoted form  $F_1$  as any form  $F_2$  that, when evaluated, will produce a result that is the same under equal as the result implied by the above definition, provided that the side-effect behavior of the substitute form  $F_2$  is also consistent with the

description given above. The constructed copy of the template might or might not share list structure with the template itself. As an example, the above definition implies that

```
'((,a b) ,c ,@d)
will be interpreted as if it were

(append (list (append (list a) (list 'b) 'nil)) (list c) d 'nil)
but it could also be legitimately interpreted to mean any of the following:

(append (list (append (list a) (list 'b))) (list c) d)
(append (list (append (list a) '(b))) (list c) d)
(list* (cons a '(b)) c d)
(append (list (cons a '(b))) (list c) d)
(append (list (cons a '(b))) (cons a '(b)))
```

# 2.4.6.1 Notes about Backquote

Since the exact manner in which the  $Lisp\ reader$  will parse an expression involving the backquote  $reader\ macro$  is not specified, an implementation is free to choose any representation that preserves the semantics described.

Often an *implementation* will choose a representation that facilitates pretty printing of the expression, so that (pprint '(a ,b)) will display '(a ,b) and not, for example, (list 'a b). However, this is not a requirement.

Implementors who have no particular reason to make one choice or another might wish to refer to *IEEE Standard for the Scheme Programming Language*, which identifies a popular choice of representation for such expressions that might provide useful to be useful compatibility for some user communities. There is no requirement, however, that any *conforming implementation* use this particular representation. This information is provided merely for cross-reference purposes.

#### 2.4.7 Comma

The *comma* is part of the backquote syntax; see Section 2.4.6 (Backquote). *Comma* is invalid if used other than inside the body of a backquote *expression* as described above.

# 2.4.8 Sharpsign

Sharpsign is a non-terminating dispatching macro character. It reads an optional sequence of digits and then one more character, and uses that character to select a function to run as a reader macro function.

The *standard syntax* includes constructs introduced by the # character. The syntax of these constructs is as follows: a character that identifies the type of construct is followed by arguments in some form. If the character is a letter, its *case* is not important; #0 and #o are considered to be equivalent, for example.

Certain # constructs allow an unsigned decimal number to appear between the # and the character.

The reader macros associated with the dispatching macro character # are described later in this section and summarized in Figure 2–19.

dispatch char	purpose	dispatch char	purpose
Backspace	signals error	{	undefined*
Tab	signals error	}	$undefined^*$
Newline	signals error	+	read-time conditional
Linefeed	signals error	-	read-time conditional
Page	signals error		read-time evaluation
Return	signals error		undefined
Space	signals error	A, a	array
!	undefined*	B, b	binary rational
"	undefined	C, c	complex number
#	reference to = label	D, d	undefined
# \$ %	undefined	E, e	undefined
%	undefined	F, f	undefined
&	undefined	G, g	undefined
,	function abbreviation	H, h	undefined
(	simple vector	I, i	undefined
	signals error	J, j	undefined
*	bit vector	K, k	undefined
,	undefined	L, l	undefined
:	uninterned symbol	M, m	undefined
;	undefined	N, n	undefined
<	signals error	O, o	octal rational
=	labels following object	P, p	pathname
>	undefined	Q, q	undefined
?	undefined*	R, r	radix-n rational
@	undefined	S, s	structure
	undefined*	T, t	undefined
\	character object	U, u	undefined
	undefined*	V, v	undefined
^	undefined	W, w	undefined
=	undefined	X, x	hexadecimal rational
(	undefined	Y, y	undefined
	balanced comment	Z, z	undefined
~	undefined	Rubout	undefined

Figure 2–19. Standard # Dispatching Macro Character Syntax

The combinations marked by an asterisk (\*) are explicitly reserved to the user. No *conforming implementation* defines them.

Note also that digits do not appear in the preceding table. This is because the notations #0, #1, ..., #9 are reserved for another purpose which occupies the same syntactic space. When a digit follows a sharpsign, it is not treated as a dispatch character. Instead, an unsigned integer argument is

accumulated and passed as an *argument* to the *reader macro* for the *character* that follows the digits. For example,  $\#2A((1\ 2)\ (3\ 4))$  is a use of #A with an argument of 2.

# 2.4.8.1 Sharpsign Backslash

```
Syntax: \# \setminus \langle \langle x \rangle \rangle
```

When the  $token\ x$  is a single  $character\ long$ , this parses as the literal  $character\ char$ . Uppercase and lowercase letters are distinguished after  $\#\$ , and  $\#\$ a denote different  $character\ objects$ . Any single  $character\ works$  after  $\#\$ , even those that are normally special to read, such as left-parenthesis and right-parenthesis.

In the single *character* case, the x must be followed by a non-constituent *character*. After #\ is read, the reader backs up over the *slash* and then reads a *token*, treating the initial *slash* as a *single escape character* (whether it really is or not in the *current readtable*).

When the token x is more than one character long, the x must have the syntax of a symbol with no embedded package markers. In this case, the sharpsign backslash notation parses as the character whose name is (string-upcase x); see Section 13.1.7 (Character Names).

For information about how the *Lisp printer* prints *character objects*, see Section 22.1.3.2 (Printing Characters).

# 2.4.8.2 Sharpsign Single-Quote

Any expression preceded by #' (sharpsign followed by single-quote), as in #'expression, is treated by the Lisp reader as an abbreviation for and parsed identically to the expression (function expression). See function. For example,

```
(apply #'+ 1) \equiv (apply (function +) 1)
```

### 2.4.8.3 Sharpsign Left-Parenthesis

#( and ) are used to notate a *simple vector*.

If an unsigned decimal integer appears between the # and (, it specifies explicitly the length of the *vector*. The consequences are undefined if the number of *objects* specified before the closing ) exceeds the unsigned decimal integer. If the number of *objects* supplied before the closing ) is less than the unsigned decimal integer but greater than zero, the last *object* is used to fill all remaining elements of the *vector*. The consequences are undefined if the unsigned decimal integer is non-zero and number of *objects* supplied before the closing ) is zero. For example,

```
#(a b c c c c)
#6(a b c c c c)
#6(a b c)
#6(a b c)
```

all mean the same thing: a vector of length 6 with elements a, b, and four occurrences of c. Other examples follow:

The notation #() denotes an empty vector, as does #0().

For information on how the *Lisp printer* prints *vectors*, see Section 22.1.3.4 (Printing Strings), Section 22.1.3.6 (Printing Bit Vectors), or Section 22.1.3.7 (Printing Other Vectors).

### 2.4.8.4 Sharpsign Asterisk

```
Syntax: #*(\(\bits\))
```

A simple bit vector is constructed containing the indicated bits (0's and 1's), where the leftmost bit has index zero and the subsequent bits have increasing indices.

```
Syntax: \#\langle\langle n \rangle\rangle *\langle\langle bits \rangle\rangle
```

With an argument n, the *vector* to be created is of *length* n. If the number of *bits* is less than n but greater than zero, the last bit is used to fill all remaining bits of the *bit vector*.

The notations #\* and #0\* each denote an empty bit vector.

Regardless of whether the optional numeric argument n is provided, the *token* that follows the *asterisk* is delimited by a normal *token* delimiter. However, (unless the *value* of \*read-suppress\* is *true*) an error of *type* reader-error is signaled if that *token* is not composed entirely of 0's and 1's, or if n was supplied and the *token* is composed of more than n bits, or if n is greater than one, but no bits were specified. Neither a single escape nor a multiple escape is permitted in this token.

For information on how the *Lisp printer* prints *bit vectors*, see Section 22.1.3.6 (Printing Bit Vectors).

#### 2.4.8.4.1 Examples of Sharpsign Asterisk

```
For example, #*101111
#6*101111
#6*101
#6*1011
```

all mean the same thing: a vector of length 6 with elements 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, and 1.

For example:

```
#* ;An empty bit-vector
```

# 2.4.8.5 Sharpsign Colon

**Syntax:** #: ((symbol-name))

#: introduces an uninterned symbol whose name is symbol-name. Every time this syntax is encountered, a distinct uninterned symbol is created. The symbol-name must have the syntax of a symbol with no package prefix.

For information on how the *Lisp reader* prints *uninterned symbols*, see Section 22.1.3.3 (Printing Symbols).

# 2.4.8.6 Sharpsign Dot

#.foo is read as the *object* resulting from the evaluation of the *object* represented by foo. The evaluation is done during the **read** process, when the #. notation is encountered. The #. syntax therefore performs a read-time evaluation of foo.

The normal effect of #. is inhibited when the *value* of \*read-eval\* is *false*. In that situation, an error of *type* reader-error is signaled.

For an object that does not have a convenient printed representation, a form that computes the object can be given using the #. notation.

# 2.4.8.7 Sharpsign B

#Brational reads rational in binary (radix 2). For example,

```
#B1101 \equiv 13;1101<sub>2</sub> #b101/11 \equiv 5/3
```

The consequences are undefined if the token immediately following the #B does not have the syntax of a binary (i.e., radix 2) rational.

# 2.4.8.8 Sharpsign O

#0rational reads rational in octal (radix 8). For example,

```
#o37/15 \equiv 31/13
#o777 \equiv 511
#o105 \equiv 69;105<sub>8</sub>
```

The consequences are undefined if the token immediately following the #0 does not have the syntax of an octal (i.e., radix 8) rational.

# 2.4.8.9 Sharpsign X

#Xrational reads rational in hexadecimal (radix 16). The digits above 9 are the letters A through F (the lowercase letters a through f are also acceptable). For example,

```
#xF00 \equiv 3840
#x105 \equiv 261 ; 105_{16}
```

The consequences are undefined if the token immediately following the #X does not have the syntax of a hexadecimal (i.e., radix 16) rational.

# 2.4.8.10 Sharpsign R

#*n*R

#radixRrational reads rational in radix radix. radix must consist of only digits that are interpreted as an integer in decimal radix; its value must be between 2 and 36 (inclusive). Only valid digits for the specified radix may be used.

For example, #3r102 is another way of writing 11 (decimal), and #11R32 is another way of writing 35 (decimal). For radices larger than 10, letters of the alphabet are used in order for the digits after 9. No alternate # notation exists for the decimal radix since a decimal point suffices.

Figure 2-20 contains examples of the use of #B, #O, #X, and #R.

	A 11 C 11 1 1	
#2r11010101	Another way of writing 213 decimal;	
#b11010101	;Ditto	
#b+11010101	;Ditto	
#o325	;Ditto, in octal radix	
#xD5	;Ditto, in hexadecimal radix	
#16r+D5	;Ditto	
#0-300	;Decimal -192, written in base 8	
#3r-21010	;Same thing in base 3	
#25R-7H	;Same thing in base 25	
#xACCEDED	;181202413, in hexadecimal radix	

Figure 2-20. Radix Indicator Example

The consequences are undefined if the token immediately following the #nR does not have the syntax of a rational in radix n.

#### 2.4.8.11 Sharpsign C

#C reads a following *object*, which must be a *list* of length two whose *elements* are both *reals*. These *reals* denote, respectively, the real and imaginary parts of a *complex* number. If the two parts as notated are not of the same data type, then they are converted according to the rules of floating-point *contagion* described in Section 12.1.1.2 (Contagion in Numeric Operations).

#C(real imag) is equivalent to #.(complex (quote real) (quote imag)), except that #C is not affected by \*read-eval\*. See the function complex.

Figure 2–21 contains examples of the use of #C.

#C(3.0s1 2.0s-1)	;A complex with small float parts.
#C(5 -3)	;A "Gaussian integer"
#C(5/3 7.0) #C(0 1)	;Will be converted internally to #C(1.66666 7.0);The imaginary unit; that is, i.

Figure 2–21. Complex Number Example

For further information, see Section 22.1.3.1.4 (Printing Complexes) and Section 2.3.2.3 (Syntax of a Complex).

#### 2.4.8.12 Sharpsign A

#### #nA

#nAobject constructs an n-dimensional array, using object as the value of the :initial-contents argument to make-array.

For example, #2A((0 1 5) (foo 2 (hot dog))) represents a 2-by-3 matrix:

```
0 1 5
foo 2 (hot dog)
```

In contrast,  $\#1A((0\ 1\ 5)\ (foo\ 2\ (hot\ dog)))$  represents a vector of  $length\ 2$  whose elements are lists:

```
(0 1 5) (foo 2 (hot dog))
```

#OA((0 1 5) (foo 2 (hot dog))) represents a zero-dimensional array whose sole element is a list: ((0 1 5) (foo 2 (hot dog)))

#0A foo represents a zero-dimensional array whose sole element is the symbol foo. The notation #1A foo is not valid because foo is not a sequence.

If some *dimension* of the *array* whose representation is being parsed is found to be 0, all *dimensions* to the right (*i.e.*, the higher numbered *dimensions*) are also considered to be 0.

For information on how the *Lisp printer* prints arrays, see Section 22.1.3.4 (Printing Strings), Section 22.1.3.6 (Printing Bit Vectors), Section 22.1.3.7 (Printing Other Vectors), or Section 22.1.3.8 (Printing Other Arrays).

# 2.4.8.13 Sharpsign S

#s(name slot1 value1 slot2 value2 ...) denotes a *structure*. This is valid only if *name* is the name of a *structure type* already defined by **defstruct** and if the *structure type* has a standard constructor function. Let *cm* stand for the name of this constructor function; then this syntax is equivalent to

#.(cm keyword1 'value1 keyword2 'value2 ...)

where each *keywordj* is the result of computing

(intern (string slotj) (find-package 'keyword))

The net effect is that the constructor function is called with the specified slots having the specified values. (This coercion feature is deprecated; in the future, keyword names will be taken in the package they are read in, so *symbols* that are actually in the KEYWORD *package* should be used if that is what is desired.)

Whatever *object* the constructor function returns is returned by the #S syntax.

For information on how the *Lisp printer* prints *structures*, see Section 22.1.3.12 (Printing Structures).

# 2.4.8.14 Sharpsign P

#P reads a following *object*, which must be a *string*.

 $\#P(\langle expression \rangle)$  is equivalent to  $\#.(parse-namestring '(\langle expression \rangle))$ , except that #P is not affected by \*read-eval\*.

For information on how the  $Lisp\ printer$  prints pathnames, see Section 22.1.3.11 (Printing Pathnames).

#### 2.4.8.15 Sharpsign Equal-Sign

#*n*=

#n=object reads as whatever object has object as its printed representation. However, that object is labeled by n, a required unsigned decimal integer, for possible reference by the syntax #n#. The scope of the label is the expression being read by the outermost call to read; within this expression, the same label may not appear twice.

### 2.4.8.16 Sharpsign Sharpsign

#n#

#n#, where n is a required unsigned decimal integer, provides a reference to some object labeled by #n#; that is, #n# represents a pointer to the same (eq) object labeled by #n#. For example, a structure created in the variable y by this code:

```
(setq x (list 'p 'q))
(setq y (list (list 'a 'b) x 'foo x))
(rplacd (last y) (cdr y))
```

could be represented in this way:

```
((a b) . #1=(#2=(p q) foo #2# . #1#))
```

Without this notation, but with \*print-length\* set to 10 and \*print-circle\* set to nil, the structure would print in this way:

```
((a b) (p q) foo (p q) (p q) foo (p q) (p q) foo (p q) \dots)
```

A reference #n# may only occur after a label #n#; forward references are not permitted. The reference may not appear as the labeled object itself (that is, #n##n#) may not be written because the *object* labeled by #n# is not well defined in this case.

# 2.4.8.17 Sharpsign Plus

#+ provides a read-time conditionalization facility; the syntax is #+test expression. If the feature expression test succeeds, then this textual notation represents an object whose printed representation is expression. If the feature expression test fails, then this textual notation is treated as  $whitespace_2$ ; that is, it is as if the "#+ test expression" did not appear and only a space appeared in its place.

For a detailed description of success and failure in *feature expressions*, see Section 24.1.2.1 (Feature Expressions).

#+ operates by first reading the *feature expression* and then skipping over the *form* if the *feature expression* fails. While reading the *test*, the *current package* is the KEYWORD *package*. Skipping over the *form* is accomplished by *binding* \*read-suppress\* to *true* and then calling read.

For examples, see Section 24.1.2.1.1 (Examples of Feature Expressions).

#### 2.4.8.18 Sharpsign Minus

```
#- is like #+ except that it skips the expression if the test succeeds; that is,
```

```
\#-test expression \equiv \#+(not test) expression
```

For examples, see Section 24.1.2.1.1 (Examples of Feature Expressions).

#### 2.4.8.19 Sharpsign Vertical-Bar

#|...|# is treated as a comment by the reader. It must be balanced with respect to other occurrences of #| and |#, but otherwise may contain any characters whatsoever.

### 2.4.8.19.1 Examples of Sharpsign Vertical-Bar

The following are some examples that exploit the #|...|# notation:

```
;;; In this example, some debugging code is commented out with #|...|#
;;; Note that this kind of comment can occur in the middle of a line
;;; (because a delimiter marks where the end of the comment occurs)
;;; where a semicolon comment can only occur at the end of a line
;;; (because it comments out the rest of the line).
 (defun add3 (n) \# (format t "~&Adding 3 to ~D." n)|\# (+ n 3))
;;; The examples that follow show issues related to \#|\ldots|\# nesting.
;;; In this first example, #| and |# always occur properly paired,
;;; so nesting works naturally.
 (defun mention-fun-fact-1a ()
   (format t "CL uses; and #|...|# in comments."))

ightarrow MENTION-FUN-FACT-1A
 (mention-fun-fact-1a)
\triangleright CL uses; and #|...|# in comments.

ightarrow NIL
 #| (defun mention-fun-fact-1b ()
      (format t "CL uses ; and \#|...|\# in comments.")) |\#
 (fboundp 'mention-fun-fact-1b) 
ightarrow NIL
;;; In this example, vertical-bar followed by sharpsign needed to appear
;;; in a string without any matching sharpsign followed by vertical-bar
;;; having preceded this. To compensate, the programmer has included a
;;; slash separating the two characters. In case 2a, the slash is
;;; unnecessary but harmless, but in case 2b, the slash is critical to
;;; allowing the outer #| ... |# pair match. If the slash were not present,
;;; the outer comment would terminate prematurely.
 (defun mention-fun-fact-2a ()
   (format t "Don't use |\# unmatched or you'll get in trouble!"))
\rightarrow MENTION-FUN-FACT-2A
 (mention-fun-fact-2a)
▷ Don't use |# unmatched or you'll get in trouble!
 #| (defun mention-fun-fact-2b ()
```

```
(format t "Don't use |\# unmatched or you'll get in trouble!") |#
 (fboundp 'mention-fun-fact-2b) 
ightarrow NIL
;;; In this example, the programmer attacks the mismatch problem in a
;;; different way. The sharpsign vertical bar in the comment is not needed
;;; for the correct parsing of the program normally (as in case 3a), but
;;; becomes important to avoid premature termination of a comment when such
;;; a program is commented out (as in case 3b).
 (defun mention-fun-fact-3a (); #|
   (format t "Don't use | # unmatched or you'll get in trouble!"))
\rightarrow MENTION-FUN-FACT-3A
 (mention-fun-fact-3a)
▷ Don't use |# unmatched or you'll get in trouble!

ightarrow NIL
 #1
 (defun mention-fun-fact-3b (); #|
   (format t "Don't use | # unmatched or you'll get in trouble!"))
 (fboundp 'mention-fun-fact-3b) 
ightarrow NIL
```

#### 2.4.8.19.2 Notes about Style for Sharpsign Vertical-Bar

Some text editors that purport to understand Lisp syntax treat any  $|\dots|$  as balanced pairs that cannot nest (as if they were just balanced pairs of the multiple escapes used in notating certain symbols). To compensate for this deficiency, some programmers use the notation  $||\dots|||\dots|||$  instead of  $||\dots||\dots||$ . Note that this alternate usage is not a different reader macro; it merely exploits the fact that the additional vertical-bars occur within the comment in a way that tricks certain text editor into better supporting nested comments. As such, one might sometimes see code like:

```
#|| (+ #|| 3 ||# 4 5) ||#
Such code is equivalent to:
#| (+ #| 3 ||# 4 5) ||#
```

#### 2.4.8.20 Sharpsign Less-Than-Sign

**#<** is not valid reader syntax. The *Lisp reader* will signal an error of *type* **reader-error** on encountering **#<**. This syntax is typically used in the printed representation of *objects* that cannot be read back in.

### 2.4.8.21 Sharpsign Whitespace

# followed immediately by whitespace<sub>1</sub> is not valid reader syntax. The Lisp reader will signal an error of type reader-error if it encounters the reader macro notation  $\#\langle Newline \rangle$  or  $\#\langle Space \rangle$ .

### 2.4.8.22 Sharpsign Right-Parenthesis

This is not valid reader syntax.

The Lisp reader will signal an error of type reader-error upon encountering #).

# 2.4.9 Re-Reading Abbreviated Expressions

Note that the *Lisp reader* will generally signal an error of *type* **reader-error** when reading an *expression*<sub>2</sub> that has been abbreviated because of length or level limits (see **\*print-level\***, **\*print-length\***, and **\*print-lines\***) due to restrictions on "..", "...", "#" followed by *whitespace*<sub>1</sub>, and "#)".