Programming Language—Common Lisp

5. Data and Control Flow

Generalized Reference 5.1

5.1.1 Overview of Places and Generalized Reference

A generalized reference is the use of a form, sometimes called a place, as if it were a variable that could be read and written. The value of a place is the object to which the place form evaluates. The value of a place can be changed by using setf. The concept of binding a place is not defined in Common Lisp, but an *implementation* is permitted to extend the language by defining this concept.

Figure 5-1 contains examples of the use of setf. Note that the values returned by evaluating the forms in column two are not necessarily the same as those obtained by evaluating the forms in column three. In general, the exact macro expansion of a setf form is not guaranteed and can even be implementation-dependent; all that is guaranteed is that the expansion is an update form that works for that particular implementation, that the left-to-right evaluation of subforms is preserved, and that the ultimate result of evaluating setf is the value or values being stored.

Access function	Update Function	Update using setf
х	(setq x datum)	(setf x datum)
(car x)	(rplaca x datum)	(setf (car x) datum)
(symbol-value x)	(set x datum)	<pre>(setf (symbol-value x) datum)</pre>

Figure 5-1. Examples of setf

Figure 5–2 shows operators relating to places and generalized reference.

assert	defsetf	push
ccase	get-setf-expansion	\mathbf{remf}
ctypecase	$\operatorname{\mathbf{getf}}$	${f rotatef}$
decf	incf	\mathbf{setf}
define-modify-macro	pop	\mathbf{shiftf}
define-setf-expander	psetf	

Figure 5–2. Operators relating to places and generalized reference.

Some of the operators above manipulate places and some manipulate setf expanders. A setf expansion can be derived from any place. New setf expanders can be defined by using defsetf and define-setf-expander.

5.1.1.1 Evaluation of Subforms to Places

The following rules apply to the evaluation of subforms in a place:

1. The evaluation ordering of *subforms* within a *place* is determined by the order specified by the second value returned by **get-setf-expansion**. For all *places* defined by this specification (*e.g.*, **getf**, **ldb**, ...), this order of evaluation is left-to-right. When a *place* is derived from a macro expansion, this rule is applied after the macro is expanded to find the appropriate *place*.

Places defined by using **defmacro** or **define-setf-expander** use the evaluation order defined by those definitions. For example, consider the following:

```
(defmacro wrong-order (x y) '(getf ,y ,x))
```

This following form evaluates place2 first and then place1 because that is the order they are evaluated in the macro expansion:

```
(push value (wrong-order place1 place2))
```

2. For the macros that manipulate places (push, pushnew, remf, incf, decf, shiftf, rotatef, psetf, setf, pop, and those defined by define-modify-macro) the subforms of the macro call are evaluated exactly once in left-to-right order, with the subforms of the places evaluated in the order specified in (1).

push, pushnew, remf, incf, decf, shiftf, rotatef, psetf, pop evaluate all *subforms* before modifying any of the *place* locations. **setf** (in the case when **setf** has more than two arguments) performs its operation on each pair in sequence. For example, in

```
(setf place1 value1 place2 value2 ...)
```

the *subforms* of place1 and value1 are evaluated, the location specified by place1 is modified to contain the value returned by value1, and then the rest of the **setf** form is processed in a like manner.

- 3. For **check-type**, **ctypecase**, and **ccase**, *subforms* of the *place* are evaluated once as in (1), but might be evaluated again if the type check fails in the case of **check-type** or none of the cases hold in **ctypecase** and **ccase**.
- 4. For assert, the order of evaluation of the generalized references is not specified.

Rules 2, 3 and 4 cover all standardized macros that manipulate places.

5.1.1.1.1 Examples of Evaluation of Subforms to Places

```
(let ((ref2 (list '())))
  (push (progn (princ "1") 'ref-1)
```

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```
(car (progn (princ "2") ref2))))
⊳ 12

ightarrow (REF1)
 (let (x)
    (push (setq x (list 'a))
           (car (setq x (list 'b))))
     x)
\rightarrow (((A) . B))
```

push first evaluates (setq x (list 'a)) \rightarrow (a), then evaluates (setq x (list 'b)) \rightarrow (b), then modifies the car of this latest value to be ((a) . b).

5.1.1.2 Setf Expansions

Sometimes it is possible to avoid evaluating subforms of a place multiple times or in the wrong order. A setf expansion for a given access form can be expressed as an ordered collection of five objects:

List of temporary variables

a list of symbols naming temporary variables to be bound sequentially, as if by let*, to values resulting from value forms.

List of value forms

a list of forms (typically, subforms of the place) which when evaluated yield the values to which the corresponding temporary variables should be bound.

List of store variables

a list of symbols naming temporary store variables which are to hold the new values that will be assigned to the place.

Storing form

a form which can reference both the temporary and the store variables, and which changes the value of the place and guarantees to return as its values the values of the store variables, which are the correct values for setf to return.

Accessing form

a form which can reference the temporary variables, and which returns the value of the place.

The value returned by the accessing form is affected by execution of the storing form, but either of these forms might be evaluated any number of times.

It is possible to do more than one **setf** in parallel via **psetf**, **shiftf**, and **rotatef**. Because of this, the *setf expander* must produce new temporary and store variable names every time. For examples of how to do this, see **gensym**.

For each standardized accessor function F, unless it is explicitly documented otherwise, it is implementation-dependent whether the ability to use an F form as a **setf** place is implemented by a setf expander or a setf function. Also, it follows from this that it is implementation-dependent whether the name (**setf** F) is fbound.

5.1.1.2.1 Examples of Setf Expansions

Examples of the contents of the constituents of setf expansions follow.

For a variable x:

```
() ; list of temporary variables
() ; list of value forms
(g0001) ; list of store variables
(setq x g0001) ; storing form
x ; accessing form
```

Figure 5-3. Sample Setf Expansion of a Variable

For (car exp):

```
(g0002) ;list of temporary variables
(exp) ;list of value forms
(g0003) ;list of store variables
(progn (rplaca g0002 g0003) g0003) ;storing form
(car g0002) ;accessing form
```

Figure 5-4. Sample Setf Expansion of a CAR Form

For (subseq seq s e):

```
      (g0004 g0005 g0006)
      ;list of temporary variables

      (seq s e)
      ;list of value forms

      (g0007)
      ;list of store variables

      (progn (replace g0004 g0007 :start1 g0005 :end1 g0006) g0007)
      ;storing form

      (subseq g0004 g0005 g0006)
      ; accessing form
```

Figure 5-5. Sample Setf Expansion of a SUBSEQ Form

In some cases, if a *subform* of a *place* is itself a *place*, it is necessary to expand the *subform* in order to compute some of the values in the expansion of the outer place. For (ldb bs (car exp)):

```
(g0001 g0002)
                                        ; list of temporary variables
(bs exp)
                                        ; list of value forms
(g0003)
                                        ; list of store variables
(progn (rplaca g0002 (dpb g0003 g0001 (car g0002))) g0003)
                                        storing form
(ldb g0001 (car g0002))
                                        ; accessing form
```

Figure 5-6. Sample Setf Expansion of a LDB Form

5.1.2 Kinds of Places

Several kinds of places are defined by Common Lisp; this section enumerates them. This set can be extended by *implementations* and by *programmer code*.

5.1.2.1 Variable Names as Places

The name of a lexical variable or dynamic variable can be used as a place.

5.1.2.2 Function Call Forms as Places

A function form can be used as a place if it falls into one of the following categories:

A function call form whose first element is the name of any one of the functions in Figure

aref	cdadr	get
bit	cdar	gethash
caaaar	cddaar	${f logical-pathname-translations}$
caaadr	cddadr	macro-function
caaar	cddar	\mathbf{ninth}
caadar	cdddar	\mathbf{nth}
caaddr	cddddr	readtable-case
caadr	cdddr	rest
caar	cddr	row-major-aref
cadaar	$\operatorname{\mathbf{cdr}}$	${f sbit}$
cadadr	char	schar
cadar	class-name	second
caddar	compiler-macro-function	seventh
cadddr	documentation	\mathbf{sixth}
caddr	${f eighth}$	slot-value
cadr	elt	${f subseq}$
car	fdefinition	svref
cdaaar	${f fifth}$	symbol-function
cdaadr	fill-pointer	${f symbol-plist}$
cdaar	$\operatorname{find-class}$	symbol-value
cdadar	first	tenth
cdaddr	fourth	third

Figure 5-7. Functions that setf can be used with—1

In the case of **subseq**, the replacement value must be a *sequence* whose elements might be contained by the sequence argument to **subseq**, but does not have to be a *sequence* of the same *type* as the *sequence* of which the subsequence is specified. If the length of the replacement value does not equal the length of the subsequence to be replaced, then the shorter length determines the number of elements to be stored, as for **replace**.

- A function call form whose first element is the name of a selector function constructed by **defstruct**. The function name must refer to the global function definition, rather than a locally defined *function*.
- A function call form whose first element is the name of any one of the functions in Figure 5–8, provided that the supplied argument to that function is in turn a *place* form; in this case the new *place* has stored back into it the result of applying the supplied "update" function.

Function name	Argument that is a place	Update function used
ldb	second	dpb
mask-field	second	deposit-field
getf	first	$implementation\hbox{-} dependent$

Figure 5-8. Functions that setf can be used with-2

During the **setf** expansion of these *forms*, it is necessary to call **get-setf-expansion** in order to figure out how the inner, nested generalized variable must be treated.

The information from **get-setf-expansion** is used as follows.

ldb

In a form such as:

```
(setf (ldb byte-spec place-form) value-form)
```

the place referred to by the *place-form* must always be both *read* and *written*; note that the update is to the generalized variable specified by *place-form*, not to any object of *type* integer.

Thus this **setf** should generate code to do the following:

- 1. Evaluate *byte-spec* (and bind it into a temporary variable).
- 2. Bind the temporary variables for *place-form*.
- 3. Evaluate *value-form* (and bind its value or values into the store variable).
- 4. Do the *read* from *place-form*.
- 5. Do the *write* into *place-form* with the given bits of the *integer* fetched in step 4 replaced with the value from step 3.

If the evaluation of *value-form* in step 3 alters what is found in *place-form*, such as setting different bits of *integer*, then the change of the bits denoted by *byte-spec* is to that altered *integer*, because step 4 is done after the *value-form* evaluation. Nevertheless, the evaluations required for *binding* the temporary variables are done in steps 1 and 2, and thus the expected left-to-right evaluation order is seen. For example:

```
;;; interest here is just the (possibly local) program variable
;;; integer.
```

mask-field

This case is the same as **ldb** in all essential aspects.

getf

In a form such as:

```
(setf (getf place-form ind-form) value-form)
```

the place referred to by *place-form* must always be both read and written; note that the update is to the generalized variable specified by place-form, not necessarily to the particular *list* that is the property list in question.

Thus this **setf** should generate code to do the following:

- 1. Bind the temporary variables for *place-form*.
- 2. Evaluate *ind-form* (and bind it into a temporary variable).
- Evaluate *value-form* (and bind its value or values into the store variable).
- 4. Do the *read* from *place-form*.
- Do the write into place-form with a possibly-new property list obtained by combining the values from steps 2, 3, and 4. (Note that the phrase "possibly-new property list" can mean that the former property list is somehow destructively re-used, or it can mean partial or full copying of it. Since either copying or destructive re-use can occur, the treatment of the resultant value for the possibly-new property list must proceed as if it were a different copy needing to be stored back into the generalized variable.)

If the evaluation of value-form in step 3 alters what is found in place-form, such as setting a different named property in the list, then the change of the property denoted by ind-form is to that altered list, because step 4 is done after the valueform evaluation. Nevertheless, the evaluations required for binding the temporary variables are done in steps 1 and 2, and thus the expected left-to-right evaluation order is seen.

For example:

```
(\mathsf{setq}\ \mathsf{s}\ (\mathsf{setq}\ \mathsf{r}\ (\mathsf{list}\ '\mathsf{a}\ \mathsf{1}\ '\mathsf{b}\ \mathsf{2}\ '\mathsf{c}\ \mathsf{3}))))\ \to\ ((\mathsf{a}\ \mathsf{1}\ \mathsf{b}\ \mathsf{2}\ \mathsf{c}\ \mathsf{3}))
(setf (getf (car r) 'b)
               (progn (setq r nil) 6)) 
ightarrow 6
\mathtt{r}\,\rightarrow\,\mathtt{NIL}
```

```
s \rightarrow ((A 1 B 6 C 3))
;;; Note that the (setq r \operatorname{nil}) does not affect the actions of
;;; the SETF because the value of R had already been saved in
;;; a temporary variable as part of the step 1. Only the CAR
;;; of this value will be retrieved, and subsequently modified
;;; after the value computation.
```

5.1.2.3 VALUES Forms as Places

A values form can be used as a place, provided that each of its subforms is also a place form.

A form such as

```
(setf (values place-1 ... place-n) values-form)
does the following:
```

- 1. The *subforms* of each nested *place* are evaluated in left-to-right order.
- The values-form is evaluated, and the first store variable from each place is bound to its return values as if by multiple-value-bind.
- If the setf expansion for any place involves more than one store variable, then the additional store variables are bound to nil.
- The storing forms for each *place* are evaluated in left-to-right order.

The storing form in the setf expansion of values returns as multiple values, the values of the store variables in step 2. That is, the number of values returned is the same as the number of place forms. This may be more or fewer values than are produced by the values-form.

5.1.2.4 THE Forms as Places

A the form can be used as a place, in which case the declaration is transferred to the newvalue form, and the resulting **setf** is analyzed. For example,

```
(setf (the integer (cadr x)) (+ y 3))
is processed as if it were
 (setf (cadr x) (the integer (+ y 3)))
```

5.1.2.5 APPLY Forms as Places

The following situations involving setf of apply must be supported:

- (setf (apply #'aref array {subscript}* more-subscripts) new-element)
- (setf (apply #'bit array {subscript}* more-subscripts) new-element)
- (setf (apply #'sbit array {subscript}* more-subscripts) new-element)

In all three cases, the *element* of *array* designated by the concatenation of *subscripts* and *more-subscripts* (*i.e.*, the same *element* which would be *read* by the call to *apply* if it were not part of a **setf** *form*) is changed to have the *value* given by *new-element*. For these usages, the function name (**aref**, **bit**, or **sbit**) must refer to the global function definition, rather than a locally defined *function*.

No other *standardized function* is required to be supported, but an *implementation* may define such support. An *implementation* may also define support for *implementation-defined operators*.

If a user-defined function is used in this context, the following equivalence is true, except that care is taken to preserve proper left-to-right evaluation of argument subforms:

```
(setf (apply #'name \{arg\}^*) val)

\equiv (apply #'(setf name) val \{arg\}^*)
```

5.1.2.6 Setf Expansions and Places

Any compound form for which the operator has a setf expander defined can be used as a place. The operator must refer to the global function definition, rather than a locally defined function or macro.

5.1.2.7 Macro Forms as Places

A macro form can be used as a place, in which case Common Lisp expands the macro form as if by macroexpand-1 and then uses the macro expansion in place of the original place. Such macro expansion is attempted only after exhausting all other possibilities other than expanding into a call to a function named (setf reader).

5.1.2.8 Symbol Macros as Places

A reference to a *symbol* that has been *established* as a *symbol macro* can be used as a *place*. In this case, **setf** expands the reference and then analyzes the resulting *form*.

5.1.2.9 Other Compound Forms as Places

For any other compound form for which the operator is a symbol f, the setf form expands into a call to the function named (setf f). The first argument in the newly constructed function form is newvalue and the remaining arguments are the remaining elements of place. This expansion occurs regardless of whether f or (setf f) is defined as a function locally, globally, or not at all. For example,

A function named (setf f) must return its first argument as its only value in order to preserve the semantics of setf.

5.1.3 Treatment of Other Macros Based on SETF

For each of the "read-modify-write" operators in Figure 5–9, and for any additional macros defined by the programmer using define-modify-macro, an exception is made to the normal rule of left-to-right evaluation of arguments. Evaluation of argument forms occurs in left-to-right order, with the exception that for the place argument, the actual read of the "old value" from that place happens after all of the argument form evaluations, and just before a "new value" is computed and written back into the place.

Specifically, each of these *operators* can be viewed as involving a *form* with the following general syntax:

```
(operator {preceding-form}* place {following-form}*)
```

The evaluation of each such form proceeds like this:

- 1. Evaluate each of the preceding-forms, in left-to-right order.
- 2. Evaluate the subforms of the place, in the order specified by the second value of the setf expansion for that place.
- 3. Evaluate each of the following-forms, in left-to-right order.
- 4. Read the old value from place.
- 5. Compute the new value.
- 6. Store the new value into place.

decf	pop	pushnew	
incf	push	\mathbf{remf}	

Figure 5–9. Read-Modify-Write Macros

Transfer of Control to an Exit Point 5.2

When a transfer of control is initiated by go, return-from, or throw the following events occur in order to accomplish the transfer of control. Note that for go, the exit point is the form within the tagbody that is being executed at the time the go is performed; for return-from, the exit point is the corresponding block form; and for throw, the exit point is the corresponding catch form.

- Intervening exit points are "abandoned" (i.e., their extent ends and it is no longer valid to attempt to transfer control through them).
- The cleanup clauses of any intervening unwind-protect clauses are evaluated.
- Intervening dynamic bindings of special variables, catch tags, condition handlers, and restarts are undone.
- The extent of the exit point being invoked ends, and control is passed to the target.

The extent of an exit being "abandoned" because it is being passed over ends as soon as the transfer of control is initiated. That is, event 1 occurs at the beginning of the initiation of the transfer of control. The consequences are undefined if an attempt is made to transfer control to an exit point whose dynamic extent has ended.

Events 2 and 3 are actually performed interleaved, in the order corresponding to the reverse order in which they were established. The effect of this is that the cleanup clauses of an unwind-protect see the same dynamic bindings of variables and catch tags as were visible when the **unwind-protect** was entered.

Event 4 occurs at the end of the transfer of control.

apply Function

Syntax:

```
apply function &rest args^+ \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

Arguments and Values:

function—a function designator.

args—a spreadable argument list designator.

results—the values returned by function.

Description:

Applies the function to the args.

When the *function* receives its arguments via &rest, it is permissible (but not required) for the *implementation* to *bind* the *rest parameter* to an *object* that shares structure with the last argument to apply. Because a *function* can neither detect whether it was called via apply nor whether (if so) the last argument to apply was a *constant*, *conforming programs* must neither rely on the *list* structure of a *rest list* to be freshly consed, nor modify that *list* structure.

setf can be used with apply in certain circumstances; see Section 5.1.2.5 (APPLY Forms as Places).

Examples:

```
(setq f '+) \rightarrow +
(apply f '(1 2)) 
ightarrow 3
(setq f #'-) 
ightarrow #<FUNCTION ->
(apply f '(1 2)) 
ightarrow -1
(apply #'max 3 5 '(2 7 3)) \rightarrow 7
(apply 'cons '((+ 2 3) 4)) \rightarrow ((+ 2 3) . 4)
(apply #'+ '()) 
ightarrow 0
(defparameter *some-list* '(a b c))
(defun strange-test (&rest x) (eq x *some-list*))
(apply #'strange-test *some-list*) 
ightarrow implementation-dependent
(defun bad-boy (&rest x) (rplacd x 'y))
(bad-boy 'a 'b 'c) has undefined consequences.
(apply #'bad-boy *some-list*) has undefined consequences.
(defun foo (size &rest keys &key double &allow-other-keys)
  (let ((v (apply #'make-array size :allow-other-keys t keys)))
    (if double (concatenate (type-of v) v v) v)))
```

```
(foo 4 :initial-contents '(a b c d) :double t) \rightarrow #(A B C D A B C D)
```

See Also:

funcall, fdefinition, function, Section 3.1 (Evaluation), Section 5.1.2.5 (APPLY Forms as Places)

defun

Syntax:

```
defun function-name lambda-list [\![ \{declaration\}^* \mid documentation ]\!] \{form\}^* \rightarrow function-name
```

Arguments and Values:

```
function-name—a function name.
```

lambda-list—an ordinary lambda list.

declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.

documentation—a string; not evaluated.

forms—an implicit progn.

block-name—the function block name of the function-name.

Description:

Defines a new function named function-name in the global environment. The body of the function defined by **defun** consists of forms; they are executed as an implicit progn when the function is called. **defun** can be used to define a new function, to install a corrected version of an incorrect definition, to redefine an already-defined function, or to redefine a macro as a function.

defun implicitly puts a **block** named **block-name** around the body **forms** (but not the **forms** in the **lambda-list**) of the **function** defined.

Documentation is attached as a documentation string to name (as kind function) and to the function object.

Evaluating defun causes function-name to be a global name for the function specified by the lambda expression

```
(lambda lambda-list
  [{declaration}* | documentation]
  (block block-name {form}*))
```

processed in the $lexical\ environment$ in which \mathbf{defun} was executed.

defun

(None of the arguments are evaluated at macro expansion time.)

defun is not required to perform any compile-time side effects. In particular, **defun** does not make the *function* definition available at compile time. An *implementation* may choose to store information about the *function* for the purposes of compile-time error-checking (such as checking the number of arguments on calls), or to enable the *function* to be expanded inline.

Examples:

```
(defun recur (x)
  (when (> x 0)
    (recur (1- x))) \rightarrow RECUR
 (defun ex (a b &optional c (d 66) &rest keys &key test (start 0))
    (list a b c d keys test start)) 
ightarrow EX
 (ex 1 2) \rightarrow (1 2 NIL 66 NIL NIL 0)
(ex 1 2 3 4 :test 'equal :start 50)

ightarrow (1 2 3 4 (:TEST EQUAL :START 50) EQUAL 50)
 (ex :test 1 :start 2) 
ightarrow (:TEST 1 :START 2 NIL NIL 0)
 ;; This function assumes its callers have checked the types of the
 ;; arguments, and authorizes the compiler to build in that assumption.
 (defun discriminant (a b c)
   (declare (number a b c))
   "Compute the discriminant for a quadratic equation."
   (- (* b b) (* 4 a c))) \rightarrow DISCRIMINANT
 (discriminant 1 2/3 -2) \rightarrow 76/9
 ;; This function assumes its callers have not checked the types of the
 ;; arguments, and performs explicit type checks before making any assumptions.
 (defun careful-discriminant (a b c)
   "Compute the discriminant for a quadratic equation."
   (check-type a number)
   (check-type b number)
   (check-type c number)
   (locally (declare (number a b c))
     (- (* b b) (* 4 a c)))) 
ightarrow CAREFUL-DISCRIMINANT
 (careful-discriminant 1 2/3 -2) \rightarrow 76/9
```

See Also:

flet, labels, block, return-from, declare, documentation, Section 3.1 (Evaluation), Section 3.4.1 (Ordinary Lambda Lists), Section 3.4.11 (Syntactic Interaction of Documentation Strings and Declarations)

Notes:

 ${f return-from}$ can be used to return prematurely from a function defined by ${f defun}.$

Additional side effects might take place when additional information (typically debugging information) about the function definition is recorded.

fdefinitionAccessor

Syntax:

fdefinition function-name → definition (setf (fdefinition function-name) new-definition)

Arguments and Values:

function-name—a function name. In the non-setf case, the name must be found in the global environment.

definition—Current global function definition named by function-name.

new-definition—a function.

Description:

fdefinition accesses the current global function definition named by *function-name*. The definition may be a *function* or may be an *object* representing a *special form* or *macro*. The value returned by **fdefinition** when **fboundp** returns true but the *function-name* denotes a *macro* or *special form* is not well-defined, but **fdefinition** does not signal an error.

Exceptional Situations:

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

An error of type undefined-function is signaled in the non-setf case if function-name is not fbound.

See Also:

fboundp, fmakunbound, macro-function, special-operator-p, symbol-function

Notes:

fdefinition cannot *access* the value of a lexical function name produced by flet or labels; it can *access* only the global function value.

setf can be used with fdefinition to replace a global function definition when the function-name's function definition does not represent a special form. setf of fdefinition requires a function as the new value. It is an error to set the fdefinition of a function-name to a symbol, a list, or the value returned by fdefinition on the name of a macro or special form.

fboundp

fboundp Function

Syntax:

fboundp name \rightarrow generalized-boolean

Pronunciation:

[ref | baundpē]

Arguments and Values:

```
name—a function name.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

Description:

Returns true if name is fbound; otherwise, returns false.

Examples:

```
(fboundp 'car) 
ightarrow true
 (fboundp 'nth-value) 
ightarrow false
 (fboundp 'with-open-file) 
ightarrow true
 (fboundp 'unwind-protect) 
ightarrow true
 (defun my-function (x) x) \rightarrow MY-FUNCTION
 (fboundp 'my-function) 	o true
 (let ((saved-definition (symbol-function 'my-function)))
   (unwind-protect (progn (fmakunbound 'my-function)
                              (fboundp 'my-function))
      (setf (symbol-function 'my-function) saved-definition)))
\rightarrow false
 (fboundp 'my-function) 
ightarrow true
 (defmacro my-macro (x) '',x) 
ightarrow MY-MACRO
 (fboundp 'my-macro) 	o true
 (fmakunbound 'my-function) \rightarrow MY-FUNCTION
 (fboundp 'my-function) \rightarrow false
 (flet ((my-function (x) x))
   (fboundp 'my-function)) 
ightarrow false
```

Exceptional Situations:

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

See Also:

symbol-function, fmakunbound, fdefinition

Notes:

It is permissible to call **symbol-function** on any *symbol* that is *fbound*.

fboundp is sometimes used to "guard" an access to the *function cell*, as in: (if (fboundp x) (symbol-function x))

Defining a $setf\ expander\ F$ does not cause the $setf\ function$ (setf F) to become defined.

fmakunbound

Function

Syntax:

fmakunbound name \rightarrow name

Pronunciation:

```
[\mathbf{ef}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{mak}\epsilon\mathbf{n}_{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{ba\dot{u}nd}] \text{ or } [\mathbf{ef}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{m\bar{a}k}\epsilon\mathbf{n}_{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{ba\dot{u}nd}]
```

Arguments and Values:

name—a function name.

Description:

Removes the function or macro definition, if any, of name in the global environment.

Examples:

```
(defun add-some (x) (+ x 19)) \rightarrow ADD-SOME (fboundp 'add-some) \rightarrow true (flet ((add-some (x) (+ x 37))) (fmakunbound 'add-some) (add-some 1)) \rightarrow 38 (fboundp 'add-some) \rightarrow false
```

Exceptional Situations:

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

The consequences are undefined if *name* is a *special operator*.

See Also:

fboundp, makunbound

flet, labels, macrolet

Special Operator

Syntax:

Arguments and Values:

function-name—a function name.

name—a symbol.

lambda-list—a lambda list; for flet and labels, it is an ordinary lambda list; for macrolet, it is a macro lambda list.

local-declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.

declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.

local-documentation—a string; not evaluated.

local-forms, forms—an implicit progn.

results—the values of the forms.

Description:

flet, labels, and macrolet define local functions and macros, and execute forms using the local definitions. Forms are executed in order of occurrence.

The body forms (but not the *lambda list*) of each *function* created by **flet** and **labels** and each *macro* created by **macrolet** are enclosed in an *implicit block* whose name is the *function block* name of the *function-name* or *name*, as appropriate.

The scope of the *declarations* between the list of local function/macro definitions and the body *forms* in **flet** and **labels** does not include the bodies of the locally defined *functions*, except that

for labels, any inline, notinline, or ftype declarations that refer to the locally defined functions do apply to the local function bodies. That is, their *scope* is the same as the function name that they affect. The scope of these *declarations* does not include the bodies of the macro expander functions defined by **macrolet**.

flet

flet defines locally named functions and executes a series of forms with these definition bindings. Any number of such local functions can be defined.

The scope of the name binding encompasses only the body. Within the body of flet, function-names matching those defined by flet refer to the locally defined functions rather than to the global function definitions of the same name. Also, within the scope of flet, global setf expander definitions of the function-name defined by flet do not apply. Note that this applies to (defsetf $f ext{ ... }$), not (defmethod (setf f) ...).

The names of functions defined by **flet** are in the lexical environment; they retain their local definitions only within the body of **flet**. The function definition bindings are visible only in the body of **flet**, not the definitions themselves. Within the function definitions, local function names that match those being defined refer to functions or macros defined outside the **flet**. **flet** can locally shadow a global function name, and the new definition can refer to the global definition.

Any *local-documentation* is attached to the corresponding local *function* (if one is actually created) as a *documentation string*.

labels

labels is equivalent to flet except that the scope of the defined function names for labels encompasses the function definitions themselves as well as the body.

macrolet

macrolet establishes local macro definitions, using the same format used by defmacro.

Within the body of macrolet, global *setf expander* definitions of the *names* defined by the macrolet do not apply; rather, setf expands the *macro form* and recursively process the resulting *form*.

The macro-expansion functions defined by **macrolet** are defined in the *lexical environment* in which the **macrolet** form appears. Declarations and **macrolet** and **symbol-macrolet** definitions affect the local macro definitions in a **macrolet**, but the consequences are undefined if the local macro definitions reference any local *variable* or *function bindings* that are visible in that *lexical environment*.

Any *local-documentation* is attached to the corresponding local *macro function* as a *documentation string*.

Examples:

after macro expansion. The occurrences of x and flag legitimately refer to the parameters of the function foo because those parameters are visible at the site of the macro call which produced the expansion.

```
(flet ((flet1 (n) (+ n n)))
    (flet ((flet1 (n) (+ 2 (flet1 n))))
       (flet1 2))) \rightarrow 6
 (defun dummy-function () 'top-level) 
ightarrow DUMMY-FUNCTION
 (funcall #'dummy-function) 
ightarrow TOP-LEVEL
 (flet ((dummy-function () 'shadow))
       (funcall #'dummy-function)) 
ightarrow SHADOW
 (eq (funcall #'dummy-function) (funcall 'dummy-function))
\rightarrow true
 (flet ((dummy-function () 'shadow))
   (eq (funcall #'dummy-function)
        (funcall 'dummy-function)))
\rightarrow false
 (defun recursive-times (k n)
   (labels ((temp (n)
                (if (zerop n) 0 (+ k (temp (1-n))))))
     \texttt{(temp n)))} \ \to \ \texttt{RECURSIVE-TIMES}
 (recursive-times 2 3) 
ightarrow 6
 (defmacro mlets (x &environment env)
    (let ((form '(babbit ,x)))
       (macroexpand form env))) 
ightarrow MLETS
```

```
(macrolet ((babbit (z) '(+ ,z ,z))) (mlets 5)) 
ightarrow 10
 (flet ((safesqrt (x) (sqrt (abs x))))
  ;; The safesqrt function is used in two places.
   (safesqrt (apply #'+ (map 'list #'safesqrt '(1 2 3 4 5 6)))))
\rightarrow 3.291173
 (defun integer-power (n k)
   (declare (integer n))
   (declare (type (integer 0 *) k))
   (labels ((expt0 (x k a)
               (declare (integer x a) (type (integer 0 *) k))
               (cond ((zerop k) a)
                     ((evenp k) (expt1 (* x x) (floor k 2) a))
                     (t (expt0 (* x x) (floor k 2) (* x a)))))
            (expt1 (x k a)
               (declare (integer x a) (type (integer 0 *) k))
               (cond ((evenp k) (expt1 (* x x) (floor k 2) a))
                     (t (expt0 (* x x) (floor k 2) (* x a))))))
    (expt0 n k 1))) \rightarrow INTEGER-POWER
 (defun example (y 1)
   (flet ((attach (x)
            (setq 1 (append 1 (list x)))))
     (declare (inline attach))
     (dolist (x y)
       (unless (null (cdr x))
         (attach x)))
     1))
 (example '((a apple apricot) (b banana) (c cherry) (d) (e))
          '((1) (2) (3) (4 2) (5) (6 3 2)))

ightarrow ((1) (2) (3) (4 2) (5) (6 3 2) (A APPLE APRICOT) (B BANANA) (C CHERRY))
```

See Also:

declare, defmacro, defun, documentation, let, Section 3.1 (Evaluation), Section 3.4.11 (Syntactic Interaction of Documentation Strings and Declarations)

Notes:

It is not possible to define recursive *functions* with **flet**. **labels** can be used to define mutually recursive *functions*.

If a **macrolet** form is a top level form, the body forms are also processed as top level forms. See Section 3.2.3 (File Compilation).

funcall Function

Syntax:

```
funcall function &rest args \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

Arguments and Values:

```
function—a function designator.
```

args—arguments to the function.

results—the values returned by the function.

Description:

funcall applies *function* to *args*. If *function* is a *symbol*, it is coerced to a *function* as if by finding its *functional value* in the *global environment*.

Examples:

```
\begin{array}{c} (\text{funcall } \#'+\ 1\ 2\ 3) \ \to \ 6 \\ (\text{funcall 'car '}(1\ 2\ 3)) \ \to \ 1 \\ (\text{funcall 'position 1 '}(1\ 2\ 3\ 2\ 1)\ :\text{start 1}) \ \to \ 4 \\ (\text{cons 1 2}) \ \to \ (1\ .\ 2) \\ (\text{flet } ((\text{cons } (\text{x y})\ '(\text{kons },\text{x },\text{y}))) \\ (\text{let } ((\text{cons } (\text{symbol-function '+}))) \\ (\text{funcall } \#'\text{cons} \\ (\text{funcall 'cons 1 2}) \\ (\text{funcall cons 1 2}))) \\ \to (\text{KONS } (1\ .\ 2)\ 3) \end{array}
```

Exceptional Situations:

An error of *type* undefined-function should be signaled if *function* is a *symbol* that does not have a global definition as a *function* or that has a global definition as a *macro* or a *special operator*.

See Also:

```
apply, function, Section 3.1 (Evaluation)
```

Notes:

```
(funcall function arg1 \ arg2 \dots)

\equiv (apply function arg1 \ arg2 \dots \ nil)

\equiv (apply function (list arg1 \ arg2 \dots))
```

The difference between funcall and an ordinary function call is that in the former case the

function is obtained by ordinary evaluation of a form, and in the latter case it is obtained by the special interpretation of the function position that normally occurs.

function

Special Operator

Syntax:

function name \rightarrow function

Arguments and Values:

name—a function name or lambda expression.

function—a function object.

Description:

The value of function is the functional value of name in the current lexical environment.

If *name* is a *function name*, the functional definition of that name is that established by the innermost lexically enclosing **flet**, **labels**, or **macrolet** *form*, if there is one. Otherwise the global functional definition of the *function name* is returned.

If *name* is a *lambda expression*, then a *lexical closure* is returned. In situations where a *closure* over the same set of *bindings* might be produced more than once, the various resulting *closures* might or might not be eq.

It is an error to use **function** on a *function name* that does not denote a *function* in the lexical environment in which the **function** form appears. Specifically, it is an error to use **function** on a *symbol* that denotes a *macro* or *special form*. An implementation may choose not to signal this error for performance reasons, but implementations are forbidden from defining the failure to signal an error as a useful behavior.

Examples:

```
(defun adder (x) (function (lambda (y) (+ x y))))
```

The result of (adder 3) is a function that adds 3 to its argument:

```
(setq add3 (adder 3)) (funcall add3 5) \rightarrow 8
```

This works because function creates a *closure* of the *lambda expression* that is able to refer to the $value\ 3$ of the variable x even after control has returned from the function adder.

See Also:

defun, fdefinition, flet, labels, symbol-function, Section 3.1.2.1.1 (Symbols as Forms), Section 2.4.8.2 (Sharpsign Single-Quote), Section 22.1.3.13 (Printing Other Objects)

Notes:

The notation #'name may be used as an abbreviation for (function name).

function-lambda-expression

Function

Syntax:

function-lambda-expression function
→ lambda-expression, closure-p, name

Arguments and Values:

function—a function.

lambda-expression—a lambda expression or nil.

closure-p—a generalized boolean.

name—an object.

Description:

Returns information about function as follows:

The primary value, lambda-expression, is function's defining lambda expression, or nil if the information is not available. The lambda expression may have been pre-processed in some ways, but it should remain a suitable argument to compile or function. Any implementation may legitimately return nil as the lambda-expression of any function.

The secondary value, closure-p, is nil if function's definition was enclosed in the null lexical environment or something non-nil if function's definition might have been enclosed in some non-null lexical environment. Any implementation may legitimately return true as the closure-p of any function.

The *tertiary value*, *name*, is the "name" of *function*. The name is intended for debugging only and is not necessarily one that would be valid for use as a name in **defun** or **function**, for example. By convention, **nil** is used to mean that *function* has no name. Any *implementation* may legitimately return **nil** as the *name* of any *function*.

Examples:

The following examples illustrate some possible return values, but are not intended to be exhaustive:

```
(function-lambda-expression #'(lambda (x) x))

ightarrow NIL, false, NIL
\stackrel{or}{	o} NIL, true, NIL
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} (LAMBDA (X) X), true, NIL
\overset{or}{
ightarrow} (LAMBDA (X) X), false, NIL
  (function-lambda-expression
      (funcall #'(lambda () #'(lambda (x) x))))

ightarrow NIL, false, NIL
\begin{array}{c} \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \text{ NIL, } true, \text{ NIL} \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \text{ (LAMBDA (X) X), } true, \text{ NIL} \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \text{ (LAMBDA (X) X), } true, \text{ NIL} \\ \end{array}
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} (LAMBDA (X) X), false, NIL
  (function-lambda-expression
       (funcall #'(lambda (x) #'(lambda () x)) nil))

ightarrow NIL, true, NIL
\stackrel{-r}{\rightarrow} (LAMBDA () X), true, NIL
\stackrel{not}{\rightarrow} NIL, false , NIL
\overset{not}{
ightarrow} (LAMBDA () X), false, NIL
  (flet ((foo (x) x))
     (setf (symbol-function 'bar) #'foo)
     (function-lambda-expression #'bar))

ightarrow NIL, false, NIL
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} NIL, true , NIL
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} (LAMBDA (X) (BLOCK FOO X)), true, NIL
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} (LAMBDA (X) (BLOCK FOO X)), false, FOO
\overset{or}{
ightarrow} (SI::BLOCK-LAMBDA FOO (X) X), false, FOO
  (defun foo ()
     (flet ((bar (x) x))
        #'bar))
 (function-lambda-expression (foo))

ightarrow NIL, false, NIL
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} NIL, true, NIL
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} (LAMBDA (X) (BLOCK BAR X)), true, NIL
\stackrel{\longrightarrow}{\rightarrow} (LAMBDA (X) (BLOCK BAR X)), true, (:INTERNAL FOO O BAR)
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} (LAMBDA (X) (BLOCK BAR X)), false, "BAR in FOO"
```

Notes:

Although *implementations* are free to return "nil, true, nil" in all cases, they are encouraged to return a *lambda expression* as the *primary value* in the case where the argument was created by a call to **compile** or **eval** (as opposed to being created by *loading* a *compiled file*).

functionFunction

Syntax:

function $pobject \rightarrow generalized$ -boolean

Arguments and Values:

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

Description:

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

Examples:

```
(functionp 'append) \rightarrow false

(functionp #'append) \rightarrow true

(functionp (symbol-function 'append)) \rightarrow true

(flet ((f () 1)) (functionp #'f)) \rightarrow true

(functionp (compile nil '(lambda () 259))) \rightarrow true

(functionp nil) \rightarrow false

(functionp 12) \rightarrow false

(functionp '(lambda (x) (* x x))) \rightarrow false

(functionp #'(lambda (x) (* x x))) \rightarrow true
```

Notes:

(functionp object) ≡ (typep object 'function)

compiled-function-p

Function

Syntax:

compiled-function-p object \rightarrow generalized-boolean

Arguments and Values:

```
object—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

Description:

Returns true if object is of type compiled-function; otherwise, returns false.

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Examples:

```
(defun f (x) x) \rightarrow F
 (compiled-function-p #'f)
\rightarrow false
 (compiled-function-p 'f) 
ightarrow false
 (compile 'f) 
ightarrow F
 (compiled-function-p #'f) 
ightarrow true
 (compiled-function-p 'f) 
ightarrow false
 (compiled-function-p (compile nil '(lambda (x) x)))
 (compiled-function-p #'(lambda (x) x))
\rightarrow false
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} true
 (compiled-function-p '(lambda (x) x)) 
ightarrow false
```

See Also:

compile, compile-file, compiled-function

Notes:

 $(compiled-function-p \ object) \equiv (typep \ object \ `compiled-function)$

call-arguments-limit

Constant Variable

Constant Value:

An integer not smaller than 50 and at least as great as the value of lambda-parameters-limit, the exact magnitude of which is implementation-dependent.

Description:

The upper exclusive bound on the number of arguments that may be passed to a function.

See Also:

 $lamb da\hbox{-parameters-limit}, \ multiple\hbox{-values-limit}$

lambda-list-keywords

Constant Variable

Constant Value:

a *list*, the *elements* of which are *implementation-dependent*, but which must contain at least the *symbols* &allow-other-keys, &aux, &body, &environment, &key, &optional, &rest, and &whole.

Description:

A list of all the lambda list keywords used in the implementation, including the additional ones used only by macro definition forms.

See Also:

defun, flet, defmacro, macrolet, Section 3.1.2 (The Evaluation Model)

lambda-parameters-limit

Constant Variable

Constant Value:

implementation-dependent, but not smaller than 50.

Description

A positive *integer* that is the upper exclusive bound on the number of *parameter names* that can appear in a single *lambda list*.

See Also:

call-arguments-limit

Notes:

Implementors are encouraged to make the value of lambda-parameters-limit as large as possible.

defconstant

defconstant

Syntax:

 $\mathbf{defconstant}$ name initial-value [documentation] \rightarrow name

Arguments and Values:

```
name—a symbol; not evaluated.
initial-value—a form; evaluated.
documentation—a string; not evaluated.
```

Description:

defconstant causes the global variable named by *name* to be given a value that is the result of evaluating *initial-value*.

A constant defined by **defconstant** can be redefined with **defconstant**. However, the consequences are undefined if an attempt is made to assign a *value* to the *symbol* using another operator, or to assign it to a *different value* using a subsequent **defconstant**.

If documentation is supplied, it is attached to name as a documentation string of kind variable.

defconstant normally appears as a *top level form*, but it is meaningful for it to appear as a *non-top-level form*. However, the compile-time side effects described below only take place when **defconstant** appears as a *top level form*.

The consequences are undefined if there are any *bindings* of the variable named by *name* at the time **defconstant** is executed or if the value is not **eql** to the value of *initial-value*.

The consequences are undefined when constant *symbols* are rebound as either lexical or dynamic variables. In other words, a reference to a *symbol* declared with **defconstant** always refers to its global value.

The side effects of the execution of **defconstant** must be equivalent to at least the side effects of the execution of the following code:

```
(setf (symbol-value 'name) initial-value) (setf (documentation 'name 'variable) 'documentation)
```

If a **defconstant** form appears as a top level form, the compiler must recognize that name names a constant variable. An implementation may choose to evaluate the value-form at compile time, load time, or both. Therefore, users must ensure that the initial-value can be evaluated at compile time (regardless of whether or not references to name appear in the file) and that it always evaluates to the same value.

Examples:

```
(defconstant this-is-a-constant 'never-changing "for a test") \rightarrow THIS-IS-A-CONSTANT this-is-a-constant \rightarrow NEVER-CHANGING (documentation 'this-is-a-constant 'variable) \rightarrow "for a test" (constantp 'this-is-a-constant) \rightarrow true
```

See Also:

declaim, defparameter, defvar, documentation, proclaim, Section 3.1.2.1.1.3 (Constant Variables), Section 3.2 (Compilation)

defparameter, defvar

Macro

Syntax:

```
defparameter name initial-value [documentation] \rightarrow name defvar name [initial-value [documentation]] \rightarrow name
```

Arguments and Values:

name—a symbol; not evaluated.

initial-value—a *form*; for **defparameter**, it is always *evaluated*, but for **defvar** it is *evaluated* only if *name* is not already *bound*.

documentation—a string; not evaluated.

Description:

defparameter and defvar establish name as a dynamic variable.

defparameter unconditionally assigns the initial-value to the dynamic variable named name. defvar, by contrast, assigns initial-value (if supplied) to the dynamic variable named name only if name is not already bound.

If no *initial-value* is supplied, **defvar** leaves the *value cell* of the *dynamic variable* named *name* undisturbed; if *name* was previously *bound*, its old *value* persists, and if it was previously *un-bound*, it remains *unbound*.

If documentation is supplied, it is attached to name as a documentation string of kind variable.

defparameter and **defvar** normally appear as a *top level form*, but it is meaningful for them to appear as *non-top-level forms*. However, the compile-time side effects described below only take place when they appear as *top level forms*.

defparameter, defvar

Examples:

```
(defparameter *p* 1) \rightarrow *P*
*p* \rightarrow 1
(constantp '*p*) 	o false
(setq *p* 2) \rightarrow 2
(defparameter *p* 3) \rightarrow *P*
*p* → 3
(defvar *v* 1) \rightarrow *V*
*v* 
ightarrow 1
(constantp '*v*) 
ightarrow false
(setq *v* 2) \rightarrow 2
(defvar *v* 3) \rightarrow *V*
*v* → 2
(defun foo ()
  (let ((*p* 'p) (*v* 'v))
     (bar))) 
ightarrow F00
(defun bar () (list *p* *v*)) \rightarrow BAR
(foo) \rightarrow (P V)
```

The principal operational distinction between **defparameter** and **defvar** is that **defparameter** makes an unconditional assignment to *name*, while **defvar** makes a conditional one. In practice, this means that **defparameter** is useful in situations where loading or reloading the definition would want to pick up a new value of the variable, while **defvar** is used in situations where the old value would want to be retained if the file were loaded or reloaded. For example, one might create a file which contained:

Here the initial value, (), for the variable *the-interesting-numbers* is just a seed that we are never likely to want to reset to something else once something has been grown from it. As such, we have used defvar to avoid having the *interesting-numbers* information reset if the file is loaded a second time. It is true that the two calls to define-interesting-number here would be reprocessed, but if there were additional calls in another file, they would not be and that information would be lost. On the other hand, consider the following code:

```
(defparameter *default-beep-count* 3)
(defun beep (&optional (n *default-beep-count*))
  (dotimes (i n) (si:%beep 1000. 100000.) (sleep 0.1)))
```

defparameter, defvar

Here we could easily imagine editing the code to change the initial value of *default-beep-count*, and then reloading the file to pick up the new value. In order to make value updating easy, we have used defparameter.

On the other hand, there is potential value to using defvar in this situation. For example, suppose that someone had predefined an alternate value for *default-beep-count*, or had loaded the file and then manually changed the value. In both cases, if we had used defvar instead of defparameter, those user preferences would not be overridden by (re)loading the file.

The choice of whether to use **defparameter** or **defvar** has visible consequences to programs, but is nevertheless often made for subjective reasons.

Side Effects:

If a **defvar** or **defparameter** form appears as a top level form, the compiler must recognize that the name has been proclaimed **special**. However, it must neither evaluate the initial-value form nor assign the dynamic variable named name at compile time.

There may be additional (*implementation-defined*) compile-time or run-time side effects, as long as such effects do not interfere with the correct operation of *conforming programs*.

Affected By:

 \mathbf{defvar} is affected by whether name is already bound.

See Also:

declaim, defconstant, documentation, Section 3.2 (Compilation)

Notes:

It is customary to name dynamic variables with an asterisk at the beginning and end of the name. e.g., *foo* is a good name for a dynamic variable, but not for a lexical variable; foo is a good name for a lexical variable, but not for a dynamic variable. This naming convention is observed for all defined names in Common Lisp; however, neither conforming programs nor conforming implementations are obliged to adhere to this convention.

The intent of the permission for additional side effects is to allow *implementations* to do normal "bookkeeping" that accompanies definitions. For example, the *macro expansion* of a **defvar** or **defparameter** *form* might include code that arranges to record the name of the source file in which the definition occurs.

defparameter and defvar might be defined as follows:

destructuring-bind

Macro

Syntax:

```
destructuring-bind lambda-list expression \{declaration\}^* \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

Arguments and Values:

```
lambda-list—a destructuring lambda list.
expression—a form.
declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.
forms—an implicit progn.
results—the values returned by the forms.
```

Description:

destructuring-bind binds the variables specified in *lambda-list* to the corresponding values in the tree structure resulting from the evaluation of *expression*; then **destructuring-bind** evaluates *forms*

The *lambda-list* supports destructuring as described in Section 3.4.5 (Destructuring Lambda Lists).

Exceptional Situations:

If the result of evaluating the *expression* does not match the destructuring pattern, an error of *type* **error** should be signaled.

See Also:

macrolet, defmacro

let, let*

Special Operator

Syntax:

```
let (\{var \mid (var \ [init-form])\}^*) \{declaration\}^* \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^* \}
let* (\{var \mid (var \ [init-form])\}^*) \{declaration\}^* \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^* \}
```

Arguments and Values:

The form

formn)

```
var—a symbol.
init-form—a form.
declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.
form—a form.
results—the values returned by the forms.
```

Description:

let and **let*** create new variable *bindings* and execute a series of *forms* that use these *bindings*. **let** performs the *bindings* in parallel and **let*** does them sequentially.

```
(let ((var1 init-form-1)
(var2 init-form-2)
...
(varm init-form-m))
declaration1
declaration2
...
declarationp
form1
form2
```

first evaluates the expressions *init-form-1*, *init-form-2*, and so on, in that order, saving the resulting values. Then all of the variables *varj* are bound to the corresponding values; each *binding* is lexical unless there is a **special** declaration to the contrary. The expressions *formk* are then evaluated in order; the values of all but the last are discarded (that is, the body of a **let** is an *implicit progn*).

let* is similar to let, but the *bindings* of variables are performed sequentially rather than in parallel. The expression for the *init-form* of a var can refer to vars previously bound in the let*.

The form

first evaluates the expression *init-form-1*, then binds the variable *var1* to that value; then it evaluates *init-form-2* and binds *var2*, and so on. The expressions *formj* are then evaluated in order; the values of all but the last are discarded (that is, the body of let* is an implicit **progn**).

For both let and let*, if there is not an init-form associated with a var, var is initialized to nil.

The special form **let** has the property that the *scope* of the name binding does not include any initial value form. For **let***, a variable's *scope* also includes the remaining initial value forms for subsequent variable bindings.

Examples:

The code

```
\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
```

```
(let (x)
  (declare (integer x))
  (setq x (gcd y z))
  ...)
```

is incorrect; although x is indeed set before it is used, and is set to a value of the declared type integer, nevertheless x initially takes on the value nil in violation of the type declaration.

See Also:

progv

progv Special Operator

Syntax:

```
progv symbols values \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

Arguments and Values:

symbols—a list of symbols; evaluated.

values—a list of objects; evaluated.

forms—an implicit progn.

results—the values returned by the forms.

Description:

progv creates new dynamic variable *bindings* and executes each *form* using those *bindings*. Each *form* is evaluated in order.

progv allows binding one or more dynamic variables whose names may be determined at run time. Each form is evaluated in order with the dynamic variables whose names are in symbols bound to corresponding values. If too few values are supplied, the remaining symbols are bound and then made to have no value. If too many values are supplied, the excess values are ignored. The bindings of the dynamic variables are undone on exit from **progv**.

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{setq *x* 1}) \to 1 \\ (\text{progv '(*x*) '(2) *x*}) \to 2 \\ *x* \to 1 \\ \\ \text{Assuming *x* is not globally special,} \\ (\text{let ((*x* 3))} \\ (\text{progv '(*x*) '(4)} \end{array}
```

```
(list *x* (symbol-value '*x*)))) \rightarrow (3 4)
```

See Also:

let, Section 3.1 (Evaluation)

Notes:

Among other things, **progv** is useful when writing interpreters for languages embedded in Lisp; it provides a handle on the mechanism for binding dynamic variables.

setq Special Form

Syntax:

```
\operatorname{setq} \{\downarrow pair\}^* \rightarrow result
    pair::=var form
```

Pronunciation:

[set kyü]

Arguments and Values:

var—a symbol naming a variable other than a constant variable.

form—a form.

result—the primary value of the last form, or nil if no pairs were supplied.

Description:

Assigns values to variables.

(setq var1 form1 var2 form2 ...) is the simple variable assignment statement of Lisp. First form1 is evaluated and the result is stored in the variable var1, then form2 is evaluated and the result stored in var2, and so forth. setq may be used for assignment of both lexical and dynamic variables.

If any var refers to a binding made by symbol-macrolet, then that var is treated as if setf (not **setq**) had been used.

```
;; A simple use of SETQ to establish values for variables.
(setq a 1 b 2 c 3) 
ightarrow 3
\mathtt{a}\,\rightarrow\,\mathtt{1}
\mathtt{b}\,\rightarrow\,\mathtt{2}
c \rightarrow 3
```

```
;; Use of SETQ to update values by sequential assignment. (setq a (1+ b) b (1+ a) c (+ a b)) \rightarrow 7 a \rightarrow 3 b \rightarrow 4 c \rightarrow 7 ;; This illustrates the use of SETQ on a symbol macro. (let ((x (list 10 20 30))) (symbol-macrolet ((y (car x)) (z (cadr x))) (setq y (1+ z) z (1+ y)) (list x y z))) \rightarrow ((21 22 30) 21 22)
```

Side Effects:

The primary value of each form is assigned to the corresponding var.

See Also:

psetq, set, setf

psetq

Syntax:

```
psetq \{ \downarrow pair \}^* \rightarrow nil
pair ::= var \ form
```

Pronunciation:

```
psetq: [ˈpēˈsetˌkyü]
```

Arguments and Values:

var—a symbol naming a variable other than a constant variable.

```
form—a form.
```

Description:

Assigns values to variables.

This is just like **setq**, except that the assignments happen "in parallel." That is, first all of the forms are evaluated, and only then are the variables set to the resulting values. In this way, the assignment to one variable does not affect the value computation of another in the way that would occur with **setq**'s sequential assignment.

If any *var* refers to a *binding* made by **symbol-macrolet**, then that *var* is treated as if **psetf** (not **psetq**) had been used.

Examples:

```
;; A simple use of PSETQ to establish values for variables.
 ;; As a matter of style, many programmers would prefer {\tt SETQ}
 ;; in a simple situation like this where parallel assignment
 ;; is not needed, but the two have equivalent effect.
 (psetq a 1 b 2 c 3) 
ightarrow NIL
\mathtt{a}\,\rightarrow\,\mathtt{1}
b\,\rightarrow\,2
 c \rightarrow 3
 ;; Use of PSETQ to update values by parallel assignment.
 ;; The effect here is very different than if SETQ had been used.
 (psetq a (1+ b) b (1+ a) c (+ a b)) \rightarrow NIL
\mathtt{a}\,\rightarrow\,\mathtt{3}
\mathtt{b}\,\rightarrow\,\mathtt{2}
c \rightarrow 3
 ;; Use of PSETQ on a symbol macro.
 (let ((x (list 10 20 30)))
   (symbol-macrolet ((y (car x)) (z (cadr x)))
      (psetq y (1+ z) z (1+ y))
      (list x y z)))

ightarrow ((21 11 30) 21 11)
 ;; Use of parallel assignment to swap values of {\tt A} and {\tt B}.
 (let ((a 1) (b 2))
   (psetq a b b a)
   (values a b))

ightarrow 2, 1
```

Side Effects:

The values of forms are assigned to vars.

See Also:

psetf, setq

block

block Special Operator

Syntax:

```
block name form* \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

Arguments and Values:

```
name—a symbol.
form—a form.
```

results—the values of the forms if a $normal\ return$ occurs, or else, if an $explicit\ return$ occurs, the values that were transferred.

Description:

block establishes a block named name and then evaluates forms as an implicit progn.

The *special operators* block and return-from work together to provide a structured, lexical, non-local exit facility. At any point lexically contained within *forms*, return-from can be used with the given *name* to return control and values from the block *form*, except when an intervening *block* with the same name has been *established*, in which case the outer *block* is shadowed by the inner one.

The block named name has lexical scope and dynamic extent.

Once established, a block may only be exited once, whether by normal return or explicit return.

Examples:

```
(block empty) \rightarrow NIL (block whocares (values 1 2) (values 3 4)) \rightarrow 3, 4 (let ((x 1)) (block stop (setq x 2) (return-from stop) (setq x 3)) x) \rightarrow 2 (block early (return-from early (values 1 2)) (values 3 4)) \rightarrow 1, 2 (block outer (block inner (return-from outer 1)) 2) \rightarrow 1 (block twin (block twin (return-from twin 1)) 2) \rightarrow 2 ;; Contrast behavior of this example with corresponding example of CATCH. (block b (flet ((b1 () (return-from b 1))) (block b (b1) (print 'unreachable)) 2)) \rightarrow 1
```

See Also:

return, return-from, Section 3.1 (Evaluation)

Notes:

catch Special Operator

Syntax:

catch tag $\{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*$

Arguments and Values:

tag—a catch tag; evaluated.

forms—an implicit progn.

results—if the forms exit normally, the values returned by the forms; if a throw occurs to the tag, the values that are thrown.

Description:

catch is used as the destination of a non-local control transfer by throw. Tags are used to find the catch to which a throw is transferring control. (catch 'foo form) catches a (throw 'foo form) but not a (throw 'bar form).

The order of execution of catch follows:

- 1. Tag is evaluated. It serves as the name of the catch.
- 2. Forms are then evaluated as an implicit **progn**, and the results of the last form are returned unless a **throw** occurs.
- 3. If a **throw** occurs during the execution of one of the *forms*, control is transferred to the **catch** *form* whose *tag* is **eq** to the tag argument of the **throw** and which is the most recently established **catch** with that *tag*. No further evaluation of *forms* occurs.
- 4. The tag established by catch is disestablished just before the results are returned.

If during the execution of one of the *forms*, a **throw** is executed whose tag is **eq** to the **catch** tag, then the values specified by the **throw** are returned as the result of the dynamically most recently established **catch** form with that tag.

The mechanism for **catch** and **throw** works even if **throw** is not within the lexical scope of **catch**. **throw** must occur within the *dynamic extent* of the *evaluation* of the body of a **catch** with a corresponding *tag*.

Examples:

(catch 'dummy-tag 1 2 (throw 'dummy-tag 3) 4) ightarrow 3

```
(catch 'dummy-tag 1 2 3 4) \rightarrow 4 (defun throw-back (tag) (throw tag t)) \rightarrow THROW-BACK (catch 'dummy-tag (throw-back 'dummy-tag) 2) \rightarrow T; Contrast behavior of this example with corresponding example of BLOCK. (catch 'c (flet ((c1 () (throw 'c 1))) (catch 'c (c1) (print 'unreachable)) \rightarrow 2
```

Exceptional Situations:

An error of type control-error is signaled if throw is done when there is no suitable catch tag.

See Also:

throw, Section 3.1 (Evaluation)

Notes:

It is customary for *symbols* to be used as *tags*, but any *object* is permitted. However, numbers should not be used because the comparison is done using eq.

catch differs from block in that catch tags have dynamic scope while block names have lexical scope.

go Special Operator

O

go tag \rightarrow

Arguments and Values:

tag—a go tag.

Description:

Syntax:

go transfers control to the point in the body of an enclosing tagbody form labeled by a tag eql to tag. If there is no such tag in the body, the bodies of lexically containing tagbody forms (if any) are examined as well. If several tags are eql to tag, control is transferred to whichever matching tag is contained in the innermost tagbody form that contains the go. The consequences are undefined if there is no matching tag lexically visible to the point of the go.

The transfer of control initiated by **go** is performed as described in Section 5.2 (Transfer of Control to an Exit Point).

Examples:

(tagbody

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See Also:

tagbody

return-from

Special Operator

Syntax:

```
return-from name [result] \rightarrow |
```

Arguments and Values:

```
name—a block tag; not evaluated.
result—a form; evaluated. The default is nil.
```

Description:

Returns control and $multiple\ values_2$ from a lexically enclosing block.

A **block** form named name must lexically enclose the occurrence of **return-from**; any values yielded by the evaluation of result are immediately returned from the innermost such lexically enclosing block.

The transfer of control initiated by **return-from** is performed as described in Section 5.2 (Transfer of Control to an Exit Point).

```
(block alpha (return-from alpha) 1) 
ightarrow NIL (block alpha (return-from alpha 1) 2) 
ightarrow 1
```

return-from

```
(block alpha (return-from alpha (values 1 2)) 3) 
ightarrow 1, 2
 (let ((a 0))
     (dotimes (i 10) (incf a) (when (oddp i) (return)))
    a) \rightarrow 2
 (defun temp (x)
     (if x (return-from temp 'dummy))
     44) 
ightarrow TEMP
 (temp nil) 
ightarrow 44
 (temp t) 
ightarrow DUMMY
 (block out
   (flet ((exit (n) (return-from out n)))
      (block out (exit 1)))
   2) \rightarrow 1
 (block nil
   (unwind-protect (return-from nil 1)
      (return-from nil 2)))
 (dolist (flag '(nil t))
   (block nil
      (let ((x 5))
        (declare (special x))
        (unwind-protect (return-from nil)
           (print x))))
   (print 'here))
⊳ 5

▷ HERE

⊳ 5

ightharpoonup HERE
\rightarrow NIL
 (dolist (flag '(nil t))
   (block nil
      (let ((x 5))
        (declare (special x))
        (unwind-protect
             (if flag (return-from nil))
           (print x))))
    (print 'here))
⊳ 5

ightharpoonup HERE
⊳ 5

▷ HERE

ightarrow NIL
```

The following has undefined consequences because the **block** form exits normally before the **return-from** form is attempted.

```
(funcall (block nil #'(lambda () (return-from nil)))) is an error.
```

See Also:

block, return, Section 3.1 (Evaluation)

return

Syntax:

```
return [result] \rightarrow
```

Arguments and Values:

 $\textit{result}\--$ aform; evaluated. The default is $\mathbf{nil}.$

Description:

Returns, as if by **return-from**, from the *block* named **nil**.

Examples:

```
(block nil (return) 1) \rightarrow NIL (block nil (return 1) 2) \rightarrow 1 (block nil (return (values 1 2)) 3) \rightarrow 1, 2 (block nil (block alpha (return 1) 2)) \rightarrow 1 (block alpha (block nil (return 1)) 2) \rightarrow 2 (block nil (block nil (return 1) 2)) \rightarrow 1
```

See Also:

block, return-from, Section 3.1 (Evaluation)

Notes:

```
(return) ≡ (return-from nil)
(return form) ≡ (return-from nil form)
```

The *implicit blocks established* by *macros* such as **do** are often named **nil**, so that **return** can be used to exit from such *forms*.

tagbody

tagbody

Special Operator

Syntax:

```
tagbody \{tag \mid statement\}^* \rightarrow nil
```

Arguments and Values:

```
tag—a go tag; not evaluated.
```

statement—a compound form; evaluated as described below.

Description:

Executes zero or more *statements* in a *lexical environment* that provides for control transfers to labels indicated by the *tags*.

The statements in a tagbody are evaluated in order from left to right, and their values are discarded. If at any time there are no remaining statements, tagbody returns nil. However, if (go tag) is evaluated, control jumps to the part of the body labeled with the tag. (Tags are compared with eql.)

A tag established by tagbody has lexical scope and has dynamic extent. Once tagbody has been exited, it is no longer valid to go to a tag in its body. It is permissible for go to jump to a tagbody that is not the innermost tagbody containing that go; the tags established by a tagbody only shadow other tags of like name.

The determination of which elements of the body are *tags* and which are *statements* is made prior to any *macro expansion* of that element. If a *statement* is a *macro form* and its *macro expansion* is an *atom*, that *atom* is treated as a *statement*, not a *tag*.

```
(let (val)
  (tagbody
      (setq val 1)
      (go point-a)
      (incf val 16)
  point-c
      (incf val 04)
      (go point-b)
      (incf val 32)
  point-a
      (incf val 02)
      (go point-c)
      (incf val 64)
  point-b
      (incf val 08))
```

```
val)
\rightarrow 15
 (defun f1 (flag)
    (let ((n 1))
      (tagbody
         (setq n (f2 flag #'(lambda () (go out))))
         (prin1 n))))
\rightarrow F1
 (defun f2 (flag escape)
   (if flag (funcall escape) 2))
\rightarrow F2
 (f1 nil)
⊳ 2

ightarrow NIL
 (f1 t)
\rightarrow NIL
```

See Also:

20

Notes:

The macros in Figure 5–10 have $implicit\ tagbodies$.

do	${f do-external-symbols}$	$\mathbf{dotimes}$
do*	do-symbols	\mathbf{prog}
do-all-symbols	dolist	prog^*

Figure 5-10. Macros that have implicit tagbodies.

throw Special Operator

Syntax:

throw tag result-form \rightarrow

Arguments and Values:

tag—a $catch\ tag$; evaluated.

result-form—a form; evaluated as described below.

throw

Description:

throw causes a non-local control transfer to a catch whose tag is eq to tag.

Tag is evaluated first to produce an *object* called the throw tag; then *result-form* is evaluated, and its results are saved. If the *result-form* produces multiple values, then all the values are saved. The most recent outstanding **catch** whose *tag* is **eq** to the throw tag is exited; the saved results are returned as the value or values of **catch**.

The transfer of control initiated by **throw** is performed as described in Section 5.2 (Transfer of Control to an Exit Point).

Examples:

```
(catch 'result (setq i 0 j 0) (loop (incf j 3) (incf i) (if (= i 3) (throw 'result (values i j))))) \rightarrow 3, 9 (catch nil (unwind-protect (throw nil 1) (throw nil 2))) \rightarrow 2
```

The consequences of the following are undefined because the **catch** of **b** is passed over by the first **throw**, hence portable programs must assume that its *dynamic extent* is terminated. The *binding* of the *catch tag* is not yet *disestablished* and therefore it is the target of the second **throw**.

Exceptional Situations:

If there is no outstanding catch tag that matches the throw tag, no unwinding of the stack

is performed, and an error of *type* **control-error** is signaled. When the error is signaled, the *dynamic environment* is that which was in force at the point of the **throw**.

See Also:

block, catch, return-from, unwind-protect, Section 3.1 (Evaluation)

Notes:

catch and throw are normally used when the *exit point* must have *dynamic scope* (e.g., the throw is not lexically enclosed by the catch), while block and return are used when *lexical scope* is sufficient.

unwind-protect

Special Operator

Syntax:

unwind-protect protected-form $\{cleanup-form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*$

Arguments and Values:

 $\textit{protected-form} \text{---} a \ \textit{form}.$

cleanup-form—a form.

results—the values of the protected-form.

Description:

unwind-protect evaluates *protected-form* and guarantees that *cleanup-forms* are executed before **unwind-protect** exits, whether it terminates normally or is aborted by a control transfer of some kind. **unwind-protect** is intended to be used to make sure that certain side effects take place after the evaluation of *protected-form*.

If a *non-local exit* occurs during execution of *cleanup-forms*, no special action is taken. The *cleanup-forms* of **unwind-protect** are not protected by that **unwind-protect**.

unwind-protect protects against all attempts to exit from *protected-form*, including go, handler-case, ignore-errors, restart-case, return-from, throw, and with-simple-restart.

Undoing of handler and restart bindings during an exit happens in parallel with the undoing of the bindings of dynamic variables and catch tags, in the reverse order in which they were established. The effect of this is that cleanup-form sees the same handler and restart bindings, as well as dynamic variable bindings and catch tags, as were visible when the unwind-protect was entered.

Examples:

(tagbody

unwind-protect

```
(let ((x 3))
     (unwind-protect
        (if (numberp x) (go out))
        (print x)))
  out
When go is executed, the call to print is executed first, and then the transfer of control to the tag
out is completed.
 (defun dummy-function (x)
    (setq state 'running)
    (unless (numberp x) (throw 'abort 'not-a-number))
    (setq state (1+ x))) \rightarrow DUMMY-FUNCTION
 (catch 'abort (dummy-function 1)) 
ightarrow 2
 \mathtt{state}\,\rightarrow\,2
 (catch 'abort (dummy-function 'trash)) 
ightarrow NOT-A-NUMBER
 \mathtt{state} \, \to \, \mathtt{RUNNING}
 (catch 'abort (unwind-protect (dummy-function 'trash)
                    (setq state 'aborted))) 
ightarrow NOT-A-NUMBER
 \mathtt{state} \, 	o \, \mathtt{ABORTED}
The following code is not correct:
 (unwind-protect
   (progn (incf *access-count*)
           (perform-access))
   (decf *access-count*))
If an exit occurs before completion of incf, the decf form is executed anyway, resulting in an
incorrect value for *access-count*. The correct way to code this is as follows:
 (let ((old-count *access-count*))
   (unwind-protect
     (progn (incf *access-count*)
             (perform-access))
     (setq *access-count* old-count)))
;;; The following returns 2.
 (block nil
   (unwind-protect (return 1)
     (return 2)))
;;; The following has undefined consequences.
 (block a
```

(block b

unwind-protect

```
(unwind-protect (return-from a 1)
       (return-from b 2))))
;;; The following returns 2.
 (catch nil
   (unwind-protect (throw nil 1)
     (throw nil 2)))
;;; The following has undefined consequences because the catch of B is
;;; passed over by the first THROW, hence portable programs must assume
;;; its dynamic extent is terminated. The binding of the catch tag is not
;;; yet disestablished and therefore it is the target of the second throw.
(catch 'a
   (catch 'b
     (unwind-protect (throw 'a 1)
       (throw 'b 2))))
;;; The following prints "The inner catch returns :SECOND-THROW"
;;; and then returns :OUTER-CATCH.
 (catch 'foo
         (format t "The inner catch returns ~s.~%"
                 (catch 'foo
                     (unwind-protect (throw 'foo :first-throw)
                         (throw 'foo :second-throw))))
         :outer-catch)
;;; The following returns 10. The inner CATCH of A is passed over, but
;;; because that CATCH is disestablished before the THROW to A is executed,
;;; it isn't seen.
 (catch 'a
   (catch 'b
     (unwind-protect (1+ (catch 'a (throw 'b 1)))
       (throw 'a 10))))
;;; The following has undefined consequences because the extent of
;;; the (CATCH 'BAR \dots) exit ends when the (THROW 'FOO \dots)
;;; commences.
 (catch 'foo
   (catch 'bar
       (unwind-protect (throw 'foo 3)
         (throw 'bar 4)
         (print 'xxx))))
```

See Also:

catch, go, handler-case, restart-case, return, return-from, throw, Section 3.1 (Evaluation)

nil Constant Variable

Constant Value:

nil.

Description:

nil represents both boolean (and generalized boolean) false and the empty list.

Examples:

 $\mathtt{nil} \, \to \, \mathtt{NIL}$

See Also:

t

not

Syntax:

 $\mathbf{not} \ x \rightarrow \mathit{boolean}$

Arguments and Values:

x—a generalized boolean (i.e., any object).

boolean—a boolean.

Description:

Returns \mathbf{t} if \mathbf{x} is false; otherwise, returns \mathbf{nil} .

Examples:

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{not nil}) \, \to \, \mathtt{T} \\ (\text{not '()}) \, \to \, \mathtt{T} \\ (\text{not (integerp 'sss)}) \, \to \, \mathtt{T} \\ (\text{not (integerp 1)}) \, \to \, \mathtt{NIL} \\ (\text{not 3.7}) \, \to \, \mathtt{NIL} \\ (\text{not 'apple}) \, \to \, \mathtt{NIL} \end{array}
```

See Also:

null

Notes:

not is intended to be used to invert the 'truth value' of a *boolean* (or *generalized boolean*) whereas **null** is intended to be used to test for the *empty list*. Operationally, **not** and **null** compute the same result; which to use is a matter of style.

t Constant Variable

Constant Value:

 $\mathbf{t}.$

Description:

The boolean representing true, and the canonical generalized boolean representing true. Although any object other than nil is considered true, t is generally used when there is no special reason to prefer one such object over another.

The *symbol* t is also sometimes used for other purposes as well. For example, as the *name* of a *class*, as a *designator* (*e.g.*, a *stream designator*) or as a special symbol for some syntactic reason (*e.g.*, in **case** and **typecase** to label the *otherwise-clause*).

Examples:

```
t \rightarrow T (eq t 't) \rightarrow true (find-class 't) \rightarrow #<CLASS T 610703333> (case 'a (a 1) (t 2)) \rightarrow 1 (case 'b (a 1) (t 2)) \rightarrow 2 (prin1 'hello t) \triangleright HELLO \rightarrow HELLO
```

See Also:

 $_{
m nil}$

eq Function

Syntax:

```
\mathbf{eq} \ x \ y \ 	o generalized-boolean
```

Arguments and Values:

```
x—an object.y—an object.generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

Description:

Returns true if its arguments are the same, identical object; otherwise, returns false.

```
\begin{array}{c} (\text{eq 'a 'b)} \rightarrow \textit{false} \\ (\text{eq 'a 'a)} \rightarrow \textit{true} \\ (\text{eq 3 3)} \rightarrow \textit{true} \\ \stackrel{\textit{or}}{\rightarrow} \textit{false} \\ (\text{eq 3 3.0)} \rightarrow \textit{false} \\ (\text{eq 3.0 3.0)} \rightarrow \textit{true} \\ \stackrel{\textit{or}}{\rightarrow} \textit{false} \\ \rightarrow \textit{false} \end{array}
```

```
(eq #c(3 -4) #c(3 -4))
  \rightarrow true
\stackrel{or^{'}}{\rightarrow} \mathit{false}
 (eq #c(3 -4.0) #c(3 -4)) \rightarrow false
 (eq (cons 'a 'b) (cons 'a 'c)) 
ightarrow false
 (eq (cons 'a 'b) (cons 'a 'b)) 
ightarrow false
 (eq '(a . b) '(a . b))
\rightarrow true
\stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} \mathit{false}
 (progn (setq x (cons 'a 'b)) (eq x x)) 
ightarrow true
 (progn (setq x '(a . b)) (eq x x)) 
ightarrow true
 (eq \#\A \#\A)
 \rightarrow true
\stackrel{or^{'}}{\rightarrow} \mathit{false}
 (let ((x "Foo")) (eq x x)) 
ightarrow true
 (eq "Foo" "Foo")
\begin{array}{c} \rightarrow & true \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} & false \end{array}
 (eq "Foo" (copy-seq "Foo")) 
ightarrow false
 (eq "F00" "foo") 
ightarrow false
 (eq "string-seq" (copy-seq "string-seq")) 
ightarrow false
 (let ((x 5)) (eq x x))
\begin{array}{c} \rightarrow & true \\ \stackrel{or}{\rightarrow} & false \end{array}
```

See Also:

eql, equal, equalp, =, Section 3.2 (Compilation)

Notes:

Objects that appear the same when printed are not necessarily eq to each other. Symbols that print the same usually are eq to each other because of the use of the intern function. However, numbers with the same value need not be eq, and two similar lists are usually not identical.

An implementation is permitted to make "copies" of *characters* and *numbers* at any time. The effect is that Common Lisp makes no guarantee that **eq** is true even when both its arguments are "the same thing" if that thing is a *character* or *number*.

Most Common Lisp *operators* use **eql** rather than **eq** to compare objects, or else they default to **eql** and only use **eq** if specifically requested to do so. However, the following *operators* are defined to use **eq** rather than **eql** in a way that cannot be overridden by the *code* which employs them:

catch	getf	throw
get	\mathbf{remf}	
get-properties	remprop	

Figure 5–11. Operators that always prefer EQ over EQL

eql Function

Syntax:

```
eql x y \rightarrow generalized-boolean
```

Arguments and Values:

```
x—an object.y—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

Description:

The value of eql is true of two objects, x and y, in the following cases:

- 1. If x and y are eq.
- 2. If x and y are both numbers of the same type and the same value.
- 3. If they are both *characters* that represent the same character.

Otherwise the value of eql is false.

If an implementation supports positive and negative zeros as distinct values, then (eq1 0.0 -0.0) returns false. Otherwise, when the syntax -0.0 is read it is interpreted as the value 0.0, and so (eq1 0.0 -0.0) returns true.

```
 \begin{array}{l} (\mbox{eql 'a 'b}) \to false \\ (\mbox{eql 'a 'a}) \to true \\ (\mbox{eql 3 3}) \to true \\ (\mbox{eql 3 3.0}) \to false \\ (\mbox{eql 3.0 3.0}) \to true \\ (\mbox{eql $(\mbox{eql $1.0$})} \to b) & (\mbox{eql $1.0$}) \to false \\ (\mbox{eql $(\mbox{eql $1.0$})} \to true \\ (\mbox{eql $1.0$}) \to true \\ (\mbox{eql $
```

```
(eql "Foo" "Foo")
 \rightarrow true
\stackrel{or^{'}}{\rightarrow} \mathit{false}
 (eql "Foo" (copy-seq "Foo")) 
ightarrow false
 (eql "F00" "foo") 
ightarrow false
```

Normally (eql 1.0s0 1.0d0) is false, under the assumption that 1.0s0 and 1.0d0 are of distinct data types. However, implementations that do not provide four distinct floating-point formats are permitted to "collapse" the four formats into some smaller number of them; in such an implementation (eql 1.0s0 1.0d0) might be true.

See Also:

```
eq, equal, equalp, =, char=
```

Notes:

eql is the same as eq, except that if the arguments are characters or numbers of the same type then their values are compared. Thus eql tells whether two objects are conceptually the same, whereas eq tells whether two *objects* are implementationally identical. It is for this reason that eql, not eq, is the default comparison predicate for operators that take sequences as arguments.

eql may not be true of two floats even when they represent the same value. = is used to compare mathematical values.

Two complex numbers are considered to be eql if their real parts are eql and their imaginary parts are eql. For example, (eql #C(4 5) #C(4 5)) is true and (eql #C(4 5) #C(4.0 5.0)) is false. Note that while (eq1 #C(5.0 0.0) 5.0) is false, (eq1 #C(5 0) 5) is true. In the case of (eq1 #C(5.0 0.0) 5.0) the two arguments are of different types, and so cannot satisfy eql. In the case of (eq1 #C(5 0) 5), #C(5 0) is not a complex number, but is automatically reduced to the integer 5.

equal **Function**

Syntax:

```
equal x y \rightarrow generalized-boolean
```

Arguments and Values:

```
x—an object.
y—an object.
```

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

equal

Description:

Returns true if x and y are structurally similar (isomorphic) objects. Objects are treated as follows by equal.

Symbols, Numbers, and Characters

equal is true of two objects if they are symbols that are eq, if they are numbers that are eql, or if they are *characters* that are eql.

Conses

For conses, equal is defined recursively as the two cars being equal and the two cdrs being equal.

Arrays

Two arrays are equal only if they are eq, with one exception: strings and bit vectors are compared element-by-element (using eql). If either x or y has a fill pointer, the fill pointer limits the number of elements examined by equal. Uppercase and lowercase letters in *strings* are considered by **equal** to be different.

Pathnames

Two pathnames are equal if and only if all the corresponding components (host, device, and so on) are equivalent. Whether or not uppercase and lowercase letters are considered equivalent in strings appearing in components is implementation-dependent. pathnames that are equal should be functionally equivalent.

Other (Structures, hash-tables, instances, ...)

Two other *objects* are **equal** only if they are **eq**.

equal does not descend any objects other than the ones explicitly specified above. Figure 5–12 summarizes the information given in the previous list. In addition, the figure specifies the priority of the behavior of equal, with upper entries taking priority over lower ones.

Type	Behavior	
number	uses eql	
character	uses eql	
cons	descends	
$bit\ vector$	descends	
string	descends	
pathname	"functionally equivalent"	
structure	uses eq	
Other array	uses eq	
hash table	uses eq	
Other object	uses eq	

Figure 5-12. Summary and priorities of behavior of equal

Any two *objects* that are **eql** are also **equal**.

equal may fail to terminate if x or y is circular.

Examples:

```
(equal 'a 'b) 
ightarrow false
(equal 'a 'a) 
ightarrow true
(equal 3 3) \rightarrow true
(equal 3 3.0) 
ightarrow false
(equal 3.0 3.0) 
ightarrow true
(equal #c(3 -4) #c(3 -4)) 
ightarrow true
(equal #c(3 -4.0) #c(3 -4)) \rightarrow false
(equal (cons 'a 'b) (cons 'a 'c)) 
ightarrow false
(equal (cons 'a 'b) (cons 'a 'b)) 
ightarrow true
(equal #\A #\A) 
ightarrow true
(equal #\A #\a) \rightarrow false
(equal "Foo" "Foo") 
ightarrow true
(equal "Foo" (copy-seq "Foo")) 
ightarrow true
(equal "F00" "foo") 
ightarrow false
(equal "This-string" "This-string") 
ightarrow true
(equal "This-string" "this-string") 
ightarrow false
```

See Also:

eq, eql, equalp, =, string=, string-equal, char=, char-equal, tree-equal

Notes:

Object equality is not a concept for which there is a uniquely determined correct algorithm. The appropriateness of an equality predicate can be judged only in the context of the needs of some particular program. Although these functions take any type of argument and their names sound

very generic, equal and equalp are not appropriate for every application.

A rough rule of thumb is that two *objects* are **equal** if and only if their printed representations are the same.

equalp **Function**

Syntax:

equalp $x y \rightarrow generalized$ -boolean

Arguments and Values:

x—an object.

y—an object.

generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.

Description:

Returns true if x and y are equal, or if they have components that are of the same type as each other and if those components are equalp; specifically, equalp returns true in the following cases:

Characters

If two *characters* are **char-equal**.

Numbers

If two numbers are the same under =.

Conses

If the two cars in the conses are equalp and the two cdrs in the conses are equalp.

Arrays

If two arrays have the same number of dimensions, the dimensions match, and the corresponding active elements are equalp. The types for which the arrays are specialized need not match; for example, a string and a general array that happens to contain the same characters are equalp. Because equalp performs element-by-element comparisons of strings and ignores the case of characters, case distinctions are ignored when equalp compares strings.

Structures

If two structures S_1 and S_2 have the same class and the value of each slot in S_1 is the same under equal as the value of the corresponding slot in S_2 .

Hash Tables

equalp descends *hash-tables* by first comparing the count of entries and the :test function; if those are the same, it compares the keys of the tables using the :test function and then the values of the matching keys using **equalp** recursively.

equalp does not descend any *objects* other than the ones explicitly specified above. Figure 5–13 summarizes the information given in the previous list. In addition, the figure specifies the priority of the behavior of equalp, with upper entries taking priority over lower ones.

Type	Behavior
number	uses =
character	uses char-equal
cons	descends
$bit\ vector$	descends
string	descends
pathname	same as equal
structure	descends, as described above
Other array	descends
$hash \ table$	descends, as described above
Other object	uses eq

Figure 5–13. Summary and priorities of behavior of equalp

```
(equalp 'a 'b) \to false

(equalp 'a 'a) \to true

(equalp 3 3) \to true

(equalp 3 3.0) \to true

(equalp 3.0 3.0) \to true

(equalp #c(3 -4) #c(3 -4)) \to true

(equalp #c(3 -4.0) #c(3 -4)) \to true

(equalp (cons 'a 'b) (cons 'a 'c)) \to false

(equalp (cons 'a 'b) (cons 'a 'b)) \to true

(equalp #\A #\A) \to true

(equalp #\A #\a) \to true

(equalp "Foo" "Foo") \to true

(equalp "Foo" (copy-seq "Foo")) \to true
```

```
(equalp "F00" "foo") \rightarrow true

(setq array1 (make-array 6 :element-type 'integer :initial-contents '(1 1 1 3 5 7)))

\rightarrow #(1 1 1 3 5 7)
(setq array2 (make-array 8 :element-type 'integer :initial-contents '(1 1 1 3 5 7 2 6) :fill-pointer 6))

\rightarrow #(1 1 1 3 5 7)
(equalp array1 array2) \rightarrow true
(setq vector1 (vector 1 1 1 3 5 7)) \rightarrow #(1 1 1 3 5 7)
(equalp array1 vector1) \rightarrow true
```

See Also:

eq, eql, equal, =, string=, string-equal, char=, char-equal

Notes:

Object equality is not a concept for which there is a uniquely determined correct algorithm. The appropriateness of an equality predicate can be judged only in the context of the needs of some particular program. Although these functions take any type of argument and their names sound very generic, equal and equalp are not appropriate for every application.

identity Function

Syntax:

identity object \rightarrow object

Arguments and Values:

object—an object.

Description:

Returns its argument object.

Examples:

```
(identity 101) \rightarrow 101 (mapcan #'identity (list (list 1 2 3) '(4 5 6))) \rightarrow (1 2 3 4 5 6)
```

Notes:

identity is intended for use with functions that require a function as an argument.

(eql x (identity x)) returns true for all possible values of x, but (eq x (identity x)) might return false when x is a number or character.

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```
identity could be defined by
(defun identity (x) x)
```

complement

Function

Syntax:

complement function \rightarrow complement-function

Arguments and Values:

function \$-\$a function.

complement-function—a function.

Description:

Returns a function that takes the same arguments as function, and has the same side-effect behavior as function, but returns only a single value: a generalized boolean with the opposite truth value of that which would be returned as the primary value of function. That is, when the function would have returned true as its primary value the complement-function returns false, and when the function would have returned false as its primary value the complement-function returns true.

Examples:

```
(funcall (complement #'zerop) 1) \rightarrow true (funcall (complement #'characterp) #\A) \rightarrow false (funcall (complement #'member) 'a '(a b c)) \rightarrow false (funcall (complement #'member) 'd '(a b c)) \rightarrow true
```

See Also:

 \mathbf{not}

Notes:

```
(complement x) \equiv #'(lambda (&rest arguments) (not (apply x arguments)))

In Common Lisp, functions with names like "xxx-if-not" are related to functions with names like "xxx-if" in that (xxx-if-not f . arguments) \equiv (xxx-if (complement f) . arguments)

For example, (find-if-not #'zerop '(0 0 3)) \equiv
```

```
(find-if (complement #'zerop) '(0 0 3)) 
ightarrow 3
```

Note that since the "xxx-if-not" functions and the :test-not arguments have been deprecated, uses of "xxx-if" functions or :test arguments with complement are preferred.

constantly

Function

Syntax:

 $\mathbf{constantly} \ \textit{value} \ \rightarrow \textit{function}$

Arguments and Values:

value—an object.

function—a function.

Description:

constantly returns a function that accepts any number of arguments, that has no side-effects, and that always returns value.

Examples:

```
(mapcar (constantly 3) '(a b c d)) \rightarrow (3 3 3 3)
 (defmacro with-vars (vars &body forms)
   '((lambda ,vars ,@forms) ,@(mapcar (constantly nil) vars)))

ightarrow WITH-VARS
 (macroexpand '(with-vars (a b) (setq a 3 b (* a a)) (list a b)))

ightarrow ((LAMBDA (A B) (SETQ A 3 B (* A A)) (LIST A B)) NIL NIL), true
```

See Also:

identity

Notes:

constantly could be defined by:

```
(defun constantly (object)
 #'(lambda (&rest arguments) object))
```

every, some, notevery, notany

every, some, notevery, notany

Function

Syntax:

```
every predicate &rest sequences^+ \rightarrow generalized-boolean
some predicate &rest sequences^+ \rightarrow result
notevery predicate &rest sequences^+ \rightarrow generalized-boolean
notany predicate &rest sequences^+ \rightarrow generalized-boolean
```

Arguments and Values:

```
predicate—a designator for a function of as many arguments as there are sequences.
sequence—a sequence.
result—an object.
generalized-boolean—a generalized boolean.
```

Description:

every, some, notevery, and notany test elements of sequences for satisfaction of a given predicate. The first argument to predicate is an element of the first sequence; each succeeding argument is an element of a succeeding sequence.

Predicate is first applied to the elements with index 0 in each of the *sequences*, and possibly then to the elements with index 1, and so on, until a termination criterion is met or the end of the shortest of the *sequences* is reached.

every returns *false* as soon as any invocation of *predicate* returns *false*. If the end of a *sequence* is reached, **every** returns *true*. Thus, **every** returns *true* if and only if every invocation of *predicate* returns *true*.

some returns the first *non-nil* value which is returned by an invocation of *predicate*. If the end of a *sequence* is reached without any invocation of the *predicate* returning *true*, some returns *false*. Thus, some returns *true* if and only if some invocation of *predicate* returns *true*.

notany returns *false* as soon as any invocation of *predicate* returns *true*. If the end of a *sequence* is reached, **notany** returns *true*. Thus, **notany** returns *true* if and only if it is not the case that any invocation of *predicate* returns *true*.

notevery returns *true* as soon as any invocation of *predicate* returns *false*. If the end of a *sequence* is reached, **notevery** returns *false*. Thus, **notevery** returns *true* if and only if it is not the case that every invocation of *predicate* returns *true*.

Examples:

```
(every #'characterp "abc") \rightarrow true (some #'= '(1 2 3 4 5) '(5 4 3 2 1)) \rightarrow true (notevery #'< '(1 2 3 4) '(5 6 7 8) '(9 10 11 12)) \rightarrow false (notany #'> '(1 2 3 4) '(5 6 7 8) '(9 10 11 12)) \rightarrow true
```

Exceptional Situations:

Should signal **type-error** if its first argument is neither a *symbol* nor a *function* or if any subsequent argument is not a *proper sequence*.

Other exceptional situations are possible, depending on the nature of the predicate.

See Also:

```
and, or, Section 3.6 (Traversal Rules and Side Effects)
```

Notes:

```
(notany predicate \{sequence\}^*) \equiv (not (some predicate \{sequence\}^*)) (notevery predicate \{sequence\}^*) \equiv (not (every predicate \{sequence\}^*))
```

and

Syntax:

```
and \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

Arguments and Values:

```
form—a form.
```

results—the values resulting from the evaluation of the last form, or the symbols nil or t.

Description:

The macro and evaluates each *form* one at a time from left to right. As soon as any *form* evaluates to nil, and returns nil without evaluating the remaining *forms*. If all *forms* but the last evaluate to *true* values, and returns the results produced by evaluating the last *form*.

If no forms are supplied, (and) returns t.

and passes back multiple values from the last *subform* but not from subforms other than the last.

```
(if (and (>= n 0)
```

```
(< n (length a-simple-vector))
  (eq (elt a-simple-vector n) 'foo))
(princ "Foo!"))</pre>
```

The above expression prints Foo! if element n of a-simple-vector is the symbol foo, provided also that n is indeed a valid index for a-simple-vector. Because and guarantees left-to-right testing of its parts, elt is not called if n is out of range.

```
(setq temp1 1 temp2 1 temp3 1) \rightarrow 1 (and (incf temp1) (incf temp2) (incf temp3)) \rightarrow 2 (and (eql 2 temp1) (eql 2 temp2) (eql 2 temp3)) \rightarrow true (decf temp3) \rightarrow 1 (and (decf temp1) (decf temp2) (eq temp3 'nil) (decf temp3)) \rightarrow NIL (and (eql temp1 temp2) (eql temp2 temp3)) \rightarrow true (and) \rightarrow T
```

See Also:

cond, every, if, or, when

Notes:

```
(and form) \equiv (let () form)
(and form1 form2 ...) \equiv (when form1 (and form2 ...))
```

 \mathbf{cond}

Syntax:

```
cond \{ \downarrow clause \}^* \rightarrow \{ result \}^*clause ::= (test-form \{ form \}^*)
```

Arguments and Values:

```
test-form—a form.
```

forms—an implicit progn.

results—the values of the forms in the first clause whose test-form yields true, or the primary value of the test-form if there are no forms in that clause, or else nil if no test-form yields true.

Description:

cond allows the execution of forms to be dependent on test-form.

Test-forms are evaluated one at a time in the order in which they are given in the argument list until a test-form is found that evaluates to true.

If there are no *forms* in that clause, the *primary value* of the *test-form* is returned by the **cond** *form*. Otherwise, the *forms* associated with this *test-form* are evaluated in order, left to right, as an *implicit progn*, and the *values* returned by the last *form* are returned by the **cond** *form*.

Once one test-form has yielded true, no additional test-forms are evaluated. If no test-form yields true, nil is returned.

Examples:

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{defun select-options ()} \\ (\text{cond ((= a 1) (setq a 2))} \\ (\text{(= a 2) (setq a 3))} \\ ((\text{and (= a 3) (floor a 2)))} \\ (\text{t (floor a 3))))} \rightarrow \text{SELECT-OPTIONS} \\ (\text{setq a 1)} \rightarrow 1 \\ (\text{select-options}) \rightarrow 2 \\ \text{a} \rightarrow 2 \\ (\text{select-options}) \rightarrow 3 \\ \text{a} \rightarrow 3 \\ (\text{select-options}) \rightarrow 1 \\ (\text{setq a 5)} \rightarrow 5 \\ (\text{select-options}) \rightarrow 1, 2 \\ \end{array}
```

See Also:

if, case.

if

Special Operator

Syntax:

if test-form then-form [else-form] \rightarrow {result}*

Arguments and Values:

```
Test-form—a form.
```

Then-form—a form.

Else-form—a form. The default is nil.

results—if the test-form yielded true, the values returned by the then-form; otherwise, the values returned by the else-form.

Description:

if allows the execution of a form to be dependent on a single test-form.

First test-form is evaluated. If the result is true, then then-form is selected; otherwise else-form is selected. Whichever form is selected is then evaluated.

Examples:

```
 \begin{array}{l} (\text{if t 1}) \to 1 \\ (\text{if nil 1 2}) \to 2 \\ (\text{defun test ()} \\ (\text{dolist (truth-value '(t nil 1 (a b c)))} \\ (\text{if truth-value (print 'true) (print 'false))} \\ (\text{prin1 truth-value)))} \to \text{TEST} \\ (\text{test)} \\ \triangleright \text{ TRUE T} \\ \triangleright \text{ FALSE NIL} \\ \triangleright \text{ TRUE 1} \\ \triangleright \text{ TRUE (A B C)} \\ \to \text{ NIL} \\ \end{array}
```

See Also:

cond, unless, when

Notes:

 $oldsymbol{Or}$

Syntax:

```
or \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{results\}^*
```

Arguments and Values:

```
form—a form.
```

results—the values or primary value (see below) resulting from the evaluation of the last form executed or nil.

Description:

or evaluates each *form*, one at a time, from left to right. The evaluation of all *forms* terminates when a *form* evaluates to *true* (*i.e.*, something other than nil).

If the evaluation of any form other than the last returns a primary value that is true, or immediately returns that value (but no additional values) without evaluating the remaining forms. If every form but the last returns false as its primary value, or returns all values returned by the last form. If no forms are supplied, or returns nil.

Examples:

```
(or) \rightarrow NIL (setq temp0 nil temp1 10 temp2 20 temp3 30) \rightarrow 30 (or temp0 temp1 (setq temp2 37)) \rightarrow 10 temp2 \rightarrow 20 (or (incf temp1) (incf temp2) (incf temp3)) \rightarrow 11 temp1 \rightarrow 11 temp2 \rightarrow 20 temp3 \rightarrow 30 (or (values) temp1) \rightarrow 11 (or (values temp1 temp2) temp3) \rightarrow 11 (or temp0 (values temp1 temp2)) \rightarrow 11, 20 (or (values temp0 temp1) (values temp2 temp3)) \rightarrow 20, 30
```

See Also:

and, some, unless

when, unless

Macro

Syntax:

```
when test-form \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*
unless test-form \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

Arguments and Values:

```
test-form—a form.
```

forms—an implicit progn.

results—the values of the forms in a when form if the test-form yields true or in an unless form if the test-form yields false; otherwise nil.

Description:

when and unless allow the execution of forms to be dependent on a single test-form.

In a when form, if the test-form yields true, the forms are evaluated in order from left to right and the values returned by the forms are returned from the when form. Otherwise, if the test-form yields false, the forms are not evaluated, and the when form returns nil.

In an unless form, if the test-form yields false, the forms are evaluated in order from left to right and the values returned by the forms are returned from the unless form. Otherwise, if the test-form yields false, the forms are not evaluated, and the unless form returns nil.

Examples:

```
(when t 'hello) 
ightarrow HELLO
 (unless t 'hello) 
ightarrow NIL
 (when nil 'hello) 
ightarrow NIL
 (unless nil 'hello) 
ightarrow HELLO
 (when t) 
ightarrow NIL
 (unless nil) 
ightarrow NIL
 (when t (prin1 1) (prin1 2) (prin1 3))
⊳ 123
\rightarrow 3
 (unless t (prin1 1) (prin1 2) (prin1 3)) \rightarrow NIL
 (when nil (prin1 1) (prin1 2) (prin1 3)) \rightarrow NIL
 (unless nil (prin1 1) (prin1 2) (prin1 3))
⊳ 123
\rightarrow 3
 (let ((x 3))
   (list (when (oddp x) (incf x) (list x))
          (when (oddp x) (incf x) (list x))
          (unless (oddp x) (incf x) (list x))
          (unless (oddp x) (incf x) (list x))
          (if (oddp x) (incf x) (list x))
          (if (oddp x) (incf x) (list x))
          (if (not (oddp x)) (incf x) (list x))
          (if (not (oddp x)) (incf x) (list x))))
\rightarrow ((4) NIL (5) NIL 6 (6) 7 (7))
```

See Also:

and, cond, if, or

Notes:

```
(when test \{form\}^+) \equiv (and test \{form\}^+))
(when test \{form\}^+) \equiv (cond (test \{form\}^+))
(when test \{form\}^+) \equiv (if test (progn \{form\}^+) nil)
(when test \{form\}^+) \equiv (unless (not test) \{form\}^+)
(unless test \{form\}^+) \equiv (cond ((not test) \{form\}^+))
(unless test \{form\}^+) \equiv (if test nil (progn \{form\}^+))
(unless test \{form\}^+) \equiv (when (not test) \{form\}^+)
```

case, ccase, ecase

Macro

Syntax:

```
case keyform \{\downarrow normal-clause\}^* [\downarrow otherwise-clause] \rightarrow \{result\}^* ccase keyplace \{\downarrow normal-clause\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^* ecase keyform \{\downarrow normal-clause\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^* normal-clause::=(keys \{form\}^*) otherwise-clause::=(\{otherwise \mid t\} \{form\}^*) clause::=(normal-clause \mid otherwise-clause)
```

Arguments and Values:

keyform—a form; evaluated to produce a test-key.

<code>keyplace—a form;</code> evaluated initially to produce a <code>test-key</code>. Possibly also used later as a <code>place</code> if no <code>keys</code> match.

test-key—an object produced by evaluating keyform or keyplace.

keys—a designator for a list of objects. In the case of case, the symbols t and otherwise may not be used as the keys designator. To refer to these symbols by themselves as keys, the designators (t) and (otherwise), respectively, must be used instead.

forms—an implicit progn.

results—the values returned by the forms in the matching clause.

Description:

These *macros* allow the conditional execution of a body of *forms* in a *clause* that is selected by matching the *test-key* on the basis of its identity.

The keyform or keyplace is evaluated to produce the test-key.

Each of the *normal-clauses* is then considered in turn. If the *test-key* is the *same* as any *key* for that *clause*, the *forms* in that *clause* are *evaluated* as an *implicit progn*, and the *values* it returns are returned as the value of the **case**, **ccase**, or **ecase** *form*.

These macros differ only in their behavior when no normal-clause matches; specifically:

case

If no normal-clause matches, and there is an otherwise-clause, then that otherwise-clause

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automatically matches; the *forms* in that *clause* are *evaluated* as an *implicit progn*, and the *values* it returns are returned as the value of the **case**.

If there is no otherwise-clause, case returns nil.

ccase

If no normal-clause matches, a correctable error of type type-error is signaled. The offending datum is the test-key and the expected type is type equivalent to (member key1 key2 ...). The store-value restart can be used to correct the error.

If the **store-value** restart is invoked, its argument becomes the new **test-key**, and is stored in **keyplace** as if by (setf **keyplace** test-key). Then **ccase** starts over, considering each clause anew.

The subforms of *keyplace* might be evaluated again if none of the cases holds.

ecase

If no *normal-clause* matches, a *non-correctable error* of *type* **type-error** is signaled. The offending datum is the *test-key* and the expected type is *type equivalent* to (member *key1 key2* ...).

Note that in contrast with **ccase**, the caller of **ecase** may rely on the fact that **ecase** does not return if a *normal-clause* does not match.

```
(dolist (k '(1 2 3 :four #\v () t 'other))
    (format t "~S "
        (case k ((1 2) 'clause1)
                (3 'clause2)
                (nil 'no-keys-so-never-seen)
                ((nil) 'nilslot)
                ((:four #\v) 'clause4)
                ((t) 'tslot)
                (otherwise 'others))))
D CLAUSE1 CLAUSE1 CLAUSE2 CLAUSE4 CLAUSE4 NILSLOT TSLOT OTHERS
\rightarrow \, {\tt NIL}
 (defun add-em (x) (apply #'+ (mapcar #'decode x)))
\rightarrow ADD-EM
 (defun decode (x)
   (ccase x
     ((i uno) 1)
     ((ii dos) 2)
     ((iii tres) 3)
     ((iv cuatro) 4)))

ightarrow DECODE
```

```
(add-em '(uno iii)) → 4
(add-em '(uno iiii))
▷ Error: The value of X, IIII, is not I, UNO, II, DOS, III,
▷ TRES, IV, or CUATRO.
▷ 1: Supply a value to use instead.
▷ 2: Return to Lisp Toplevel.
▷ Debug> :CONTINUE 1
▷ Value to evaluate and use for X: 'IV
→ 5
```

Side Effects:

The debugger might be entered. If the **store-value** restart is invoked, the value of keyplace might be changed.

Affected By:

ccase and **ecase**, since they might signal an error, are potentially affected by existing *handlers* and *debug-io*.

Exceptional Situations:

ccase and ecase signal an error of type type-error if no normal-clause matches.

See Also:

cond, typecase, setf, Section 5.1 (Generalized Reference)

Notes:

The specific error message used by **ecase** and **ccase** can vary between implementations. In situations where control of the specific wording of the error message is important, it is better to use **case** with an *otherwise-clause* that explicitly signals an error with an appropriate message.

typecase, ctypecase, etypecase

Macro

Syntax:

```
typecase keyform \{\downarrow normal-clause\}^* [\downarrow otherwise-clause] \rightarrow \{result\}^* ctypecase keyplace \{\downarrow normal-clause\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^* etypecase keyform \{\downarrow normal-clause\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

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typecase, ctypecase, etypecase

```
normal-clause::=(type \{form\}^*)
otherwise-clause::=(\{otherwise \mid t\} \{form\}^*)
clause::=normal-clause \mid otherwise-clause
```

Arguments and Values:

keyform—a form; evaluated to produce a test-key.

keyplace—a form; evaluated initially to produce a test-key. Possibly also used later as a place if no types match.

test-key—an object produced by evaluating keyform or keyplace.

type—a type specifier.

forms—an implicit progn.

results—the values returned by the forms in the matching clause.

Description:

These *macros* allow the conditional execution of a body of *forms* in a *clause* that is selected by matching the *test-key* on the basis of its *type*.

The *keyform* or *keyplace* is *evaluated* to produce the *test-key*.

Each of the *normal-clauses* is then considered in turn. If the *test-key* is of the *type* given by the *clauses*'s *type*, the *forms* in that *clause* are *evaluated* as an *implicit progn*, and the *values* it returns are returned as the value of the **typecase**, **ctypecase**, or **etypecase** *form*.

These macros differ only in their behavior when no normal-clause matches; specifically:

typecase

If no normal-clause matches, and there is an otherwise-clause, then that otherwise-clause automatically matches; the forms in that clause are evaluated as an implicit progn, and the values it returns are returned as the value of the typecase.

If there is no *otherwise-clause*, typecase returns nil.

ctypecase

If no *normal-clause* matches, a *correctable error* of *type* **type-error** is signaled. The offending datum is the *test-key* and the expected type is *type equivalent* to (or *type1 type2* ...). The **store-value** *restart* can be used to correct the error.

If the **store-value** restart is invoked, its argument becomes the new **test-key**, and is stored in **keyplace** as if by (setf **keyplace** test-key). Then **ctypecase** starts over, considering each **clause** anew.

typecase, ctypecase, etypecase

If the $store-value\ restart$ is invoked interactively, the user is prompted for a new test-key to use.

The subforms of *keyplace* might be evaluated again if none of the cases holds.

etypecase

If no *normal-clause* matches, a *non-correctable error* of *type* **type-error** is signaled. The offending datum is the *test-key* and the expected type is *type equivalent* to (or *type1 type2* ...).

Note that in contrast with **ctypecase**, the caller of **etypecase** may rely on the fact that **etypecase** does not return if a *normal-clause* does not match.

In all three cases, is permissible for more than one *clause* to specify a matching *type*, particularly if one is a *subtype* of another; the earliest applicable *clause* is chosen.

```
;;; (Note that the parts of this example which use TYPE-OF
;;; are implementation-dependent.)
 (defun what-is-it (x)
   (format t "~&~S is ~A.~%"
            x (typecase x
                 (float "a float")
                 (null "a symbol, boolean false, or the empty list")
                 (list "a list")
                 (t (format nil "a(n) ~(~A~)" (type-of x))))))

ightarrow WHAT-IS-IT
 (map 'nil #'what-is-it '(nil (a b) 7.0 7 box))
▷ NIL is a symbol, boolean false, or the empty list.
▷ (A B) is a list.
\triangleright 7.0 is a float.
\triangleright 7 is a(n) integer.
\triangleright BOX is a(n) symbol.
\rightarrow NIL
 (setq x 1/3)
\rightarrow 1/3
 (ctypecase x
     (integer (* x 4))
     (symbol (symbol-value x)))
▷ Error: The value of X, 1/3, is neither an integer nor a symbol.
▷ To continue, type :CONTINUE followed by an option number:
▷ 1: Specify a value to use instead.
▷ 2: Return to Lisp Toplevel.
▷ Debug> :CONTINUE 1
\triangleright Use value: 3.7
```

```
\triangleright Error: The value of X, 3.7, is neither an integer nor a symbol.
\triangleright To continue, type :CONTINUE followed by an option number:
▷ 1: Specify a value to use instead.
▷ 2: Return to Lisp Toplevel.
▷ Debug> :CONTINUE 1
▷ Use value: 12
\rightarrow 48
 x\,\rightarrow\,12
```

Affected By:

ctypecase and etypecase, since they might signal an error, are potentially affected by existing handlers and *debug-io*.

Exceptional Situations:

ctypecase and etypecase signal an error of type type-error if no normal-clause matches.

The compiler may choose to issue a warning of type style-warning if a clause will never be selected because it is completely shadowed by earlier clauses.

See Also:

case, cond, setf, Section 5.1 (Generalized Reference)

Notes:

```
(typecase test-key
 {(type {form}*)}*)
(let ((#1=#:g0001 test-key))
  (cond {((typep #1# 'type) {form}*)}*))
```

The specific error message used by **etypecase** and **ctypecase** can vary between implementations. In situations where control of the specific wording of the error message is important, it is better to use typecase with an otherwise-clause that explicitly signals an error with an appropriate message.

multiple-value-bind

Macro

Syntax:

```
multiple-value-bind ({var}*) values-form {declaration}* {form}*
  \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

Arguments and Values:

var—a symbol naming a variable; not evaluated.

```
values-form—a form; evaluated.
declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.
forms—an implicit progn.
results—the values returned by the forms.
```

Description:

Creates new variable bindings for the vars and executes a series of forms that use these bindings.

The variable bindings created are lexical unless special declarations are specified.

Values-form is evaluated, and each of the vars is bound to the respective value returned by that form. If there are more vars than values returned, extra values of nil are given to the remaining vars. If there are more values than vars, the excess values are discarded. The vars are bound to the values over the execution of the forms, which make up an implicit progn. The consequences are unspecified if a type declaration is specified for a var, but the value to which that var is bound is not consistent with the type declaration.

The scopes of the name binding and declarations do not include the values-form.

Examples:

```
(multiple-value-bind (f r)
    (floor 130 11)
  (list f r)) \rightarrow (11 9)
```

See Also:

let, multiple-value-call

Notes:

```
(multiple-value-bind (\{var\}^*) values-form \{form\}^*)
≡ (multiple-value-call #'(lambda (&optional {var}* &rest #1=#:ignore)
                             (declare (ignore #1#))
                              { form}*)
                         values-form)
```

multiple-value-call

Special Operator

Syntax:

multiple-value-call function-form form* $\rightarrow \{result\}^*$

Arguments and Values:

function-form—a form; evaluated to produce function.

function—a function designator resulting from the evaluation of function-form.

form—a form.

results—the values returned by the function.

Description:

Applies function to a list of the objects collected from groups of multiple values₂.

multiple-value-call first evaluates the function-form to obtain function, and then evaluates each form. All the values of each form are gathered together (not just one value from each) and given as arguments to the function.

Examples:

```
(multiple-value-call #'list 1 '/ (values 2 3) '/ (values) '/ (floor 2.5)) \rightarrow (1 / 2 3 / / 2 0.5) (+ (floor 5 3) (floor 19 4)) \equiv (+ 1 4) \rightarrow 5 (multiple-value-call #'+ (floor 5 3) (floor 19 4)) \equiv (+ 1 2 4 3) \rightarrow 10
```

See Also:

multiple-value-list, multiple-value-bind

multiple-value-list

Macro

Syntax:

 $\mathbf{multiple\text{-}value\text{-}list} \ \textit{form} \ \ \rightarrow \textit{list}$

Arguments and Values:

form—a form; evaluated as described below.

list—a list of the values returned by form.

Description:

multiple-value-list evaluates form and creates a list of the multiple values2 it returns.

Examples:

```
(multiple-value-list (floor -3 4)) 
ightarrow (-1 1)
```

See Also:

values-list, multiple-value-call

Notes:

multiple-value-list and values-list are inverses of each other.

```
(multiple-value-list\ form) \equiv (multiple-value-call\ \ \#'list\ form)
```

multiple-value-prog1

Special Operator

Syntax:

```
multiple-value-prog1 first-form \{form\}^* \rightarrow first-form-results
```

Arguments and Values:

first-form—a form; evaluated as described below.

form—a form; evaluated as described below.

first-form-results—the values resulting from the evaluation of first-form.

Description:

multiple-value-prog1 evaluates *first-form* and saves all the values produced by that *form*. It then evaluates each *form* from left to right, discarding their values.

Examples:

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{setq temp '(1 2 3)}) \rightarrow (\text{1 2 3}) \\ (\text{multiple-value-prog1} \\ (\text{values-list temp}) \\ (\text{setq temp nil}) \\ (\text{values-list temp})) \rightarrow \text{1, 2, 3} \end{array}
```

See Also:

prog1

multiple-value-setq

multiple-value-setq

Macro

Syntax:

```
multiple-value-setq vars form \rightarrow result
```

Arguments and Values:

```
vars—a list of symbols that are either variable names or names of symbol macros.
```

form—a form.

result—The primary value returned by the form.

Description:

multiple-value-setq assigns values to vars.

The *form* is evaluated, and each *var* is *assigned* to the corresponding *value* returned by that *form*. If there are more *vars* than *values* returned, **nil** is *assigned* to the extra *vars*. If there are more *values* than *vars*, the extra *values* are discarded.

If any var is the name of a symbol macro, then it is assigned as if by setf. Specifically,

```
(multiple-value-setq (symbol_1 ... symbol_n) value-producing-form)
```

is defined to always behave in the same way as

```
(values (setf (values symbol_1 ... symbol_n) value-producing-form))
```

in order that the rules for order of evaluation and side-effects be consistent with those used by setf. See Section 5.1.2.3 (VALUES Forms as Places).

Examples:

```
(multiple-value-setq (quotient remainder) (truncate 3.2 2)) \rightarrow 1 quotient \rightarrow 1 remainder \rightarrow 1.2 (multiple-value-setq (a b c) (values 1 2)) \rightarrow 1 a \rightarrow 1 b \rightarrow 2 c \rightarrow NIL (multiple-value-setq (a b) (values 4 5 6)) \rightarrow 4 a \rightarrow 4 b \rightarrow 5
```

See Also:

setq, symbol-macrolet

values

Syntax:

```
values &rest object \rightarrow \{object\}^*
(setf (values &rest place) new-values)
```

Arguments and Values:

```
object—an object.
place—a place.
new-value—an object.
```

Description:

values returns the objects as $multiple\ values_2$.

setf of values is used to store the $multiple\ values_2\ new-values$ into the places. See Section 5.1.2.3 (VALUES Forms as Places).

Examples:

```
\begin{array}{l} (\text{values}) \rightarrow \langle \textit{no values} \rangle \\ (\text{values 1}) \rightarrow 1 \\ (\text{values 1 2}) \rightarrow 1, \ 2 \\ (\text{values 1 2 3}) \rightarrow 1, \ 2, \ 3 \\ (\text{values (values 1 2 3) 4 5}) \rightarrow 1, \ 4, \ 5 \\ (\text{defun polar (x y)} \\ (\text{values (sqrt (+ (* x x) (* y y))) (atan y x)))} \rightarrow \text{POLAR} \\ (\text{multiple-value-bind (r theta) (polar 3.0 4.0)} \\ (\text{vector r theta})) \\ \rightarrow \#(5.0 \ 0.927295) \end{array}
```

Sometimes it is desirable to indicate explicitly that a function returns exactly one value. For example, the function

```
(defun foo (x y)
(floor (+ x y) y)) \rightarrow FOO
```

returns two values because **floor** returns two values. It may be that the second value makes no sense, or that for efficiency reasons it is desired not to compute the second value. **values** is the standard idiom for indicating that only one value is to be returned:

```
(defun foo (x y)
  (values (floor (+ x y) y))) \rightarrow F00
```

This works because values returns exactly one value for each of args; as for any function call, if any of args produces more than one value, all but the first are discarded.

See Also:

values-list, multiple-value-bind, multiple-values-limit, Section 3.1 (Evaluation)

Notes:

Since values is a function, not a macro or special form, it receives as arguments only the primary values of its argument forms.

values-list **Function**

Syntax:

```
values-list list \rightarrow \{element\}^*
```

Arguments and Values:

```
list—a list.
```

elements—the elements of the list.

Description:

Returns the *elements* of the *list* as multiple values₂.

Examples:

```
(values-list nil) 
ightarrow \langle no\ values 
angle
(values-list '(1)) 
ightarrow 1
(values-list '(1 2)) 
ightarrow 1, 2
(values-list '(1 2 3)) \rightarrow 1, 2, 3
```

Exceptional Situations:

Should signal **type-error** if its argument is not a *proper list*.

See Also:

multiple-value-bind, multiple-value-list, multiple-values-limit, values

Notes:

```
(values-list list) \equiv (apply #'values list)
(equal x (multiple-value-list (values-list x))) returns true for all lists x.
```

multiple-values-limit

Constant Variable

Constant Value:

An integer not smaller than 20, the exact magnitude of which is implementation-dependent.

Description:

The upper exclusive bound on the number of *values* that may be returned from a *function*, bound or assigned by **multiple-value-bind** or **multiple-value-setq**, or passed as a first argument to **nth-value**. (If these individual limits might differ, the minimum value is used.)

See Also:

lambda-parameters-limit, call-arguments-limit

Notes:

Implementors are encouraged to make this limit as large as possible.

nth-value Macro

Syntax:

```
nth-value n form \rightarrow object
```

Arguments and Values:

```
n—a non-negative integer; evaluated.form—a form; evaluated as described below.object—an object.
```

Description:

Evaluates n and then form, returning as its only value the nth value yielded by form, or nil if n is greater than or equal to the number of values returned by form. (The first returned value is numbered 0.)

```
(nth-value 0 (values 'a 'b)) \rightarrow A (nth-value 1 (values 'a 'b)) \rightarrow B (nth-value 2 (values 'a 'b)) \rightarrow NIL (let* ((x 839274723972389474238792434324324) (y 32423489732)
```

```
(a (nth-value 1 (floor x y)))
  (b (mod x y)))
  (values a b (= a b)))

→ 3332987528, 3332987528, true
```

See Also:

multiple-value-list, nth

Notes:

Operationally, the following relationship is true, although **nth-value** might be more efficient in some *implementations* because, for example, some *consing* might be avoided.

```
(nth-value \ n \ form) \equiv (nth \ n \ (multiple-value-list \ form))
```

prog, prog*

Macro

Syntax:

```
\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{prog} \ (\{\mathit{var} \mid (\mathit{var} \ [\mathit{init-form}])\}^*) \ \{\mathit{declaration}\}^* \ \{\mathit{tag} \mid \mathit{statement}\}^* \\ \rightarrow \{\mathit{result}\}^* \\ \mathbf{prog}^* \ (\{\mathit{var} \mid (\mathit{var} \ [\mathit{init-form}])\}^*) \ \{\mathit{declaration}\}^* \ \{\mathit{tag} \mid \mathit{statement}\}^* \\ \rightarrow \{\mathit{result}\}^* \end{array}
```

Arguments and Values:

```
var—variable name.
```

init-form—a form.

declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.

tag—a go tag; not evaluated.

statement—a compound form; evaluated as described below.

results—nil if a $normal\ return$ occurs, or else, if an $explicit\ return$ occurs, the values that were transferred.

Description:

Three distinct operations are performed by **prog** and **prog***: they bind local variables, they permit use of the **return** statement, and they permit use of the **go** statement. A typical **prog** looks like this:

```
(prog (var1 var2 (var3 init-form-3) var4 (var5 init-form-5))
    { declaration}*
```

prog, prog*

```
statement1
tag1
statement2
statement3
statement4
tag2
statement5
...
)
```

For **prog**, *init-forms* are evaluated first, in the order in which they are supplied. The *vars* are then bound to the corresponding values in parallel. If no *init-form* is supplied for a given *var*, that *var* is bound to **nil**.

The body of **prog** is executed as if it were a **tagbody** form; the **go** statement can be used to transfer control to a tag. Tags label statements.

prog implicitly establishes a **block** named **nil** around the entire **prog** form, so that **return** can be used at any time to exit from the **prog** form.

The difference between **prog*** and **prog** is that in **prog*** the *binding* and initialization of the *vars* is done *sequentially*, so that the *init-form* for each one can use the values of previous ones.

```
(prog* ((y z) (x (car y)))
       (return x))
returns the car of the value of z.
 (setq a 1) 
ightarrow 1
 (prog ((a 2) (b a)) (return (if (= a b) '= '/=))) \rightarrow /=
 (prog* ((a 2) (b a)) (return (if (= a b) '= '/=))) \rightarrow =
 (prog () 'no-return-value) 
ightarrow NIL
 (defun king-of-confusion (w)
   "Take a cons of two lists and make a list of conses.
   Think of this function as being like a zipper."
   (prog (x y z)
                           ;Initialize x, y, z to NIL
        (setq y (car w) z (cdr w))
    loop
        (cond ((null y) (return x))
               ((null z) (go err)))
    rejoin
         (setq x (cons (cons (car y) (car z)) x))
         (setq y (cdr y) z (cdr z))
         (go loop)
    err
```

```
(cerror "Will self-pair extraneous items"
                             "Mismatch - gleep! ~S" y)
                    (setq z y)
                    (go rejoin))) 
ightarrow KING-OF-CONFUSION
           This can be accomplished more perspicuously as follows:
            (defun prince-of-clarity (w)
               "Take a cons of two lists and make a list of conses.
               Think of this function as being like a zipper."
              (do ((y (car w) (cdr y))
                    (z (cdr w) (cdr z))
                    (x '() (cons (cons (car y) (car z)) x)))
                   ((null y) x)
                 (when (null z)
                   (cerror "Will self-pair extraneous items"
                           "Mismatch - gleep! ~S" y)
                   (\mathtt{setq}\ \mathtt{z}\ \mathtt{y}))))\ \rightarrow\ \mathtt{PRINCE-OF-CLARITY}
See Also:
           block, let, tagbody, go, return, Section 3.1 (Evaluation)
Notes:
           prog can be explained in terms of block, let, and tagbody as follows:
            (prog variable-list declaration . body)
               \equiv (block nil (let variable-list declaration (tagbody . body)))
```

prog1, prog2

Macro

Syntax:

```
prog1 first-form \{form\}^* → result-1
\mathbf{prog2} first-form second-form \{\mathit{form}\}^* \rightarrow \mathit{result-2}
```

Arguments and Values:

```
first-form—a form; evaluated as described below.
```

second-form—a form; evaluated as described below.

forms—an implicit progn; evaluated as described below.

result-1—the primary value resulting from the evaluation of first-form.

prog1, prog2

result-2—the primary value resulting from the evaluation of second-form.

Description:

prog1 evaluates first-form and then forms, yielding as its only value the primary value yielded by first-form.

prog2 evaluates first-form, then second-form, and then forms, yielding as its only value the primary value yielded by first-form.

Examples:

```
(setq temp 1) 
ightarrow 1
 (prog1 temp (print temp) (incf temp) (print temp))
⊳ 2
\rightarrow 1
 (prog1 temp (setq temp nil)) 
ightarrow 2
 \texttt{temp} \, \to \, \texttt{NIL}
 (prog1 (values 1 2 3) 4) 
ightarrow 1
 (setq temp (list 'a 'b 'c))
 (prog1 (car temp) (setf (car temp) 'alpha)) 
ightarrow A
 \texttt{temp} \, \to \, \texttt{(ALPHA B C)}
 (flet ((swap-symbol-values (x y)
            (setf (symbol-value x)
                    (prog1 (symbol-value y)
                             (setf (symbol-value y) (symbol-value x))))))
   (let ((*foo* 1) (*bar* 2))
      (declare (special *foo* *bar*))
      (swap-symbol-values '*foo* '*bar*)
      (values *foo* *bar*)))

ightarrow 2, 1
 (setq temp 1) 
ightarrow 1
 (prog2 (incf temp) (incf temp) (incf temp)) 
ightarrow 3
 \texttt{temp}\,\rightarrow\,4
 (prog2 1 (values 2 3 4) 5) 
ightarrow 2
```

See Also:

multiple-value-prog1, progn

Notes:

prog1 and **prog2** are typically used to *evaluate* one or more *forms* with side effects and return a *value* that must be computed before some or all of the side effects happen.

```
(prog1 \{form\}^*) \equiv (values (multiple-value-prog1 \{form\}^*))

(prog2 form1 \{form\}^*) \equiv (let () form1 (prog1 \{form\}^*))
```

Special Operator progn

Syntax:

```
progn \{form\}^* \rightarrow \{result\}^*
```

Arguments and Values:

forms—an implicit progn. results—the values of the forms.

Description:

progn evaluates forms, in the order in which they are given.

The values of each *form* but the last are discarded.

If progn appears as a top level form, then all forms within that progn are considered by the compiler to be top level forms.

Examples:

```
(progn) 
ightarrow NIL
(progn 1 2 3) \rightarrow 3
(progn (values 1 2 3)) \rightarrow 1, 2, 3
(setq a 1) 
ightarrow 1
(if a
      (progn (setq a nil) 'here)
      (progn (setq a t) 'there)) 
ightarrow HERE
```

See Also:

prog1, prog2, Section 3.1 (Evaluation)

Notes:

Many places in Common Lisp involve syntax that uses *implicit progns*. That is, part of their syntax allows many forms to be written that are to be evaluated sequentially, discarding the results of all forms but the last and returning the results of the last form. Such places include, but are not limited to, the following: the body of a lambda expression; the bodies of various control and conditional forms (e.g., case, catch, progn, and when).

define-modify-macro

define-modify-macro

Macro

Syntax:

define-modify-macro name lambda-list function [documentation] \rightarrow name

Arguments and Values:

```
name—a symbol.
lambda-list—a define-modify-macro lambda list
function—a symbol.
documentation—a string; not evaluated.
```

Description:

define-modify-macro defines a macro named name to read and write a place.

The arguments to the new macro are a place, followed by the arguments that are supplied in lambda-list. Macros defined with define-modify-macro correctly pass the environment parameter to get-setf-expansion.

When the macro is invoked, function is applied to the old contents of the place and the lambda-list arguments to obtain the new value, and the place is updated to contain the result.

Except for the issue of avoiding multiple evaluation (see below), the expansion of a **define-modify-macro** is equivalent to the following:

```
(defmacro name (reference . lambda-list)
 documentation
  '(setf ,reference
         (function , reference , arq1 , arq2 ...)))
```

where arg1, arg2, ..., are the parameters appearing in lambda-list; appropriate provision is made for a rest parameter.

The subforms of the macro calls defined by define-modify-macro are evaluated as specified in Section 5.1.1.1 (Evaluation of Subforms to Places).

Documentation is attached as a documentation string to name (as kind function) and to the macro function.

If a define-modify-macro form appears as a top level form, the compiler must store the macro definition at compile time, so that occurrences of the macro later on in the file can be expanded correctly.

Examples:

```
(define-modify-macro appendf (&rest args) append "Append onto list") \rightarrow APPENDF (setq x '(a b c) y x) \rightarrow (A B C) (appendf x '(d e f) '(1 2 3)) \rightarrow (A B C D E F 1 2 3) x \rightarrow (A B C D E F 1 2 3) y \rightarrow (A B C) (define-modify-macro new-incf (&optional (delta 1)) +) (define-modify-macro unionf (other-set &rest keywords) union)
```

Side Effects:

A macro definition is assigned to *name*.

See Also:

defsetf, define-setf-expander, documentation, Section 3.4.11 (Syntactic Interaction of Documentation Strings and Declarations)

defsetf

Syntax:

```
The "short form":

defsetf access-fn update-fn [documentation]
\rightarrow access-fn
The "long form":

defsetf access-fn lambda-list (\{store-variable\}^*) [\{declaration\}^* \mid documentation] \{form\}^* \rightarrow access-fn
```

Arguments and Values:

```
access-fn—a symbol which names a function or a macro.

update-fn—a symbol naming a function or macro.

lambda-list—a defsetf lambda list.

store-variable—a symbol (a variable name).

declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.

documentation—a string; not evaluated.

form—a form.
```

defsetf

Description:

defsetf defines how to **setf** a *place* of the form (access-fn ...) for relatively simple cases. (See **define-setf-expander** for more general access to this facility.) It must be the case that the *function* or macro named by access-fn evaluates all of its arguments.

defsetf may take one of two forms, called the "short form" and the "long form," which are distinguished by the *type* of the second *argument*.

When the short form is used, *update-fn* must name a *function* (or *macro*) that takes one more argument than *access-fn* takes. When **setf** is given a *place* that is a call on *access-fn*, it expands into a call on *update-fn* that is given all the arguments to *access-fn* and also, as its last argument, the new value (which must be returned by *update-fn* as its value).

The long form **defsetf** resembles **defmacro**. The *lambda-list* describes the arguments of *access-fn*. The *store-variables* describe the value or values to be stored into the *place*. The *body* must compute the expansion of a **setf** of a call on *access-fn*. The expansion function is defined in the same *lexical environment* in which the **defsetf** *form* appears.

During the evaluation of the *forms*, the variables in the *lambda-list* and the *store-variables* are bound to names of temporary variables, generated as if by **gensym** or **gentemp**, that will be bound by the expansion of **setf** to the values of those *subforms*. This binding permits the *forms* to be written without regard for order-of-evaluation issues. **defsetf** arranges for the temporary variables to be optimized out of the final result in cases where that is possible.

The body code in **defsetf** is implicitly enclosed in a *block* whose name is *access-fn*

defsetf ensures that *subforms* of the *place* are evaluated exactly once.

Documentation is attached to access-fn as a documentation string of kind setf.

If a **defsetf** form appears as a top level form, the compiler must make the setf expander available so that it may be used to expand calls to **setf** later on in the file. Users must ensure that the forms, if any, can be evaluated at compile time if the access-fn is used in a place later in the same file. The compiler must make these setf expanders available to compile-time calls to **get-setf-expansion** when its environment argument is a value received as the environment parameter of a macro.

Examples:

The effect of

(defsetf symbol-value set)

is built into the Common Lisp system. This causes the form (setf (symbol-value foo) fu) to expand into (set foo fu).

Note that

(defsetf car rplaca)

```
would be incorrect because rplaca does not return its last argument.
```

```
(defun middleguy (x) (nth (truncate (1- (list-length x)) 2) x)) 
ightarrow MIDDLEGUY
 (defun set-middleguy (x v)
     (unless (null x)
       (rplaca (nthcdr (truncate (1- (list-length x)) 2) x) v))
    v) \rightarrow SET-MIDDLEGUY
 (\texttt{defsetf middleguy set-middleguy}) \ \to \ \texttt{MIDDLEGUY}
 (setq a (list 'a 'b 'c 'd)
        b (list 'x)
        c (list 1 2 3 (list 4 5 6) 7 8 9)) \rightarrow (1 2 3 (4 5 6) 7 8 9)
 (setf (middleguy a) 3) 
ightarrow 3
 (setf (middleguy b) 7) 
ightarrow 7
 (\mathtt{setf} \ (\mathtt{middleguy} \ (\mathtt{middleguy} \ \mathtt{c})) \ \ \mathtt{'middleguy}\mathtt{-symbol}) \ \to \ \mathtt{MIDDLEGUY}\mathtt{-SYMBOL}
 a \rightarrow (A 3 C D)
b \rightarrow (7)
 c \rightarrow (1 2 3 (4 MIDDLEGUY-SYMBOL 6) 7 8 9)
An example of the use of the long form of defsetf:
 (defsetf subseq (sequence start &optional end) (new-sequence)
    '(progn (replace ,sequence ,new-sequence
                        :start1 ,start :end1 ,end)
             ,new-sequence)) 
ightarrow SUBSEQ
 (defvar *xy* (make-array '(10 10)))
 (defun xy (&key ((x x) 0) ((y y) 0)) (aref *xy* x y)) \rightarrow XY
 (defun set-xy (new-value &key ((x x) 0) ((y y) 0))
   (\texttt{setf (aref *xy* x y) new-value})) \, \rightarrow \, \texttt{SET-XY}
 (defsetf xy (&key ((x x) 0) ((y y) 0)) (store)
   '(set-xy ,store 'x ,x 'y ,y)) \rightarrow XY
 (get-setf-expansion '(xy a b))
\rightarrow (#:t0 #:t1),
   (a b),
   (#:store),
   ((lambda (&key ((x #:x)) ((y #:y)))
       (set-xy #:store 'x #:x 'y #:y))
    #:t0 #:t1),
   (xy #:t0 #:t1)
 (xy 'x 1) \rightarrow NIL
 (setf (xy 'x 1) 1) 
ightarrow 1
 (xy 'x 1) \rightarrow 1
 (let ((a 'x) (b 'y))
   (setf (xy a 1 b 2) 3)
   (setf (xy b 5 a 9) 14))
 (xy 'y 0 'x 1) \rightarrow 1
```

(xy 'x 1 'y 2)
$$\rightarrow$$
 3

See Also:

documentation, setf, define-setf-expander, get-setf-expansion, Section 5.1 (Generalized Reference), Section 3.4.11 (Syntactic Interaction of Documentation Strings and Declarations)

Notes:

forms must include provision for returning the correct value (the value or values of store-variable). This is handled by forms rather than by defsetf because in many cases this value can be returned at no extra cost, by calling a function that simultaneously stores into the place and returns the correct value.

A setf of a call on access-fn also evaluates all of access-fn's arguments; it cannot treat any of them specially. This means that defsetf cannot be used to describe how to store into a generalized reference to a byte, such as (ldb field reference). define-setf-expander is used to handle situations that do not fit the restrictions imposed by defsetf and gives the user additional control.

define-setf-expander

Macro

Syntax:

Arguments and Values:

access-fn—a symbol that names a function or macro.

lambda-list - macro lambda list.

declaration—a declare expression; not evaluated.

documentation—a string; not evaluated.

forms—an implicit progn.

Description:

define-setf-expander specifies the means by which **setf** updates a *place* that is referenced by access-fn.

When **setf** is given a place that is specified in terms of access-fn and a new value for the place, it is expanded into a form that performs the appropriate update.

The lambda-list supports destructuring. See Section 3.4.4 (Macro Lambda Lists).

define-setf-expander

Documentation is attached to access-fn as a documentation string of kind setf.

Forms constitute the body of the setf expander definition and must compute the setf expansion for a call on setf that references the place by means of the given access-fn. The setf expander function is defined in the same lexical environment in which the define-setf-expander form appears. While forms are being executed, the variables in lambda-list are bound to parts of the place form. The body forms (but not the lambda-list) in a define-setf-expander form are implicitly enclosed in a block whose name is access-fn.

The evaluation of *forms* must result in the five values described in Section 5.1.1.2 (Setf Expansions).

If a **define-setf-expander** form appears as a top level form, the compiler must make the setf expander available so that it may be used to expand calls to **setf** later on in the file. Programmers must ensure that the forms can be evaluated at compile time if the access-fn is used in a place later in the same file. The compiler must make these setf expanders available to compile-time calls to **get-setf-expansion** when its environment argument is a value received as the environment parameter of a macro.

```
(defun \ lastguy \ (x) \ (car \ (last \ x))) \ 	o \ LASTGUY
 (define-setf-expander lastguy (x &environment env)
   "Set the last element in a list to the given value."
   (multiple-value-bind (dummies vals newval setter getter)
        (get-setf-expansion x env)
      (let ((store (gensym)))
        (values dummies
                  vals
                  '(progn (rplaca (last ,getter) ,store) ,store)
                  \texttt{`(lastguy ,getter)))))} \, \to \, \texttt{LASTGUY}
 (setq a (list 'a 'b 'c 'd)
        b (list 'x)
        c (list 1 2 3 (list 4 5 6))) \rightarrow (1 2 3 (4 5 6))
 (setf (lastguy a) 3) 
ightarrow 3
 (setf (lastguy b) 7) 
ightarrow 7
 (\mathtt{setf}\ (\mathtt{lastguy}\ (\mathtt{lastguy}\ \mathtt{c}))\ \mathtt{`lastguy-symbol})\ \to\ \mathtt{LASTGUY-SYMBOL}
 a \rightarrow (A B C 3)
 b \rightarrow (7)
 c \rightarrow (1 2 3 (4 5 LASTGUY-SYMBOL))
;;; Setf expander for the form (LDB bytespec int).
;;; Recall that the int form must itself be suitable for SETF.
 (define-setf-expander ldb (bytespec int &environment env)
   (multiple-value-bind (temps vals stores
```

```
store-form access-form)
       (get-setf-expansion int env); Get setf expansion for int.
     (let ((btemp (gensym))
                             ;Temp var for byte specifier.
           (store (gensym))
                                ;Temp var for byte to store.
           (stemp (first stores))); Temp var for int to store.
       (if (cdr stores) (error "Can't expand this."))
;;; Return the setf expansion for LDB as five values.
       (values (cons btemp temps)
                                        ;Temporary variables.
               (cons bytespec vals)
                                        ; Value forms.
               (list store)
                                        ;Store variables.
               '(let ((,stemp (dpb ,store ,btemp ,access-form)))
                  ,store-form
                  .store)
                                        ;Storing form.
               '(ldb ,btemp ,access-form) ;Accessing form.
              ))))
```

See Also:

setf, defsetf, documentation, get-setf-expansion, Section 3.4.11 (Syntactic Interaction of Documentation Strings and Declarations)

Notes:

define-setf-expander differs from the long form of defsetf in that while the body is being executed the *variables* in *lambda-list* are bound to parts of the *place form*, not to temporary variables that will be bound to the values of such parts. In addition, define-setf-expander does not have defsetf's restriction that *access-fn* must be a *function* or a function-like *macro*; an arbitrary defmacro destructuring pattern is permitted in *lambda-list*.

get-setf-expansion

Function

Syntax:

```
get-setf-expansion place &optional environment \rightarrow vars, vals, store-vars, writer-form, reader-form
```

Arguments and Values:

```
place—a place.
environment—an environment object.
vars, vals, store-vars, writer-form, reader-form—a setf expansion.
```

Description:

Determines five values constituting the *setf expansion* for *place* in *environment*; see Section 5.1.1.2 (Setf Expansions).

If environment is not supplied or nil, the environment is the null lexical environment.

Examples:

```
(get-setf-expansion 'x)
\rightarrow NIL, NIL, (#:G0001), (SETQ X #:G0001), X
;;; This macro is like POP
 (defmacro xpop (place &environment env)
   (multiple-value-bind (dummies vals new setter getter)
                         (get-setf-expansion place env)
      '(let* (,@(mapcar #'list dummies vals) (,(car new) ,getter))
         (if (cdr new) (error "Can't expand this."))
         (prog1 (car ,(car new))
                 (setq ,(car new) (cdr ,(car new)))
                 ,setter))))
 (defsetf frob (x) (value)
     '(setf (car ,x) ,value)) 
ightarrow FROB
;;; The following is an error; an error might be signaled at macro expansion time
 (flet ((frob (x) (cdr x))) ;Invalid
   (xpop (frob z)))
```

See Also:

defsetf, define-setf-expander, setf

Notes:

Any compound form is a valid place, since any compound form whose operator f has no setf expander are expanded into a call to (setf f).

setf, psetf

Syntax:

```
\operatorname{setf} \{\downarrow \operatorname{\textit{pair}}\}^* \to \{\operatorname{\textit{result}}\}^*
```

setf, psetf

```
\mathbf{psetf} \; \{\downarrow \textit{pair}\}^* \quad \to \mathbf{nil} \textit{pair} ::= \textit{place newvalue}
```

Arguments and Values:

```
place—a place.

newvalue—a form.
```

results—the multiple values₂ returned by the storing form for the last place, or nil if there are no pairs.

Description:

setf changes the value of place to be newvalue.

(setf place newvalue) expands into an update form that stores the result of evaluating newvalue into the location referred to by place. Some place forms involve uses of accessors that take optional arguments. Whether those optional arguments are permitted by setf, or what their use is, is up to the setf expander function and is not under the control of setf. The documentation for any function that accepts &optional, &rest, or &key arguments and that claims to be usable with setf must specify how those arguments are treated.

If more than one pair is supplied, the pairs are processed sequentially; that is,

For **psetf**, if more than one *pair* is supplied then the assignments of new values to places are done in parallel. More precisely, all *subforms* (in both the *place* and *newvalue forms*) that are to be evaluated are evaluated from left to right; after all evaluations have been performed, all of the assignments are performed in an unpredictable order.

For detailed treatment of the expansion of **setf** and **psetf**, see Section 5.1.2 (Kinds of Places).

```
(setq x (cons 'a 'b) y (list 1 2 3)) \rightarrow (1 2 3) (setf (car x) 'x (cadr y) (car x) (cdr x) y) \rightarrow (1 X 3) x \rightarrow (X 1 X 3)
```

```
y \rightarrow (1 X 3) (setq x (cons 'a 'b) y (list 1 2 3)) \rightarrow (1 2 3) (psetf (car x) 'x (cadr y) (car x) (cdr x) y) \rightarrow NIL x \rightarrow (X 1 A 3) y \rightarrow (1 A 3)
```

Affected By:

define-setf-expander, defsetf, *macroexpand-hook*

See Also:

define-setf-expander, defsetf, macroexpand-1, rotatef, shiftf, Section 5.1 (Generalized Reference)

 ${f shiftf}$

Syntax:

```
\mathbf{shiftf} \left\{ \mathsf{place} \right\}^+ \mathsf{newvalue} \ \to \mathsf{old\text{-}value\text{-}1}
```

Arguments and Values:

```
place—a place.
newvalue—a form; evaluated.
old-value-1—an object (the old value of the first place).
```

Description:

shiftf modifies the values of each *place* by storing *newvalue* into the last *place*, and shifting the values of the second through the last *place* into the remaining *places*.

If *newvalue* produces more values than there are store variables, the extra values are ignored. If *newvalue* produces fewer values than there are store variables, the missing values are set to nil.

In the form (shiftf place1 place2 ... placen newvalue), the values in place1 through placen are read and saved, and newvalue is evaluated, for a total of n+1 values in all. Values 2 through n+1 are then stored into place1 through placen, respectively. It is as if all the places form a shift register; the newvalue is shifted in from the right, all values shift over to the left one place, and the value shifted out of place1 is returned.

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

```
(setq x (list 1 2 3) y 'trash) \rightarrow TRASH
```

```
(shiftf y x (cdr x) '(hi there)) \rightarrow TRASH x \rightarrow (2 3) y \rightarrow (1 HI THERE)

(setq x (list 'a 'b 'c)) \rightarrow (A B C) (shiftf (cadr x) 'z) \rightarrow B x \rightarrow (A Z C) (shiftf (cadr x) (cddr x) 'q) \rightarrow Z x \rightarrow (A (C) . Q) (setq n 0) \rightarrow 0 (setq x (list 'a 'b 'c 'd)) \rightarrow (A B C D) (shiftf (nth (setq n (+ n 1)) x) 'z) \rightarrow B x \rightarrow (A Z C D)
```

Affected By:

define-setf-expander, defsetf, *macroexpand-hook*

See Also:

setf, rotatef, Section 5.1 (Generalized Reference)

Notes:

except that the latter would evaluate any *subforms* of each place twice, whereas **shiftf** evaluates them once. For example,

var1)

rotatef

Syntax:

```
\mathbf{rotatef} \; \{\mathit{place}\}^* \quad \to \mathbf{nil}
```

Arguments and Values:

```
place—a place.
```

Description:

rotatef modifies the values of each place by rotating values from one place into another.

If a *place* produces more values than there are store variables, the extra values are ignored. If a *place* produces fewer values than there are store variables, the missing values are set to nil.

In the form (rotatef place1 place2 ... placen), the values in place1 through placen are read and written. Values 2 through n and value 1 are then stored into place1 through placen. It is as if all the places form an end-around shift register that is rotated one place to the left, with the value of place1 being shifted around the end to placen.

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

Examples:

See Also:

define-setf-expander, defsetf, setf, shiftf, *macroexpand-hook*, Section 5.1 (Generalized Reference)

Notes:

```
The effect of (rotatef place1 place2 ... placen) is roughly equivalent to (psetf place1 place2 place3 ... placen place1)
```

except that the latter would evaluate any subforms of each place twice, whereas rotatef evaluates them once.

control-error

Condition Type

Class Precedence List:

control-error, error, serious-condition, condition, t

Description:

The *type* **control-error** consists of error conditions that result from invalid dynamic transfers of control in a program. The errors that result from giving **throw** a tag that is not active or from giving **go** or **return-from** a tag that is no longer dynamically available are of *type* **control-error**.

program-error

Condition Type

Class Precedence List:

program-error, error, serious-condition, condition, t

Description:

The *type* **program-error** consists of error conditions related to incorrect program syntax. The errors that result from naming a *go tag* or a *block tag* that is not lexically apparent are of *type* **program-error**.

undefined-function

Condition Type

Class Precedence List:

 $undefined\mbox{-}function,\ cell\mbox{-}error,\ error,\ serious\mbox{-}condition,\ condition,\ t$

Description:

The type undefined-function consists of error conditions that represent attempts to read the definition of an undefined function.

The name of the cell (see **cell-error**) is the function name which was funbound.

See Also:

cell-error-name