Common Lisp S-Expressions: Atoms and Lists

The textual expressions used in Lisp code are called **S-expressions**; S stands for "symbolic".

• There are two kinds of S-expression: and

The textual expressions used in Lisp code are called **S-expressions**; S stands for "symbolic".

• There are two kinds of S-expression: atoms and

The textual expressions used in Lisp code are called **S-expressions**; S stands for "symbolic".

• There are two kinds of S-expression: atoms and Lists

The textual expressions used in Lisp code are called **S-expressions**; S stands for "symbolic".

• There are two kinds of S-expression: <u>atoms</u> and <u>lists</u>
The <u>empty list</u> is <u>both</u> a list <u>and</u> an atom; it is the <u>only</u> S-expression that's both a list and an atom.

The textual expressions used in Lisp code are called **S-expressions**; S stands for "symbolic".

• There are two kinds of S-expression: atoms and Lists and an atom; it is the only S-expression that's both a list and an atom. The empty list can be written as or as .

The textual expressions used in Lisp code are called **S-expressions**; S stands for "symbolic".

• There are two kinds of S-expression: atoms and Lists and an atom; it is the only S-expression that's both a list and an atom. The empty list can be written as () or as .

The textual expressions used in Lisp code are called **S-expressions**; S stands for "symbolic".

• There are two kinds of S-expression: <u>atoms</u> and <u>lists</u>
The <u>empty list</u> is <u>both</u> a list <u>and</u> an atom; it is the <u>only</u> S-expression that's both a list and an atom.
The empty list can be written as () or as NIL.

The textual expressions used in Lisp code are called **S-expressions**; S stands for "symbolic".

- There are two kinds of S-expression: <u>atoms</u> and <u>lists</u>
 The <u>empty list</u> is <u>both</u> a list <u>and</u> an atom; it is the <u>only</u> S-expression that's both a list and an atom.
 The empty list can be written as () or as NIL.
- The kinds of atom we will use in this course are:

•

lacktriangle

The textual expressions used in Lisp code are called **S-expressions**; S stands for "symbolic".

- There are two kinds of S-expression: <u>atoms</u> and <u>lists</u>
 The <u>empty list</u> is <u>both</u> a list <u>and</u> an atom; it is the <u>only</u> S-expression that's both a list and an atom.
 The empty list can be written as () or as NIL.
- The kinds of atom we will use in this course are:
 - Numbers [e.g., 129, -45.33, 72.1e-4, 67/4]

•

- There are two kinds of S-expression: <u>atoms</u> and <u>lists</u>
 The <u>empty list</u> is <u>both</u> a list <u>and</u> an atom; it is the <u>only</u> S-expression that's both a list and an atom.
 The empty list can be written as () or as NIL.
- The kinds of atom we will use in this course are:
 - Numbers [e.g., 129, -45.33, 72.1e-4, 67/4]
 - Symbols [e.g., X, DOG, APPLE23, NIL, FACTORIAL]

- There are two kinds of S-expression: <u>atoms</u> and <u>lists</u>
 The <u>empty list</u> is <u>both</u> a list <u>and</u> an atom; it is the <u>only</u> S-expression that's both a list and an atom.
 The empty list can be written as () or as NIL.
- The kinds of atom we will use in this course are:
 - Numbers [e.g., 129, -45.33, 72.1e-4, 67/4]
 - Symbols [e.g., X, DOG, APPLE23, NIL, FACTORIAL]
 - Strings [e.g., "asn.txt"]
 The only strings we will use will be filenames.

- There are two kinds of S-expression: <u>atoms</u> and <u>lists</u>
 The <u>empty list</u> is <u>both</u> a list <u>and</u> an atom; it is the <u>only</u> S-expression that's both a list and an atom.
 The empty list can be written as () or as NIL.
- The kinds of atom we will use in this course are:
 - Numbers [e.g., 129, -45.33, 72.1e-4, 67/4]
 - Symbols [e.g., X, DOG, APPLE23, NIL, FACTORIAL]
 - Strings [e.g., "asn.txt"]
 The only strings we will use will be filenames.
- There are two kinds of list:
 - 0
 - 0

The textual expressions used in Lisp code are called **S-expressions**; S stands for "symbolic".

- There are two kinds of S-expression: <u>atoms</u> and <u>lists</u>
 The <u>empty list</u> is <u>both</u> a list <u>and</u> an atom; it is the <u>only</u> S-expression that's both a list and an atom.
 The empty list can be written as () or as NIL.
- The kinds of atom we will use in this course are:
 - Numbers [e.g., 129, -45.33, 72.1e-4, 67/4]
 - Symbols [e.g., X, DOG, APPLE23, NIL, FACTORIAL]
 - Strings [e.g., "asn.txt"]
 The only strings we will use will be filenames.
- There are two kinds of <u>list</u>:
 - o Proper Lists [e.g., (GO (X (AT) 17) (HA Y) B)]

 C

- There are two kinds of S-expression: <u>atoms</u> and <u>lists</u>
 The <u>empty list</u> is <u>both</u> a list <u>and</u> an atom; it is the <u>only</u> S-expression that's both a list and an atom.
 The empty list can be written as () or as NIL.
- The kinds of atom we will use in this course are:
 - Numbers [e.g., 129, -45.33, 72.1e-4, 67/4]
 - Symbols [e.g., X, DOG, APPLE23, NIL, FACTORIAL]
 - Strings [e.g., "asn.txt"]
 The only strings we will use will be filenames.
- There are two kinds of list:
 - o Proper Lists [e.g., (GO (X (AT) 17) (HA Y) B)]
 - Dotted Lists [e.g., (GO (X (AT) 17) (HA Y) . B)]

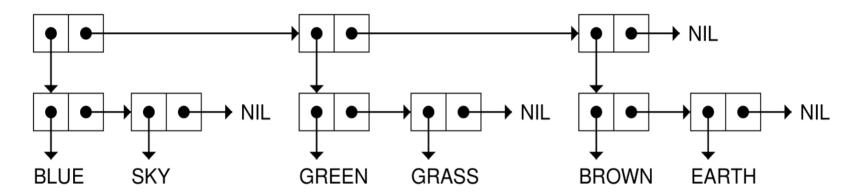
- There are two kinds of S-expression: <u>atoms</u> and <u>lists</u>
 The <u>empty list</u> is <u>both</u> a list <u>and</u> an atom; it is the <u>only</u> S-expression that's both a list and an atom.
 The empty list can be written as () or as NIL.
- The kinds of atom we will use in this course are:
 - Numbers [e.g., 129, -45.33, 72.1e-4, 67/4]
 - Symbols [e.g., X, DOG, APPLE23, NIL, FACTORIAL]
 - Strings [e.g., "asn.txt"]
 The only strings we will use will be filenames.
- There are two kinds of list:
 - o Proper Lists [e.g., (GO (X (AT) 17) (HA Y) B)]
 - ODOTTED Lists [e.g., (GO (X (AT) 17) (HA Y) . B)] If a function you write for this course returns a dotted list, then either your code has a bug or an inappropriate argument value was passed to the function.

• Each S-expression is a textual representation of a Lisp data object that's <u>also</u> called an S-expression.

- Each S-expression is a textual representation of a Lisp data object that's <u>also</u> called an S-expression.
- Similarly, the Lisp data objects that are represented by atoms, numbers, symbols, strings, and proper/dotted lists are <u>also</u> called atoms, numbers, symbols, strings and proper/dotted lists.

- Each S-expression is a textual representation of a Lisp data object that's <u>also</u> called an S-expression.
- Similarly, the Lisp data objects that are represented by atoms, numbers, symbols, strings, and proper/dotted lists are <u>also</u> called atoms, numbers, symbols, strings and proper/dotted lists.

- Each S-expression is a textual representation of a Lisp data object that's <u>also</u> called an S-expression.
- Similarly, the Lisp data objects that are represented by atoms, numbers, symbols, strings, and proper/dotted lists are <u>also</u> called atoms, numbers, symbols, strings and proper/dotted lists.



1.

1. As Lisp code--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated.

1. As Lisp **code**--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated. For example,

```
(sqrt (+ (* 3 2) (- 4 1)))
```

is an S-expression that can be evaluated.

•

lacktriangle

1. As Lisp code--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated. For example,

```
(sqrt (+ (* 3 2) (- 4 1)))
```

is an S-expression that can be evaluated.

• All Lisp code is in the form of S-expressions.

2.

1. As Lisp code--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated. For example,

```
(sqrt (+ (* 3 2) (- 4 1)))
```

is an S-expression that can be evaluated.

- All Lisp code is in the form of S-expressions.
- But most S-expressions cannot be regarded as Lisp code. For example, the S-expressions ((+ 2) y 5) and (3 x z) cannot be evaluated.

2.

1. As Lisp code--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated. For example,

```
(sqrt (+ (* 3 2) (- 4 1)))
```

is an S-expression that can be evaluated.

- All Lisp code is in the form of S-expressions.
- But most S-expressions cannot be regarded as Lisp code. For example, the S-expressions ((+ 2) y 5) and (3 x z) cannot be evaluated.
- 2. As Lisp data. Example: ((john smith) (2001 06 13)) In this course:

lacktriangle

1. As Lisp code--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated. For example,

is an S-expression that can be evaluated.

- All Lisp code is in the form of S-expressions.
- But most S-expressions cannot be regarded as Lisp code. For example, the S-expressions ((+ 2) y 5) and (3 x z) cannot be evaluated.
- 2. As Lisp data. Example: ((john smith) (2001 06 13))
 In this course:
 - If a Lisp variable has a value, then the value will usually be an S-expression.

1. As Lisp code--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated. For example,

```
(sqrt (+ (* 3 2) (- 4 1)))
```

is an S-expression that can be evaluated.

- All Lisp code is in the form of S-expressions.
- But most S-expressions cannot be regarded as Lisp code. For example, the S-expressions ((+ 2) y 5) and (3 x z) cannot be evaluated.
- 2. As Lisp data. Example: ((john smith) (2001 06 13))
 In this course:
 - If a Lisp variable has a value, then the value will usually be an S-expression.
 - More generally, if a Lisp expression can be evaluated, then its value (i.e., the result of its evaluation) will usually be an S-expression.

2. As Lisp data. Example: ((john smith) (2001 06 13))

1. As Lisp code--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated. For example,

```
(sqrt (+ (* 3 2) (- 4 1)))
```

is an S-expression that can be evaluated.

2. As Lisp data. Example: ((john smith) (2001 06 13))

1. As Lisp code--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated. For example,

```
(sqrt (+ (* 3 2) (- 4 1)))
```

is an S-expression that can be evaluated.

- 2. As Lisp data. Example: ((john smith) (2001 06 13))
- It is an important property of Lisp that Lisp code is in S-expression form and can therefore be Lisp data.

1. As Lisp code--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated. For example,

```
(sqrt (+ (* 3 2) (- 4 1)))
```

is an S-expression that can be evaluated.

- 2. As Lisp data. Example: ((john smith) (2001 06 13))
- It is an important property of Lisp that *Lisp code* is in *S-expression* form <u>and can therefore be Lisp data</u>.
- This property makes it much easier for Lisp code to process other Lisp code or code of any language that is in S-expression form.

1. As Lisp code--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated. For example,

```
(sqrt (+ (* 3 2) (- 4 1)))
```

is an S-expression that can be evaluated.

- 2. As Lisp data. Example: ((john smith) (2001 06 13))
- It is an important property of Lisp that *Lisp code* is in *S-expression* form <u>and can therefore be Lisp data</u>.
- This property makes it much easier for Lisp code to process other Lisp code or code of any language that is in S-expression form.
- Lisp *macros*, which are used to extend the syntax of Lisp (i.e., "define new keywords"), depend on this property.

 C

1. As Lisp code--i.e., expressions that can be evaluated. For example,

```
(sqrt (+ (* 3 2) (- 4 1)))
```

is an S-expression that can be evaluated.

- 2. As Lisp data. Example: ((john smith) (2001 06 13))
- It is an important property of Lisp that *Lisp code* is in *S-expression* form <u>and can therefore be Lisp data</u>.
- This property makes it much easier for Lisp code to process other Lisp code or code of any language that is in S-expression form.
- Lisp macros, which are used to extend the syntax of Lisp (i.e., "define new keywords"), depend on this property.
 - Och. 14 of Touretzky explains how to write macros, but you will <u>not</u> be expected to do that: All the macros you need to use will be predefined (i.e., built-in) macros.

 Many very commonly used Lisp forms (including SETF, DEFUN, COND, AND, OR, and LAMBDA forms) are macro forms that are predefined in terms of a set of 25 special operator forms that are often less convenient to use: Many very commonly used Lisp forms (including SETF, DEFUN, COND, AND, OR, and LAMBDA forms) are macro forms that are predefined in terms of a set of 25 special operator forms that are often less convenient to use:

From the Common Lisp Hyperspec

(http://www.lispworks.com/documentation/common-lisp.html):

The set of <u>special operator names</u> is fixed in Common Lisp; no way is provided for the user to define a <u>special operator</u>. The next figure lists all of the Common Lisp <u>symbols</u> that have definitions as <u>special operators</u>.

<u>block</u>	<u>let*</u>	<u>return-from</u>
<u>catch</u>	<u>load-time-value</u>	<u>setq</u>
<u>eval-when</u>	<u>locally</u>	<pre>symbol-macrolet</pre>
<u>flet</u>	<u>macrolet</u>	<u>tagbody</u>
<u>function</u>	<pre>multiple-value-call</pre>	<u>the</u>
<u>go</u>	<u>multiple-value-prog1</u>	<u>throw</u>
<u>if</u>	<u>progn</u>	<u>unwind-protect</u>
<u>labels</u>	<u>progv</u>	
<u>let</u>	<u>quote</u>	

Figure 3-2. Common Lisp Special Operators

Just a few of these
25 special operators
(probably just QUOTE,
IF, LET, LET*, and
LABELS) will be covered
later. You will <u>not</u> be
expected to know the
rest!

More on Numbers, Symbols, and Lists in Common Lisp

There are 4 kinds of number in Common Lisp:

• Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)

• Integers can have arbitrarily many digits!

There are 4 kinds of number in Common Lisp:

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)

 Integers can have arbitrarily many digits!
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>. Further remarks:

0

 \bigcirc

 \bigcirc

There are 4 kinds of number in Common Lisp:

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)

 Integers can have arbitrarily many digits!
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>. Further remarks:
 - The numerator and denominator may have arbitrarily many digits; the denominator must be unsigned.

0

 \bigcirc

There are 4 kinds of number in Common Lisp:

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)

 Integers can have arbitrarily many digits!
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>. Further remarks:
 - o The numerator and denominator may have arbitrarily many digits; the denominator must be unsigned.
 - o +, -, *, and / give exact results (i.e., there's no rounding error) if their arguments are rational.

0

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)

 Integers can have arbitrarily many digits!
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>. Further remarks:
 - o The numerator and denominator may have arbitrarily many digits; the denominator must be unsigned.
 - o +, -, *, and / give exact results (i.e., there's no rounding error) if their arguments are rational.
 - o If the denominator divides the numerator, then the number is an integer and not a ratio!

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)

 Integers can have arbitrarily many digits!
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>. Further remarks:
 - o The numerator and denominator may have arbitrarily many digits; the denominator must be unsigned.
 - o +, -, *, and / give exact results (i.e., there's no rounding error) if their arguments are rational.
 - o If the denominator divides the numerator, then the number is an integer and not a ratio!
- Floating point numbers (e.g., 12.876 or 2.31e-3)
 - Common Lisp has 4 types of floating point number, (short-, single-, double-, and long-float), which differ in the amount of precision and range of exponents given by their value representations.

There are 4 kinds of number in Common Lisp:

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>.

Floating point numbers (e.g., 12.876 or 2.31e-3)
 ○ Common Lisp has 4 types of floating point number, (short-, single-, double-, and long-float), which differ in the amount of precision and range of exponents given by their value representations.

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>.
- Floating point numbers (e.g., 12.876 or 2.31e-3)
 - Ocommon Lisp has 4 types of floating point number, (short-, single-, double-, and long-float), which differ in the amount of precision and range of exponents given by their value representations.

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>.
- Floating point numbers (e.g., 12.876 or 2.31e-3)
 - Common Lisp has 4 types of floating point number (short-, single-, double-, and long-float), which differ in the amount of precision and range of exponents given by their value representations.
 - Single-float is the default floating point type; 12.876 and 2.31e-3 are of type single-float. You will <u>not</u> need to use other floating point types.

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>.
- Floating point numbers (e.g., 12.876 or 2.31e-3)
 - O Common Lisp has 4 types of floating point number (short-, single-, double-, and long-float), which differ in the amount of precision and range of exponents given by their value representations.
 - Single-float is the default floating point type; 12.876 and 2.31e-3 are of type single-float. You will <u>not</u> need to use other floating point types
 - O In Clisp, numbers of type single-float are 32-bit floating point numbers that are analogous to (i.e., that have the same value representation as) numbers of type float in Java.

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>.
- Floating point numbers (e.g., 12.876 or 2.31e-3)
 - O Common Lisp has 4 types of floating point number (short-, single-, double-, and long-float), which differ in the amount of precision and range of exponents given by their value representations.
 - Single-float is the default floating point type; 12.876 and 2.31e-3 are of type single-float. You will <u>not</u> need to use other floating point types.
 - O In Clisp, numbers of type single-float are 32-bit floating point numbers that are analogous to (i.e., that have the same value representation as) numbers of type float in Java.
 - O Note that the default floating point type in Java/C++ is double (64 bits) rather than float (32 bits).

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described earlier.
- Floating point numbers (e.g., 12.876 or 2.31e-3)

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described earlier.
- Floating point numbers (e.g., 12.876 or 2.31e-3)
- Complex numbers (e.g., #C(3-5/8)) or #C(2.37.2))
 - 0
 - \bigcirc

There are 4 kinds of number in Common Lisp:

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>.
- Floating point numbers (e.g., 12.876 or 2.31e-3)
- Complex numbers (e.g., #C(3 -5/8) or #C(2.3 7.2)) \circ #C(x y) represents x + yi, where i = $\sqrt{-1}$.

 \bigcirc

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>.
- Floating point numbers (e.g., 12.876 or 2.31e-3)
- Complex numbers (e.g., #C(3-5/8)) or #C(2.37.2))
 - \circ #C(x y) represents x + yi, where i = $\sqrt{-1}$.
 - We will <u>not</u> use complex numbers in this course!

- Integers (e.g., 3 or -8468284739390847398474784894)
- Ratios (e.g., -41/31) were described <u>earlier</u>.
- Floating point numbers (e.g., 12.876 or 2.31e-3)
- Complex numbers (e.g., #C(3 5/8) or #C(2.3 7.2))
 - \circ #C(x y) represents x + yi, where i = $\sqrt{-1}$.
 - o We will <u>not</u> use complex numbers in this course!

- Numbers are one of the two kinds of Common Lisp atom that will be used extensively in this course.
 - Symbols, which we consider next, are the other kind of atom we will use extensively.

Page 7 of Touretzky defines symbols as follows:

symbol

Any sequence of letters, digits, and permissible special characters that is not a number.

So FOUR is a symbol, 4 is an integer, +4 is an integer, but + is a symbol. And 7–11 is also a symbol.

Page 7 of Touretzky defines symbols as follows:

symbol

Any sequence of letters, digits, and permissible special characters that is not a number.

So FOUR is a symbol, 4 is an integer, +4 is an integer, but + is a symbol. And 7–11 is also a symbol.

Q. Which special characters are "permissible"?

Page 7 of Touretzky defines symbols as follows:

Any sequence of letters, digits, and permissible special characters that is not a number.

So FOUR is a symbol, 4 is an integer, +4 is an integer, but + is a symbol. And 7–11 is also a symbol.

- Q. Which special characters are "permissible"?
- A. Any character that is <u>not</u> a whitespace character and also is <u>not</u> one of ()'`",;|\: is permissible, but # can't be the *first* character of a symbol and a symbol can't consist only of . characters.

Page 7 of Touretzky defines symbols as follows:

symbol

Any sequence of letters, digits, and permissible special characters that is not a number.

So FOUR is a symbol, 4 is an integer, +4 is an integer, but + is a symbol. And 7–11 is also a symbol.

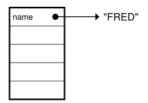
- Q. Which special characters are "permissible"?
- A. Any character that is <u>not</u> a whitespace character and also is <u>not</u> one of ()'`",;|\: is permissible, but # can't be the *first* character of a symbol and a symbol can't consist only of . characters.

Symbols as defined here are also called **symbol names**.

• The data object represented by a symbol name (see pp. 105-6) is called a symbol too, so use of the term symbol name may avoid confusion of the two concepts.

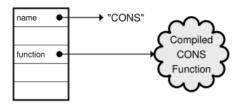
3.18 INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF SYMBOLS

So far in this book we have been drawing symbols by writing their names. But symbols in Common Lisp are actually composite objects, meaning they have several parts to them. Conceptually, a symbol is a block of five pointers, one of which points to the representation of the symbol's name. The others will be defined later. The internal structure of the symbol FRED looks like this:

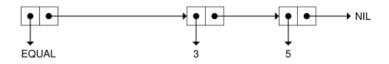


The "FRED" appearing above in quotation marks is called a **string**. Strings are sequences of characters; they will be covered more fully in Chapter 9. For now it suffices to note that strings are used to store the names of symbols; a symbol and its name are actually two different things.

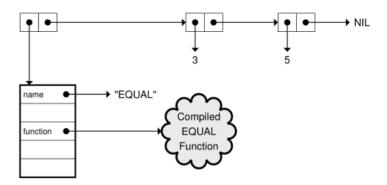
Some symbols, like CONS or +, are used to name built-in Lisp functions. The symbol CONS has a pointer in its **function cell** to a "compiled code object" that represents the machine language instructions for creating new cons cells.



When we draw Lisp expressions such as (EQUAL 3 5) as cons cell chains, we usually write just the name of the symbol instead of showing its internal structure:



But if we choose we can show more detail, in which case the expression (EQUAL 3.5) looks like this:



We can extract the various components of a symbol using built-in Common Lisp functions like SYMBOL-NAME and SYMBOL-FUNCTION. The following dialog illustrates this; you'll see something slightly different if you try it on your computer, but the basic idea is the same.

```
> (symbol-name 'equal)
"EQUAL"
> (symbol-function 'equal)
#<Compiled EQUAL function {60463B0}>
```

Note: Symbols are memory unique; see sec. 6.13.

- lacktriangle
- lacktriangle
- lacktriangle

• They are names of variables/parameters and constants.

•

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of **special operators** (also called *special functions*) and **macros**.

0

C

 $\overline{}$

C

0

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of *special operators* (also called *special functions*) and *macros*.
 - 5 *special operators* that will used in this course are IF, QUOTE, LET, LET*, and LABELS.

0

C

C

С

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of **special operators** (also called *special functions*) and **macros**.
 - o 5 special operators that will used in this course are IF, QUOTE, LET, LET*, and LABELS.
 - o Special operator expressions are evaluated in a special way--they're <u>not</u> evaluated like regular function calls.

0

С

O

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of *special operators* (also called *special functions*) and *macros*.
 - 5 *special operators* that will used in this course are IF, QUOTE, LET*, and LABELS.
 - o Special operator expressions are evaluated in a special way--they're <u>not</u> evaluated like regular function calls.
 - Macros can be thought of as "special operators that are defined by a Lisp programmer or, in the case of a predefined macro, can be redefined by a programmer".

O

C

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of *special operators* (also called *special functions*) and *macros*.
 - 5 *special operators* that will used in this course are IF, QUOTE, LET*, and LABELS.
 - o Special operator expressions are evaluated in a special way--they're <u>not</u> evaluated like regular function calls.
 - Macros can be thought of as "special operators that are defined by a Lisp programmer or, in the case of a predefined macro, can be redefined by a programmer". (But it's generally a very bad idea to redefine a predefined macro, and some Lisp implementations may not even allow redefinition of certain predefined macros!)

0

0

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of *special operators* (also called *special functions*) and *macros*.
 - 5 *special operators* that will used in this course are IF, QUOTE, LET*, and LABELS.
 - o Special operator expressions are evaluated in a special way--they're <u>not</u> evaluated like regular function calls.
 - Macros can be thought of as "special operators that are defined by a Lisp programmer or, in the case of a predefined macro, can be redefined by a programmer". (But it's generally a very bad idea to redefine a predefined macro, and some Lisp implementations may not even allow redefinition of certain predefined macros!)
 - o 6 predefined macros that will be used in this course are SETF, DEFUN, AND, OR, COND, and LAMBDA.

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of **special operators** (also called *special functions*) and **macros**.
 - 5 *special operators* that will used in this course are IF, QUOTE, LET*, and LABELS.
 - O Special operator expressions are evaluated in a special way--they're <u>not</u> evaluated like regular function calls.
 - Macros can be thought of as "special operators that are defined by a Lisp programmer or, in the case of a predefined macro, can be redefined by a programmer". (But it's generally a very bad idea to redefine a predefined macro, and some Lisp implementations may not even allow redefinition of certain predefined macros!)
 - o 6 predefined macros that will be used in this course are SETF, DEFUN, AND, OR, COND, and LAMBDA.
 - You will not be expected to define your own macros.

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of functions (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of *special operators* (also called *special functions*) and *macros*.
 - o 5 special operators that will used in this course are IF, QUOTE, LET, LET*, and LABELS.

- o 6 predefined macros that will be used in this course are SETF, DEFUN, AND, OR, COND, and LAMBDA.
- You will not be expected to define your own macros.

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of *special operators* (also called *special functions*) and *macros*.
 - 5 *special operators* that will used in this course are IF, QUOTE, LET*, and LABELS.
 - o 6 predefined macros that will be used in this course are SETF, DEFUN, AND, OR, COND, and LAMBDA.
 - You will not be expected to define your own macros.

Symbol names are used for the following purposes:

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of *special operators* (also called *special functions*) and *macros*.
 - 5 *special operators* that will used in this course are IF, QUOTE, LET*, and LABELS.
 - o 6 predefined macros that will be used in this course are SETF, DEFUN, AND, OR, COND, and LAMBDA.
 - You will not be expected to define your own macros.

Symbols are also used as data:

Symbol names are used for the following purposes:

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of *special operators* (also called *special functions*) and *macros*.
 - 5 *special operators* that will used in this course are IF, QUOTE, LET*, and LABELS.
 - o 6 predefined macros that will be used in this course are SETF, DEFUN, AND, OR, COND, and LAMBDA.
 - You will not be expected to define your own macros.

Symbols are also used as data:

• Symbol names are very often used like Java/C++ **enum** constants, but they don't need to be declared.

Symbol names are used for the following purposes:

- They are names of variables/parameters and constants.
- They are names of *functions* (e.g., +, -, SQRT).
- They are names of *special operators* (also called *special functions*) and *macros*.
 - 5 *special operators* that will used in this course are IF, QUOTE, LET*, and LABELS.
 - o 6 predefined macros that will be used in this course are SETF, DEFUN, AND, OR, COND, and LAMBDA.
 - You will not be expected to define your own macros.

Symbols are also used as data:

- Symbol names are very often used like Java/C++ **enum** constants, but they don't need to be declared.
- The value of a variable/parameter or of any other Lisp expression may well be a symbol.

Q. Are Common Lisp symbol names case-sensitive?

- Q. Are Common Lisp symbol names case-sensitive?
- A. Strictly speaking, yes. But ...

- Q. Are Common Lisp symbol names case-sensitive?
- A. Strictly speaking, yes. But ...
- When Common Lisp reads a symbol name, any lowercase letters in the name are converted to uppercase.

 \circ

 \circ

 C

- Q. Are Common Lisp symbol names case-sensitive?
- A. Strictly speaking, yes. But ...
- When Common Lisp reads a symbol name, any lowercase letters in the name are converted to uppercase.

o This case conversion may be prevented by typing \ before each lowercase letter (as in D\o\g), or by typing the symbol name between two | characters (as in |Dog|).

0

C

- Q. Are Common Lisp symbol names case-sensitive?
- A. Strictly speaking, yes. But ...
- When Common Lisp reads a symbol name, any lowercase letters in the name are converted to uppercase.

- This case conversion may be prevented by typing \ before each lowercase letter (as in D\o\g), or by typing the symbol name between two | characters (as in |Dog|).
- The characters \ and | are called escape characters.

0

- Q. Are Common Lisp symbol names case-sensitive?
- A. Strictly speaking, yes. But ...
- When Common Lisp reads a symbol name, any lowercase letters in the name are converted to uppercase.

- This case conversion may be prevented by typing \ before each lowercase letter (as in D\o\g), or by typing the symbol name between two | characters (as in |Dog|).
- The characters \ and | are called escape characters.
- There is no such case conversion in some versions of Scheme, nor in the Racket and Clojure dialects of Lisp; symbol names in those Lisp dialects are unambiguously case-sensitive.

- Q. Are Common Lisp symbol names case-sensitive?
- A. Strictly speaking, yes. But ...
- When Common Lisp reads a symbol name, any lowercase letters in the name are converted to uppercase.

- This case conversion may be prevented by typing \ before each lowercase letter (as in D\o\g), or by typing the symbol name between two | characters (as in |Dog|).
- The characters \ and | are called escape characters.
- There is no such case conversion in some versions of Scheme, nor in the Racket and Clojure dialects of Lisp; symbol names in those Lisp dialects are unambiguously case-sensitive.

Comment: Escape characters can also be used to create symbols with names that would otherwise not be allowed. But we will not use such symbols in this course.

lacktriangle

lacktriangle

•

•

• NIL is a constant that denotes the empty list.

•

lacktriangle

- NIL is a constant that denotes the empty list.
- NIL can also be written as ().

lacktriangle

- NIL is a constant that denotes the empty list.
- NIL can also be written as ().
- NIL is also used to mean false in Common Lisp.

•

- NIL is a constant that denotes the empty list.
- NIL can also be written as ().
- NIL is also used to mean false in Common Lisp.
- T is a constant that is the *usual* way to represent **true**, though any S-expression other than NIL can also be used to represent **true**.

- NIL is a constant that denotes the empty list.
- NIL can also be written as ().
- NIL is also used to mean false in Common Lisp.
- T is a constant that is the *usual* way to represent **true**, though any S-expression other than NIL can also be used to represent **true**.
- T and NIL evaluate to themselves:
 The value of T is always T itself;
 the value of NIL is always NIL itself.
 The values of T and NIL can't be changed, and you can't use T or NIL as a variable / formal parameter!

```
As mentioned <u>earlier</u>, there are two kinds of list: (1) proper lists (2) dotted lists
```

```
As mentioned <u>earlier</u>, there are two kinds of list: (1) proper lists (2) dotted lists
```

• Proper lists of length 0, 1, 2, ..., n have the forms (), (e_1) , $(e_1 e_2)$, $(e_1 e_2 \ldots e_n)$ where each e can be any S-expression (i.e., any atom or list); lists can be nested to any depth.

```
As mentioned <u>earlier</u>, there are two kinds of list: (1) proper lists (2) dotted lists
```

- Proper lists of length 0, 1, 2, ..., n have the forms (), (e_1) , $(e_1 e_2)$, $(e_1 e_2 \ldots e_n)$ where each e can be any S-expression (i.e., any atom or list); lists can be nested to any depth.
- A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:

As mentioned <u>earlier</u>, there are two kinds of list: (1) proper lists (2) dotted lists

- Proper lists of length 0, 1, 2, ..., n have the forms (), (e_1) , $(e_1 e_2)$, $(e_1 e_2 \ldots e_n)$ where each e can be any S-expression (i.e., any atom or list); lists can be nested to any depth.
- A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:

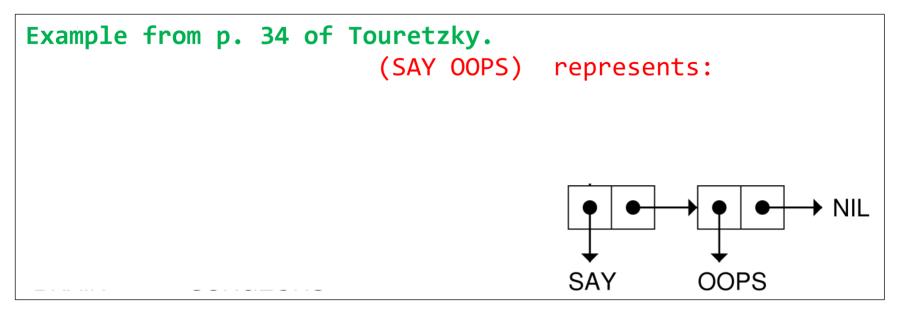


• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



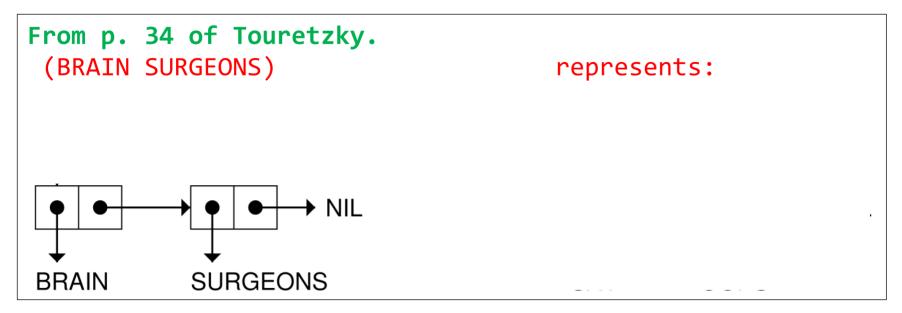
• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:





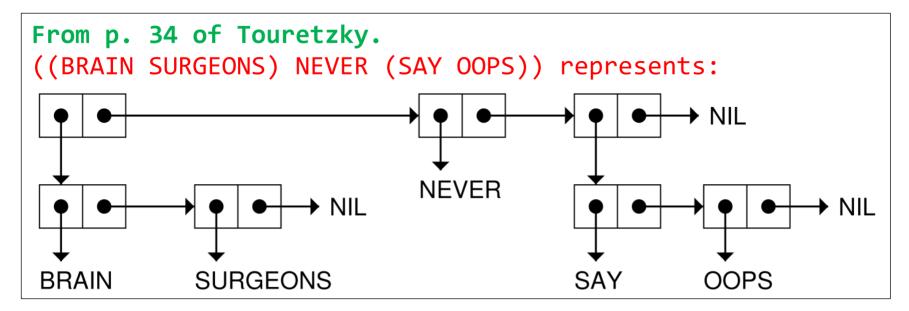
• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:





• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:





• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



Here $D(e_i)$ is a drawing of the data structure represented by e_i .

• A *dotted* list has the form $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ where $n \ge 1$, each e is an S-expression, and a is an atom other than NIL.

• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



Here $D(e_i)$ is a drawing of the data structure represented by e_i .

- A *dotted* list has the form $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ where $n \ge 1$, each e is an S-expression, and a *is an atom other than* NIL.
- The notation $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can also be used if a is a list.

•

• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



- A *dotted* list has the form $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ where $n \ge 1$, each e is an S-expression, and a *is an atom other than* NIL.
- The notation $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can also be used if a is a list.
- If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:

• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



- A *dotted* list has the form $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ where $n \ge 1$, each e is an S-expression, and a *is an atom other than* NIL.
- The notation $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can also be used if a is a list.
- If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



- A *dotted* list has the form $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ where $n \ge 1$, each e is an S-expression, and a is an atom other than NIL.
- The notation $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can also be used if a is a list.
- If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



- A *dotted* list has the form $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ where $n \ge 1$, each e is an S-expression, and a is an atom other than NIL.
- The notation $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can also be used if a is a list.
- If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



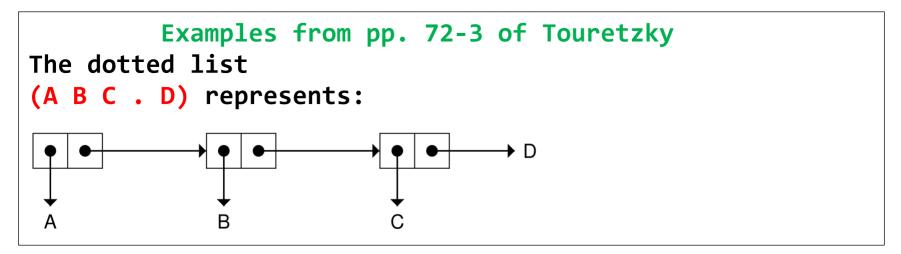
- A *dotted* list has the form $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ where $n \ge 1$, each e is an S-expression, and a is an atom other than NIL.
- The notation $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can also be used if a is a list.
- If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



Examples from pp. 72-3 of Touretzky
The dotted list
(A B C . D) represents:

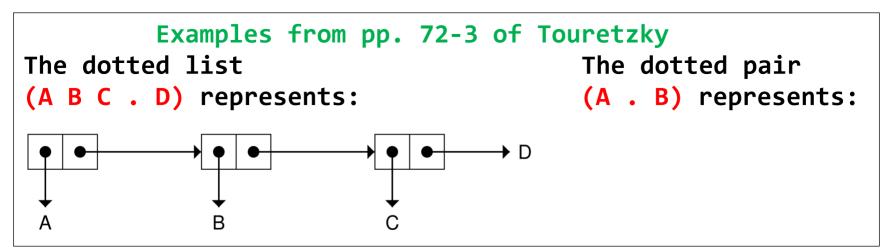
- A *dotted* list has the form $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ where $n \ge 1$, each e is an S-expression, and a is an atom other than NIL.
- The notation $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can also be used if a is a list.
- If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:





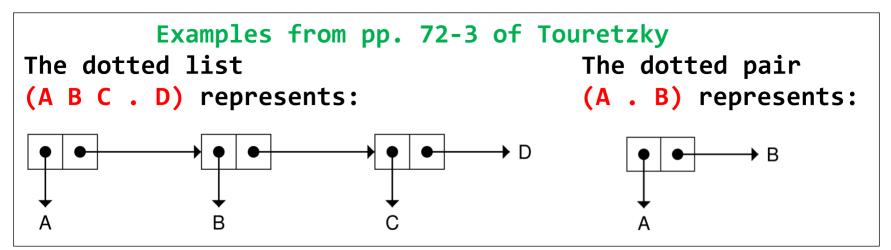
- A *dotted* list has the form $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ where $n \ge 1$, each e is an S-expression, and a is an atom other than NIL.
- The notation $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can also be used if a is a list.
- If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:





- A *dotted* list has the form $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ where $n \ge 1$, each e is an S-expression, and a is an atom other than NIL.
- The notation $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can also be used if a is a list.
- If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:





• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



321

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



ullet If a is a list, then $(e_1 \ \dots \ e_n \ . \ a)$ can be simplified:

$$(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot \text{NIL}) =$$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1})) =$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k})) =$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k} \cdot a)) =$

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• If a is a list, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can be simplified:

$$(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot \text{NIL}) = (e_1 \dots e_n)$$

 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1})) =$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k})) =$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k} \cdot a)) =$

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• If a is a list, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can be simplified:

$$(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot \text{NIL}) = (e_1 \dots e_n)$$

 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1})) = (e_1 \dots e_n e_{n+1})$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k})) =$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k} \cdot a)) =$

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• If a is a list, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can be simplified:

$$(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot \text{NIL}) = (e_1 \dots e_n)$$

 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1})) = (e_1 \dots e_n e_{n+1})$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k})) = (e_1 \dots e_n e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k})$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k} \cdot a)) =$

•

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• If a is a list, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can be simplified:

$$(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot \text{NIL}) = (e_1 \dots e_n)$$

 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1})) = (e_1 \dots e_n e_{n+1})$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k})) = (e_1 \dots e_n e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k})$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k} \cdot a)) = (e_1 \dots e_n e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k} \cdot a)$

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• If a is a list, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ can be simplified:

$$(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot \text{NIL}) = (e_1 \dots e_n)$$

 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1})) = (e_1 \dots e_n e_{n+1})$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k})) = (e_1 \dots e_n e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k})$
 $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot (e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k} \cdot a)) = (e_1 \dots e_n e_{n+1} \dots e_{n+k} \cdot a)$

• So we'll write $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ only when a is an atom other than NIL.

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• So we'll write $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ only when a is an atom other than NIL.

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:





• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:

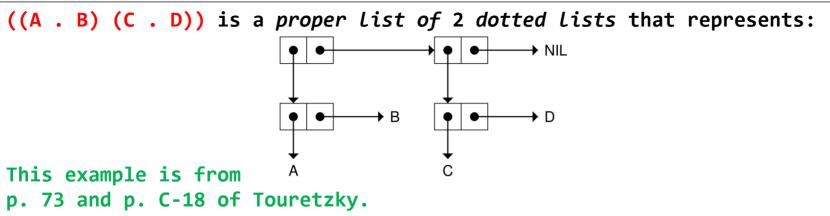


((A . B) (C . D)) is a proper list of 2 dotted lists that represents:

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:







• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:





• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



• A proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



333

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:





- If a is an atom, the <u>length</u> of $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ is $n (\underline{not} \ n+1)$.
- lacktriangle

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:





- If a is an atom, the <u>length</u> of $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ is $n (\underline{not} \ n+1)$.
- Dotted lists are used much less than proper lists.

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:





- If a is an atom, the <u>Length</u> of $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ is $n (\underline{not} n+1)$.
- Dotted lists are used much less than proper lists.
- The term <u>list</u> is often used to mean <u>proper list</u>!

• If a is an atom, then $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ represents a singly-linked list data structure that may be drawn as follows:



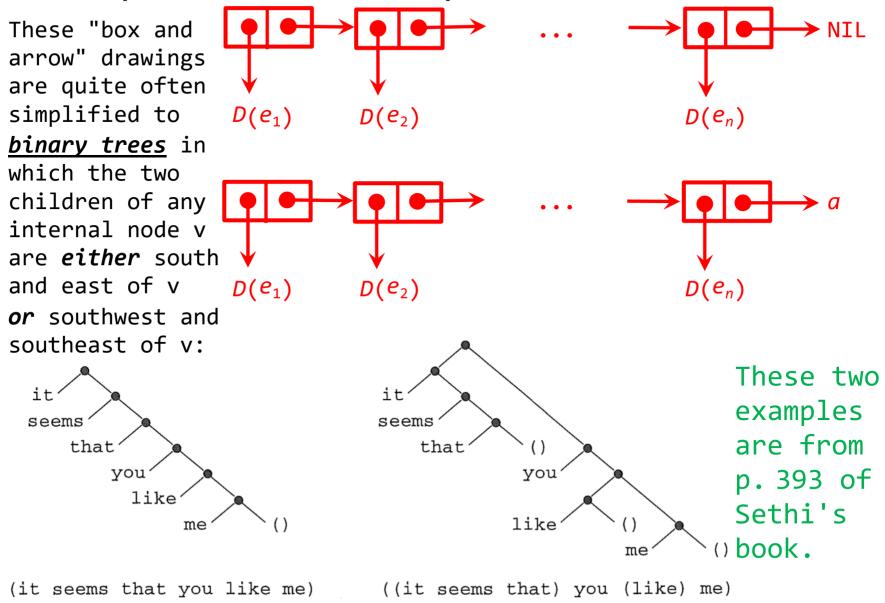


- If a is an atom, the <u>Length</u> of $(e_1 \dots e_n \cdot a)$ is $n (\underline{not} \ n+1)$.
- Dotted lists are used much less than proper lists.
- The term <u>list</u> is often used to mean <u>proper list</u>!
- If a function you write for this course returns a dotted list, then either your code has a bug or an inappropriate argument value was passed to the function!

Tree Representation of S-Expressions

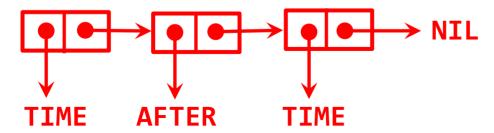
These "box and arrow" drawings are quite often simplified to $D(e_1)$ $D(e_n)$ $D(e_2)$ binary trees in which the two children of any internal node v are *either* south and east of v $D(e_n)$ $D(e_1)$ $D(e_2)$ or southwest and southeast of v:

Tree Representation of S-Expressions



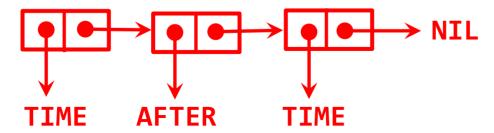
Memory Uniqueness of Symbols
(TIME AFTER TIME) represents:

(TIME AFTER TIME) represents:



But this drawing needs careful interpretation because the two occurrences of TIME represent the same identical symbol object.

(TIME AFTER TIME) represents:



But this drawing needs careful interpretation because the two occurrences of TIME represent the same identical <u>symbol object</u>.

Touretzky explains this as follows on p. 195:

```
The following more detailed depiction of the data structure represented by

(TIME AFTER TIME)
is given on p. 196 of Touretzky:
```

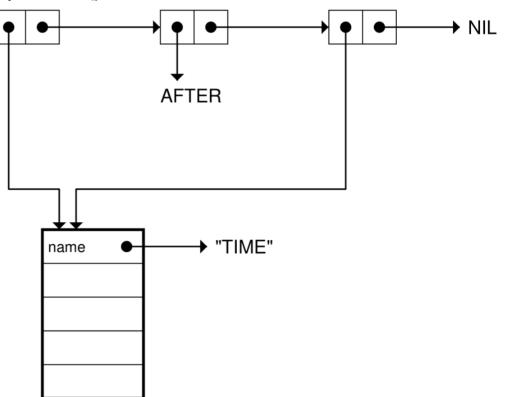
In Lisp, symbols are unique, meaning there can be only one symbol in the computer's memory with a given name.** Every object in the memory has a numbered location, called its **address**. Since a symbol exists in only one place in memory, symbols have unique addresses. So in the list (TIME AFTER TIME), the two occurrences of the symbol TIME must refer to the same address. There cannot be two separate symbols named TIME.

The following more detailed depiction of the data structure represented by

(TIME AFTER TIME)
is given on p. 196

There is *just one*TIME *symbol object*!

of Touretzky:

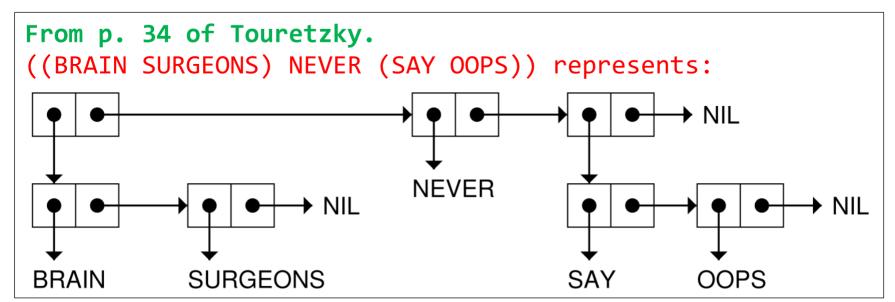


In Lisp, symbols are unique, meaning there can be only one symbol in the computer's memory with a given name.** Every object in the memory has a numbered location, called its **address**. Since a symbol exists in only one place in memory, symbols have unique addresses. So in the list (TIME AFTER TIME), the two occurrences of the symbol TIME must refer to the same address. There cannot be two separate symbols named TIME.

Similarly, all occurrences of the symbol NIL that are shown below represent the same identical symbol object:

In Lisp, symbols are unique, meaning there can be only one symbol in the computer's memory with a given name.** Every object in the memory has a numbered location, called its **address**. Since a symbol exists in only one place in memory, symbols have unique addresses. So in the list (TIME AFTER TIME), the two occurrences of the symbol TIME must refer to the same address. There cannot be two separate symbols named TIME.

Similarly, all occurrences of the symbol NIL that are shown below represent the same identical symbol object:



Evaluation of S-Expressions

• To evaluate an S-expression is to compute its value; evaluation is said to return the value, and the S-expression is said to evaluate to that value.

• Example:

351

- To <u>evaluate</u> an S-expression is to compute its <u>value</u>; evaluation is said to <u>return</u> the value, and the S-expression is said to <u>evaluate to</u> that value.
- Example: The S-expression (+ 3 4) <u>evaluates to</u> the number 7; the number 7 is the value of (+ 3 4).

- To <u>evaluate</u> an S-expression is to compute its <u>value</u>; evaluation is said to <u>return</u> the value, and the S-expression is said to <u>evaluate to</u> that value.
- Example: The S-expression (+ 3 4) <u>evaluates to</u> the number 7; the number 7 is the <u>value</u> of (+ 3 4).
- When a user enters an S-expression at a Lisp prompt, the Lisp interpreter does the following:
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.

- To <u>evaluate</u> an S-expression is to compute its <u>value</u>; evaluation is said to <u>return</u> the value, and the S-expression is said to <u>evaluate to</u> that value.
- Example: The S-expression (+ 3 4) <u>evaluates to</u> the number 7; the number 7 is the <u>value</u> of (+ 3 4).
- When a user enters an S-expression at a Lisp prompt, the Lisp interpreter does the following:
 - 1. It reads the S-expression that was entered.
 - 2.
 - 3.

- To <u>evaluate</u> an S-expression is to compute its <u>value</u>; evaluation is said to <u>return</u> the value, and the S-expression is said to <u>evaluate to</u> that value.
- Example: The S-expression (+ 3 4) <u>evaluates to</u> the number 7; the number 7 is the <u>value</u> of (+ 3 4).
- When a user enters an S-expression at a Lisp prompt, the Lisp interpreter does the following:
 - 1. It reads the S-expression that was entered.
 - 2. It attempts to evaluate the S-expression.
 - 3.

- To <u>evaluate</u> an S-expression is to compute its <u>value</u>; evaluation is said to <u>return</u> the value, and the S-expression is said to <u>evaluate to</u> that value.
- Example: The S-expression (+ 3 4) <u>evaluates to</u> the number 7; the number 7 is the <u>value</u> of (+ 3 4).
- When a user enters an S-expression at a Lisp prompt, the Lisp interpreter does the following:
 - 1. It reads the S-expression that was entered.
 - 2. It attempts to evaluate the S-expression.
 - 3. It *print*s the value that is returned by evaluation if evaluation is successful.

- To <u>evaluate</u> an S-expression is to compute its <u>value</u>; evaluation is said to <u>return</u> the value, and the S-expression is said to <u>evaluate to</u> that value.
- Example: The S-expression (+ 3 4) <u>evaluates to</u> the number 7; the number 7 is the <u>value</u> of (+ 3 4).
- When a user enters an S-expression at a Lisp prompt, the Lisp interpreter does the following:
 - 1. It reads the S-expression that was entered.
 - 2. It attempts to *evaluate* the S-expression.
 - 3. It *print*s the value that is returned by evaluation if evaluation is successful.
- Many S-expressions <u>cannot</u> be successfully evaluated

 -e.g., neither (3 4) nor (/ 2 0) can be evaluated:
 Any attempt to evaluate such an S-expression produces an *error*; these S-expressions have no value!

- To <u>evaluate</u> an S-expression is to compute its <u>value</u>; evaluation is said to <u>return</u> the value, and the S-expression is said to <u>evaluate to</u> that value.
- Example: The S-expression (+ 3 4) <u>evaluates to</u> the number 7; the number 7 is the value of (+ 3 4).
- When a user enters an S-expression at a Lisp prompt, the Lisp interpreter does the following:
 - 1. It reads the S-expression that was entered.
 - 2. It attempts to evaluate the S-expression.
 - 3. It *print*s the value that is returned by evaluation if evaluation is successful.
- Many S-expressions <u>cannot</u> be successfully evaluated

 -e.g., neither (3 4) nor (/ 2 0) can be evaluated:

 Any attempt to evaluate such an S-expression produces an *error*; these S-expressions have no value!
- If an S-expression can be evaluated, then its value will be a data object that may be an atom or a list.

There are 3 cases:

There are 3 cases:

Evaluation of symbols.

```
There are 3 cases:

Evaluation of symbols.

Evaluation of atoms that are not symbols.
```

```
There are 3 cases:

Evaluation of symbols.

Evaluation of atoms that are not symbols.

Evaluation of nonempty proper lists.
```

```
There are 3 cases:

Evaluation of symbols.

Evaluation of atoms that are not symbols.

Evaluation of nonempty proper lists.
```

1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
 - If the symbol denotes a variable that has no value, then an evaluation error occurs.

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
 - If the symbol denotes a variable that has no value, then an evaluation error occurs.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom--e.g., any number evaluates to the same number.

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
 - If the symbol denotes a variable that has no value, then an evaluation error occurs.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom--e.g., any number evaluates to the same number.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a \underline{or} as a depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list.

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
 - If the symbol denotes a variable that has no value, then an evaluation error occurs.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom--e.g., any number evaluates to the same number.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list.

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
 - If the symbol denotes a variable that has no value, then an evaluation error occurs.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom--e.g., any number evaluates to the same number.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list.

1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.

- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list.

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list.

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list.

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list:

•

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list:
 - If e₁ is the name of a function or e₁ is a lambda expression (a kind of list we will study later), then:

0

• If e_1 is the name of a special operator or macro, then:

0

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list:
 - If e_1 is the name of a function or e_1 is a Lambda expression (a kind of list we will study later), then:
 - \circ $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>call of the function given</u> <u>by</u> e_1 ; the values obtained by evaluating e_2, \dots, e_n are passed to the call as argument values.
 - Example:
 - If e_1 is the name of a special operator or macro, then:
 - 0

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list:
 - If e_1 is the name of a function or e_1 is a lambda expression (a kind of list we will study later), then:
 - \circ $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>call of the function given</u> <u>by</u> e_1 ; the values obtained by evaluating e_2 , ..., e_n are passed to the call as argument values.
 - \circ **Example:** (+ e_2 e_3) is evaluated as a <u>call of</u> +; the argument values are obtained by evaluating e_2 and e_3 .
 - If e_1 is the name of a special operator or macro, then:

0

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list:
 - If e_1 is the name of a function or e_1 is a lambda expression (a kind of list we will study later), then:
 - \circ $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>call of the function given</u> <u>by</u> e_1 ; the values obtained by evaluating e_2, \dots, e_n are passed to the call as argument values.
 - \circ **Example:** $(+ e_2 e_3)$ is evaluated as a <u>call of</u> +; the argument values are obtained by evaluating e_2 and e_3 .
 - If e_1 is the name of a special operator or macro, then:
 - \circ $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>special/macro form</u> in a way that depends on the special operator/macro.
 - Example:

- 1. A **symbol** evaluates to the value of the variable / formal parameter or constant that is denoted by the symbol.
- 2. Any atom that is not a symbol evaluates to the same atom.
- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list:
 - If e_1 is the name of a function or e_1 is a lambda expression (a kind of list we will study later), then:
 - \circ $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>call of the function given</u> <u>by</u> e_1 ; the values obtained by evaluating e_2 , ..., e_n are passed to the call as argument values.
 - \circ **Example:** $(+ e_1 e_2)$ is evaluated as a <u>call of</u> +; the argument values are obtained by evaluating e_1 and e_2 .
 - If e_1 is the name of a special operator or macro, then:
 - \circ $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>special/macro form</u> in a way that depends on the special operator/macro.
 - Example: (SETF X 9) is evaluated as a <u>macro form</u>.

- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list:
 - If e_1 is the name of a function or e_1 is a lambda expression (a kind of list we will study later), then:
 - \circ $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>call of the function given</u> <u>by</u> e_1 ; the values obtained by evaluating e_2 , ..., e_n are passed to the call as argument values.

- If e_1 is the name of a special operator or macro, then:
 - \circ $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>special/macro form</u> in a way that depends on the special operator/macro.

- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list:
 - If e₁ is the name of a function or e₁ is a lambda expression (a kind of list we will study later), then:
 (e₁ ... e_n) is evaluated as a <u>call of the function given</u>
 by e₁; the values obtained by evaluating e₂, ..., e_n
 are passed to the call as argument values.
 - If e_1 is the name of a special operator or macro, then:
 - \circ $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>special/macro form</u> in a way that depends on the special operator/macro.

- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list:
 - If e₁ is the name of a function or e₁ is a lambda expression (a kind of list we will study later), then:
 (e₁ ... e_n) is evaluated as a <u>call of the function given</u>
 by e₁; the values obtained by evaluating e₂, ..., e_n
 are passed to the call as argument values.
 - ullet If e_1 is the name of a special operator or macro, then:
 - \circ $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>special/macro form</u> in a way that depends on the special operator/macro.

A list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ can be evaluated <u>only</u> in the above cases:

Note:

- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list:
 - If e₁ is the name of a function or e₁ is a lambda expression (a kind of list we will study later), then:
 (e₁ ... e_n) is evaluated as a <u>call of the function given</u>
 by e₁; the values obtained by evaluating e₂, ..., e_n
 are passed to the call as argument values.
 - If e_1 is the name of a special operator or macro, then: $\circ (e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>special/macro form</u> in a way that depends on the special operator/macro.

A list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ can be evaluated <u>only</u> in the above cases:

• If e_1 is <u>neither</u> a symbol that is the name of a function <u>nor</u> a symbol that is the name of a special operator/macro <u>nor</u> a lambda expression, then an <u>error</u> will occur when $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated!

Note:

- 3. A nonempty proper list $(e_1 ... e_n)$ may be evaluated as a <u>function call</u> <u>or</u> as a <u>special/macro form</u> depending on e_1 , the **first element** of the list:
 - If e₁ is the name of a function or e₁ is a lambda expression (a kind of list we will study later), then:
 (e₁ ... e_n) is evaluated as a <u>call of the function given</u>
 by e₁; the values obtained by evaluating e₂, ..., e_n
 are passed to the call as argument values.
 - If e_1 is the name of a special operator or macro, then:
 - \circ $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated as a <u>special/macro form</u> in a way that depends on the special operator/macro.

A list $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ can be evaluated <u>only</u> in the above cases:

• If e_1 is <u>neither</u> a symbol that is the name of a function <u>nor</u> a symbol that is the name of a special operator/macro <u>nor</u> a lambda expression, then an <u>error</u> will occur when $(e_1 \dots e_n)$ is evaluated!

Note: The result of evaluating a *dotted* list is undefined!