

## Sun" Common Lisp Reference Guide

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## About This Book

This book presents a complete technical description of Sun Common Lisp. It is designed as a reference tool. Programmers who use this book should have some knowledge of general Lisp programming concepts. This book is not intended to be a tutorial on Common Lisp. Rather, it is a comprehensive description and specification of the Common Lisp language and extensions to Common Lisp by Lucid, Inc.

## Organization of This Book

The Sun Common Lisp Reference Manual has twenty-four chapters and two appendixes.

- Chapter 1. "Introduction" contains a brief overview of Common Lisp. It also describes the notational conventions used throughout this book.
- Chapter 2. "Data Types" introduces the data types provided by Common Lisp.
- Chapter 3. "Type Specifiers" describes the use of type specifiers in designating types.
- Chapter 4. "Program Structure" describes the organization of Common Lisp programs in terms of forms and functions.
- Chapter 5. "Control Structure" describes the constructs available for controlling the flow of program execution and evaluation.
- Chapter 6. "Macros" describes the use of macros and the macro text replacement facility.
- Chapter 7. "The Evaluator" discusses the evaluation of Common Lisp programs.
- Chapter 8. "Declarations" describes the use of declarations in tailoring a program to the needs of the user and the system.
- Chapter 9. "Predicates" describes the use of predicate functions and logical operations.
- Chapter 10. "Symbols" describes the use of symbol data objects.
- Chapter 11. "Packages" describes the use of packages in organizing the program name space.
- Chapter 12. "Numbers" describes the numerical data types and operations on numbers.
- Chapter 13. "Characters" describes the character data type and operations on characters.
- Chapter 14. "Sequences" describes the sequence data type and operations on sequences.
- Chapter 15. "Lists" describes the list data type and operations on lists.
- Chapter 16. "Arrays" describes the array data types and operations on arrays and vectors.
- Chapter 17. "Strings" describes the string data type and operations on strings.
- Chapter 18. "Hash Tables" describes the hash table data type and operations on hash tables.
- Chapter 19. "Structures" describes the creation of user-defined data types and the operations upon them.
- Chapter 20. "Streams" describes the use of streams in program input and output operations.
- Chapter 21. "Input/Output" describes the reading and printing operations of Common Lisp, including formatting options.
- Chapter 22. "File System Interface" describes the facilities for accessing files and communicating with the file system.
- Chapter 23. "Errors" describes error-signaling operations.
- Chapter 24. "Environmental Features" briefly describes facilities for compilation, debugging, documentation, and other functions that interface with the environment. For a complete technical description of Sun Common Lisp, the user is referred to the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.
- Appendix A. "Alphabetical Listing of Common Lisp Functions" is a list of all Common Lisp functions, macros, constants, variables, and special forms, including all extensions to Common Lisp described in this manual.
- Appendix B. "Extensions to Common Lisp" lists the extensions to Common Lisp described in this manual.


## Related Publications

The following books contain related information that the user may find helpful.
Sun Common Lisp User's Guide is a guide to using the special features and functions of Sun Common Lisp.
Common Lisp: The Language by Guy L. Steele Jr. (Digital Press) is the basic implementation specification for the language.
Programming in Common Lisp by Rodney A. Brooks (John Wiley \& Sons) is an introductory text for those who are new to Lisp.

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## Chapter 1. Introduction

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## About Common Lisp

Sun Common Lisp is a complete implementation of the Common Lisp language. It includes all of the Common Lisp functions, constants, variables, macros, and special forms. In addition, Sun Common Lisp provides many functions as extensions to Common Lisp and as enhancements to the user environment.

## The Language

Common Lisp is a functional, or applicative, language. It has two salient features-a list-based representation of data and an evaluator, or interpreter, that treats some lists as programs.
Lisp functions are equivalent to subroutines or procedures in other languages. In contrast to most other languages, Lisp functions can create and return arbitrary data objects as their values. These data objects can then be passed as arguments to other functions.
Programs and data have the same form in Lisp, and thus Lisp programs can easily process other Lisp programs. Programs are sequences of expressions composed of function calls.

While iteration, or looping, as a control structure is common in most programming languages, Lisp makes extensive use of recursion.

## The Environment

The Lisp system is an interactive one. When the user types an expression at the terminal, Lisp evaluates it and displays the result automatically. Most other programming languages compute by compiling and running programs. Lisp computes by evaluating the expressions that are typed to it.
Sun Common Lisp has a compiler that compiles Lisp code into machine code. User programs may run more efficiently as a result.
Debugging in Lisp can be done as a program is written. Every expression typed to Lisp is evaluated, and therefore at each stage of testing, the Lisp environment is available for examining the state of a program and its data structures. Large, complex programs can be incrementally built and tested.
Lisp manages storage for the user by providing a dynamic heap of storage that is automatically allocated as needed and then reclaimed, or garbage collected, when no longer needed.
The process of compiling and debugging programs is discussed at length in the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

## Notational Conventions and Syntax

This manual adheres to a number of notational conventions.

## Syntactic Descriptions

The names of all Common Lisp functions, macros, special forms, constants, and variables are in boldface (max, for example). Names of the parameters are in italics (number, for example).
The syntactic descriptions of Common Lisp functions are presented using the Common Lisp lambda list syntax. Lambda lists consist of a series of arguments and lambda list keywords. The lambda list keywords indicate how arguments are processed; they do not appear in the actual function call form. In the syntactic descriptions of functions, they appear in a typewriter font.

- Required parameters appear first, immediately following the function name.
- Any optional parameters are specified next. They are preceded by the \&optional lambda list keyword. Use of the \&optional lambda list keyword indicates that arguments that follow it are optional.
- An krest parameter may be specified next. It is preceded by the krest lambda list keyword. Use of the \&rest parameter indicates that an indefinite number of arguments may appear in the function call form and are bound to that parameter.
- The lambda list keyword \&key indicates that the function accepts keyword arguments. The lambda list keyword akey is followed by the keywords that are permitted. Keywords are symbols preceded by a colon (:start, :end, :count, and so forth). When the function is called, a keyword argument is specified by giving the keyword itself, followed by the value that the keyword argument is to have. The keyword-value pairs may occur in any order in the argument list; they are not constrained by the order of the keyword parameters in the lambda list.

The first box illustrates the syntactic description of a Common Lisp function. When a function is called, its name and arguments, except for keyword arguments, must be typed in the order shown. Arguments may appear across several lines, since carriage-returns and linefeeds can occur wherever a space can occur and do not have any special meaning to the Lisp reader (the input-handling part of the Lisp system).

[^0][Function]

## The expressions

## (max 1)

$(\max 2)$
(max 123 )
represent syntactically correct calls to the function max.
The syntactic descriptions of Common Lisp macros and special forms are given in an extended Backus-Naur form (BNF) notation.

- A word in italics indicates a syntactic category (for example, symbol, argument, variable).
- Braces, brackets, stars, plus signs, and vertical bars are metasyntactic marks.
- Braces, \{ and \}, group what they enclose. Braces may be followed by a star (*), which indicates that what they enclose may appear any number of times or not at all, or they may be followed by a plus sign ( + ), which indicates that what is enclosed may appear any nonzero number of times (that is, must appear at least once).
$\{x\}^{*} \quad$ zero or more occurrences of $x$
$\{x\}^{+} \quad$ one or more occurrences of $x$
- Brackets, [ and ], indicate that what they enclose is optional and can appear only once.
[ $x] \quad$ zero or one occurrences of $x$
- A vertical bar ( | ) separates mutually exclusive alternatives.
- The symbol $::=$ means "is defined by." It indicates that the term on the left side is defined by the expression on the right.

The boxed examples that follow illustrate the syntactic descriptions for macros and special forms. While functions are called according to a uniform syntax, the syntax of macros and special forms tends to vary widely.

This box shows the syntax of a macro:

```
prog ({var|(var [init])}*){declaration}*
    {tag| statement}*
```

    [Macro]
    The following is a syntactically correct use of the prog macro:

```
(prog (x)
```

    \((\operatorname{setq} x 2)\)
    (return \(x\) ))
    This box shows the syntax of a special form:

```
if test then [else]
```

[Special Form]

The expressions shown below are syntactically correct calls to the if special form.
(if $t$ 12)
(if th)
The next box illustrates the documentation of a global variable. Note that global variables in Common Lisp by convention have names that begin and end with an asterisk.
*print-radix*
[Variable]

The following box illustrates the documentation of a constant:
$\square$
pi
[Constant]

## Examples and Code

The examples represent what is displayed on the screen during interaction with Lisp. The Common Lisp prompt is given by $>$. The expression that follows it displays what the user has entered at the keyboard. This in turn is followed by the response of the Lisp system. Examples are printed in a typewriter font.
Lisp code in this manual is in lowercase. In general, the Lisp reader converts symbols into uppercase, and the Lisp system displays its responses in uppercase. Users can write programs in either uppercase or lowercase, or a combination of the two, whichever is preferred.
In the text of this manual, everything that would be typed at the keyboard or that would appear on the terminal screen is typeset in a typewriter font with this exception: an
argument or parameter is printed in italics, indicating that it serves as a placeholder for a real argument value that the user is to supply.

Normal text is set in a roman font.
Numbers, including those appearing in examples, are in decimal format unless explicitly noted otherwise.

Parentheses stand for themselves. Parentheses enclose lists. Lists may contain zero or more items, including other lists. Calls to functions, special forms, and macros are lists and are therefore enclosed in parentheses.
The single quote character (') is an abbreviation for the Lisp function quote. Thus, evaluating the Lisp expression 'form is the same as evaluating the expression (quote form). It means that the form following quote is not evaluated.
The semicolon character (;) indicates the beginning of a comment. A comment extends from the semicolon to the end of the line.

The \#| and |\# characters are nested comment characters that may appear in examples of code. They comment out sections of code.

The \#' character is an abbreviation for the Lisp function function. Thus, evaluating the Lisp expression \#'function is the same as evaluating the Lisp expression (function function). It indicates that the form that follows it is to be interpreted as a function object.

The \# syntax is used in the printed representation of many data types. This syntax and the Common Lisp data types are introduced in the following chapter.
$\qquad$

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## Chapter 2. Data Types

## Chapter 2. Data Types

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## About Data Types

A data type is a set of objects that satisfy certain criteria or possess certain properties. Unlike the data types of many programming languages, the data types of Common Lisp are properties of objects rather than of variables. Types are associated with the objects to which variables are bound, not with the variables themselves.

Common Lisp data types form a type hierarchy. An object may belong to more than one such set, and hence to more than one data type. For example, a string of characters is also a vector and therefore an array; since the vector data type is a subtype of sequence, a character string is also a sequence. The type $t$ is a supertype of all other types and a proper subtype of none; it contains all objects. The type nil is a subtype of all other types and a proper supertype of none. It represents the empty type. There are no objects of type nil. The type $t$ should not be confused with $t$, the Lisp object; similarly, the type nil should not be confused with the object nil. The common data type is a supertype that contains all of the objects required by the Common Lisp language.
The functions typep and type-of may be used to determine the type of a particular object. The predicate typep indicates whether an object belongs to a particular type. The function type-of returns one of the types to which the object belongs. Common Lisp provides numerous data type predicates to test objects for membership in particular types.
The most common and useful Common Lisp data types are introduced below. Figure 2-1 shows the hierarchical relationship of these types. Associated with each data type is a set of operations for creating and manipulating objects of that type. The user is referred to individual chapters of this manual for a more detailed discussion.

## Numbers

Integers, ratios, floating-point numbers, and complex numbers are provided as separate data types. Integers and ratios together constitute a subtype of numbers called rational numbers. Numbers and numerical operations are discussed in Chapter 12.

## Integers

The integer data type consists of fixnums and bignums. The fixnum data type is designed to allow integers in the range from most-negative-fixnum to most-positive-fixnum to be represented efficiently, using a fixed number of bits. The fixnum data type is the default for the representation of integers. The bignum data type is provided to allow for the representation of integers of arbitrary magnitude. The distinction between fixnums and bignums is generally not visible to the user. In Sun Common Lisp, the more appropriate representation is used automatically.

## Ratios

Ratios give an exact representation of the mathematical quotient of two integers. Ratios can be used to avoid the loss of precision that can result from using floating-point numbers.
Rational numbers are represented in canonical form. If the ratio is not an integer, the canonical representation is a pair of integers, the numerator and denominator, that represent the rational as a fraction in reduced form. The denominator is always positive. If the denominator evenly divides the numerator, the rational number is converted to the resulting integer.

## Floating-Point Numbers

Floating-point numbers constitute the type float. Four floating-point number formats are provided: short-float, single-float, double-float, and long-float. These formats differ in the precision they provide and in the range of exponents they allow. Sun Common Lisp represents all four types of floating-point numbers in the single-float format.

When an operation involves both a rational and a floating-point argument, the rational number is first converted to floating-point format, and then the operation is performed. This conversion process is called floating-point contagion.

## Complex Numbers

Complex numbers are represented as composite objects consisting of a real part and an imaginary part. The two parts of a complex number must be of the same noncomplex type; if they are not, they are automatically converted to the same type, in accordance with the principle of floating-point contagion. Complex numbers are represented in canonical form. If a complex number whose components are of type integer or ratio has an imaginary part whose value is zero, the canonical representation is an integer or ratio whose value is the same as that of the real part.

## Characters

Characters in Common Lisp are data objects that represent printed symbols, such as letters, or operations for formatting text. Each character has three attributes: code, bits, and font.

Common Lisp defines a standard character set as a subtype of characters called standard characters. The standard character set consists of 95 printing characters and the newline character. The font and bits attributes of all standard characters are zero.

String characters are a subtype of characters that can be contained in strings. Strings are vectors of characters. A string character is any character whose bits and font attributes are zero. The standard character data type is thus a subtype of the string character data type, and all of the standard characters can be stored in strings.

The character data type is discussed in Chapter 13.

## Symbols

Symbols are data objects with five components: a print name, a value cell, a function cell, a property list, and a package cell.

Symbols are named data objects. The print name of a symbol is a string that is used to identify and locate the symbol. Symbols are organized into name spaces called packages. Symbol names are unique within a package.

The value cell is the cell that holds the current value of the dynamic variable named by the symbol. A value may be associated with this cell by assignment functions or by constructs that establish new variable bindings.

The function cell contains the global function definition associated with the symbol. A function object may be associated with the function cell through the various function definition constructs.

A property list allows an extensible set of named components to be associated with a symbol. A component may be any Lisp object. Each successive two elements of the property list constitute an entry. The first element of an entry is the indicator, or property name, and the second element is the property value. When a symbol is created, its property list is empty.
The package cell refers to a package object. A package is a catalogue containing an index of print names. It is used to locate a symbol.
An important use of symbols is to name other objects, that is, to serve as variables. Symbols are discussed in Chapter 10.

## Packages

A package is a Common Lisp object that specifies a correspondence between print name strings and symbols. The package facility may be used to create a hierarchical program name space and to increase program modularity. Packages enable the user to avoid name conflicts that may arise when separate modules become part of the same system. Packages are discussed in Chapter 11.

## Sequences

Sequences are ordered sets of elements and include both lists and vectors (one-dimensional arrays). Operations on sequences are provided as general operations that are relevant for both of these types. The sequence data type is discussed in Chapter 14.

## Lists

Lists are sequences of linked elements, called conses (dotted pairs). The list data type consists of the data types cons and null. The empty list, nil, is the only list object of the type null. The type null should not be confused with the predicate null. The list data type includes both true lists and dotted lists.

A cons is an object containing two components, a car and a cdr, which can be any Lisp objects. Conses in a list are linked by their cdr components. The car components become the elements of the list. An ordinary, or true, list is terminated by nil, the empty list. A dotted list is terminated by some non-nil data object.

An association list is a list whose elements are conses. Each cons is regarded as a pair of associated objects. The car is called the key and the cdr the datum. An association list can be treated as a mapping from keys to data.

The list data type is discussed in Chapter 15.

## Arrays

Arrays are structured objects whose components can be directly accessed by means of index values. An array can have many dimensions. It is indexed by a sequence of integers called subscripts. Arrays can share their contents with other arrays and have their size altered dynamically. Arrays may be general or specialized. A general array can have elements that are members of any Common Lisp data type. A specialized array is an array whose elements must all be members of a particular data type.

A vector is a one-dimensional array. Since the vector data type is a subtype of the sequence data type, a vector is also a sequence. A general vector can have elements that are members of any Common Lisp data type. A specialized vector is a vector whose elements must all be members of a particular data type. Strings and bit vectors are important types of specialized vectors. Strings are vectors whose elements are of the string character data type. Bit vectors are one-dimensional arrays whose elements are of the bit data type. A vector can have a fill pointer. A fill pointer is an index that is used to incrementally fill in the elements of the vector and thus vary the length of the active portion.

A simple array is an array that does not share cells with another array, has no fill pointer, and whose size cannot be dynamically adjusted. A simple vector is a vector that is not displaced to another array, has no fill pointer, and whose size cannot be dynamically adjusted.

Arrays are discussed in Chapter 16.

## Strings

Strings are specialized vectors of characters. The string type is identical to the type (vector string-char). Like all vectors, strings may have fill pointers. Strings are discussed in Chapter 17.

## Hash Tables

Hash tables are Common Lisp objects that provide mappings between other objects. Each hash table entry is a pair of associated objects, a key and a value. Hash table functions use keys to look up their associated values. Common Lisp provides hash table functions to add entries, delete entries, and look up the values associated with given keys. Chapter 18 discusses the use of hash tables and hashing functions.

## Structures

Common Lisp allows the user to create record structures with a fixed number of named components. These structures are, in effect, user-defined data types. When these data types are defined, constructs to manipulate them are normally automatically defined by the system as well. These constructs include type predicates and access, constructor, and copier functions. Structures are created with the defstruct macro.

The definition of structures and the creation and manipulation of structure instances are discussed in Chapter 19.

## Readtables

A readtable is a data object that is used to guide the action of the Lisp reader. It contains information about the syntax of Lisp characters that is used in parsing. Readtables are discussed in Chapter 21.

## Streams

Streams are Common Lisp objects from which data can be read and to which data can be sent. Normally, the system reads characters from a character input stream, parses these characters as Lisp forms, evaluates each form as it is read, and prints representations of the results of the evaluation to a character output stream. The operations that can be performed on a stream depend on what type of stream it is. A stream may be input-only, output-only, or bidirectional. It may be a character stream or a binary stream.

There are several stream-value variables that are used by default by many Common Lisp system functions. These are known as standard streams.

The use of streams is closely connected to the file system. Streams may also be created through the file system constructs for opening files.

Streams are discussed in Chapter 20. Chapter 21 discusses the use of streams in the context of the input/output system. The interaction between streams and the file system is discussed in Chapter 22.

## Pathnames

Pathnames are objects that are used to represent file names in a way that is general enough to accommodate a diverse range of file system implementations. Pathnames have six components: host, device, directory, file name, type, and version. Pathnames and the file system interface are discussed in Chapter 22.

## Random States

Random state objects are used to represent the internal state of the random number generator. They are manipulated by the random number generation facility. Random states are discussed in Chapter 12.

## Functions

Functions are executable objects that may be applied to arguments to produce values. Functions in Common Lisp may be named or unnamed. Functions are discussed in Chapter 4.

## Relationships Among Common Lisp Data Types

Figure 2-1 shows the relationships among the Common Lisp data types. An arrow from one data type to another indicates that the data type on the left of the arrow is a subtype of the data type on the right. Operations for testing the relationship between two types are discussed in Chapter 3.

## Hierarchy of Data Types



Figure 2-1. Relationships among the Common Lisp data types

## Printed Representations of Data Types

In Common Lisp, each data type has its own printed (displayed) representation. This section provides a brief and partial overview of the most common formats that occur in the examples in the following chapters. For a detailed discussion of the printed representation of data types, the user is referred to Chapter 21.

## Integers

An integer is printed as a sequence of digits in a particular base, or radix. For the decimal base, the radix indicator is a decimal point following the number. For other bases, the radix indicator is one of the following forms preceding the number: \#o (octal), \#x (hexadecimal), \#b (binary), or \#nr (other base $n$; the base $n$ is printed in decimal).

## Ratios

Ratios are always printed in lowest reduced form, with the numerator printed, then a slash (/), and then the denominator. In a negative ratio, the numerator is preceded by a minus sign.

## Floating-Point Numbers

Floating-point numbers are printed as one or more digits on each side of a decimal point, sometimes followed by an exponent marker. If the number is negative, it is preceded by a minus sign.

## Complex Numbers

A complex number is printed as \#C( $r i)$, where $r$ is the printed representation of the number's real part and $i$ is the printed representation of the number's imaginary part.

## Characters

A character is printed as \# $\backslash$ followed by the character, if it is a printing character, or by the name of the character, if it is not.

## Symbols

A symbol is printed as its print name along with any character quoting or name qualification necessary to identify the symbol uniquely. This may include backslashes ( $\backslash$ ), vertical bars (1), a colon (:), a package name and one or two colons (:), or a leading \#: (for uninterned symbols). If the print name could be interpreted as a potential number, then backslashes or vertical bars are included to prevent such interpretation.
If the symbol is in the keyword package, it is printed with a leading colon. If the symbol is not accessible in the current package, it is printed with a leading package name and one or two colons. A leading \#: is printed if the symbol is uninterned (has no home package).

## Lists

A true list is printed as follows: first a left parenthesis, then the elements of the list in order, and finally a right parenthesis. The list elements are separated by white space (space, tab, carriage-return, or newline characters).
A dotted list is printed as follows: first a left parenthesis, then the car of the list, a dot, the cdr of the list, and finally a right parenthesis. The dot is separated from the car and the cdr of the list by white space.
Conses are printed with list notation rather than dot notation whenever possible.

## Arrays

An array is printed with the \#nA(...) syntax. In this case, the output starts with \#nA, where $n$ is the number of dimensions of the array, and then the contents of the array are printed in row-major order with parentheses indicating the structure of the array. The length of the top-level list printed is the size of the first dimension, and the lengths of the subsequent deeper levels are the sizes of the second dimension, the third dimension, and so on.

If the array has elements that are either bits or string characters, then the deepest level printed may take the form of a bit vector or string.

## Vectors

A vector is printed as \#( and ) enclosing the elements of the vector, which are separated by white space. For a vector with a fill pointer, only those elements before the fill pointer are printed.

## Bit Vectors

A printed bit vector consists of \#* followed by the bits in the bit vector. For a bit vector with a fill pointer, only those bits before the fill pointer are printed.

## Strings

A string is preceded and followed by a double quote ("), and any double-quote or single escape character in the string is preceded by a backslash ( $\$ ). A string with a fill pointer is printed only up to the fill pointer.

## Structures

A structure is printed as \#S immediately followed by a list in the form (name slot1 value1 slot2 value2 ... ), where name is the name of the structure, slot1 is the name of one of the structure's slots, and value1 is the corresponding value.

## Pathnames

A printed pathname consists of \#P followed immediately by the pathname enclosed in double quotes.

## Random States

An object of type random state is printed like a structure, with the \#S syntax.

## Other Data Types

An object that is a hash table, a readtable, a package, a stream, or a function object is printed with the \#<...> syntax. This form describes the data type and may give some indication of the particular instance (such as a memory address where it appears).

## Chapter 3. Type Specifiers

## Chapter 3. Type Specifiers

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## About Type Specifiers

Common Lisp objects called type specifiers are used to designate types. Type specifiers can be atomic type specifiers or lists. Type specifier lists designate specialized types in terms of simpler types. The user may define new atomic type specifiers in terms of existing types and type specifier lists.

New type specifier identifiers are defined by means of the deftype special form and the defstruct macro. The deftype special form can be used to define a new type specifier name in terms of existing type specifiers. Creating a new structure with the defstruct macro automatically creates a new type specifier identifier that designates instances of the structure type.

Type specifiers are used in declarations and as arguments to many functions that construct new objects.
The predicate typep uses type specifiers for type discrimination. Only objects that are actually members of the given type satisfy the predicate.

## Atomic System-Defined Type Specifiers

| array | integer | short-float |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| atom | keyword | signed-byte |
| bignum | list | simple-array |
| bit | long-float | simple-bit-vector |
| bit-vector | mod | simple-string |
| character | nil | simple-vector |
| common | null | single-float |
| compiled-function | number | standard-char |
| complex | package | stream |
| cons | pathname | string |
| double-float | random-state | string-char |
| fixnum | ratio | symbol |
| float | function | rational |
| hash-table |  | seadtable |
|  |  | unsigned-byte |
|  |  | vector |

Figure 3-1. Table of Atomic Type Speciflers

## Syntax for Type Specifiers

```
typespec::= atomic-type-specifier
    |(satisfies predicate-name)
    | (member {object}*)
    | (not typespec)
    |(and {typespec}*)
    | (or {typespec}*)
    |(array [{typespec |* }[dimensions]])
    |(simple-array [{typespec |*}[dimensions]])
    |(vector [{typespec |*} [{size|*}]])
    | (simple-vector [size])
    | (string [size | *])
    |(simple-string [size |*])
    | (bit-vector [size |*])
    | (simple-bit-vector [size|*])
    |(integer [integer-limit [integer-limit]])
    |(fixnum [fixnum-limit [fixnum-limit]])
    |(mod [integer |*])
    |(signed-byte [size|*])
    | (unsigned-byte [size | *])
    | (rational [rational-limit [rational-limit]])
    | (float [float-limit [float-limit]])
    | (short-float [short-float-limit [short-float-limit]])
    | (single-float [single-float-limit [single-float-limit]])
    | (double-float [double-float-limit [double-float-limit]])
    | (long-float [long-float-limit [long-float-limit]])
    | (complex [typespec |*])
    | (function [arg-typespec-list [value-typespec]])
arg-typespec-list::= ({typespec}* [&optional typespec] [&rest typespec]
    [kkey {typespec}*])
value-typespec::= typespec |(values . arg-typespec-list)
dimensions::= integer |*|({integer |* }*)
size::= integer
integer-limit::= integer |*|(integer)
fixnum-limit::= fixnum |* (fixnum)
```

```
rational-limit::= rational \(|*|(\) rational \()\)
float-limit: \(:=\) float \(|*|\) (float)
short-float-limit::=short-float \(|*|(\) short-float \()\)
single-float-limit::= single-float \(|*|(\) single-float \()\)
double-float-limit::= double-float \(|*|\) (double-float)
long-float-limit::= long-float \(|*|(\) long-float \()\)
```


## Type Specifier Lists

A type specifier may be defined to denote the set of all objects that satisfy a particular predicate by use of the construct (satisfies predicate-name), where the symbol predicate-name has a global function definition as a predicate of one argument.

A type specifier may be defined to denote the set of all objects that are members of a certain set by use of the (member $\{o b j e c t\}^{*}$ ) construct. The objects in this set are precisely those given in the list.

Other type specifier lists define combinations or specializations of existing type specifiers.
Specializations of atomic type specifiers indicate that only a specific subset of the objects that satisfy the atomic type specifier is designated. Use of such type specifiers may enable the system to represent or access objects more efficiently.
Many of these lists allow arguments to be unspecified. An unspecified argument is denoted by *. Unspecified arguments occurring at the end of a type specifier list may be omitted entirely. If all arguments are omitted, the type specifier name itself may be used (instead of a list).

## Logical Combinations of Type Specifiers

The logical operators and, or, and not may be used to define type specifiers as logical combinations of other type specifiers.

The type specifier (not typespec) denotes the set of all objects that are not of the specified type.

The type specifier (and $\{\text { typespec }\}^{*}$ ) denotes the set of all objects that are members of all of the specified types.
The type specifier (or $\{\text { typespec }\}^{*}$ ) denotes the set of all objects that are members of at least one of the specified types.

## Type Specifiers for Array Subtypes

There are several ways of specifying subtypes of arrays.
The type specifier (array typespec dimensions) denotes the set of arrays that have the given dimensions and whose elements are of the specified type. The dimensions argument may be either an integer or a list. If the dimensions argument is a nonnegative integer, it indicates the number of dimensions of the array. If it is a list, the number of elements implicitly indicates the number of dimensions of the array; the elements of the list indicate the length of each dimension. Any of the arguments may be unspecified.

The type specifier (simple-array typespec dimensions) is identical to (array typespec dimensions) except that it designates a set of simple arrays. A simple array is an array that is not displaced to another array, that has no fill pointer, and whose size cannot be dynamically adjusted.

The type specifier (vector element-type size) designates the set of one-dimensional arrays whose elements are of the specified type and whose lengths are of the given size. The size argument is a nonnegative integer or is unspecified.

The type specifier (simple-vector size) is identical to (vector $t$ size) except that it designates a set of simple vectors. A simple vector is a vector that is not displaced to another array, that has no fill pointer, and whose size cannot be dynamically adjusted.

Vectors whose elements are restricted to string characters or bits are termed strings and bit vectors respectively.

The type specifier (string size) is an abbreviation for (array string-char (size)). Likewise, (simple-string size) is an abbreviation for (simple-array string-char (size)).

The type specifier (bit-vector size) is an abbreviation for (array bit (size)), and (simple-bit-vector size) is an abbreviation for (simple-array bit (size)).

## Type Specifiers for Numerical Subranges

Numerical subrange types may also be denoted by the type specifiers.
The type specifier (integer integer-limit integer-limit) denotes the set of integers in the given range. Either argument may be specified as an integer, a list of an integer, or *. An integer argument specifies an inclusive limit; a list argument specifies an exclusive limit; and $*$ means that there is no limit on the value. The type (integer 01 ) is equivalent to the type bit.

The type specifier (mod integer) denotes the set of nonnegative integers whose values are less than integer. It is equivalent to (integer 0 (integer)).

The type specifier (signed-byte size) denotes the set of integers that can be represented in two's complement format in a byte of size bits or less. The type (signed-byte *) is equivalent to integer.
The type specifier (unsigned-byte size) denotes the set of nonnegative integers that can be represented in a byte of size bits or less. The type specifier (unsigned-byte *) is equivalent to (integer 0 *).

The type specifier (fixnum fixnum-limit fixnum-limit) is like (integer integer-limit integer-limit) except it denotes fixnums in the given range. The arguments must be fixnums, lists of fixnums, or unspecified.

The type specifier (rational rational-limit rational-limit) denotes the set of rational numbers in the given range. Either argument may be specified as a rational, a list of a rational, or *. A rational argument denotes an inclusive limit; a list argument denotes an exclusive limit; and * means that there is no limit on the value.

The type specifiers (float float-limit float-limit), (short-float short-float-limit short-float-limit), (single-float single-float-limit single-float-limit), (double-float double-float-limit double-float-limit), and (long-float long-float-limit long-float-limit) denote subranges of floating-point numbers of the given types. Either argument may be specified as a floating-point number, a list of a floating-point number, or *. A floating-point number argument denotes an inclusive limit; a list argument denotes an exclusive limit; and * means that there is no limit on the value. The arguments must be of the appropriate floating-point format. In Sun Common Lisp, all floating-point numbers are represented in single-float format.

The type specifier (complex typespec) denotes the set of complex numbers whose real and imaginary parts are of the given type.

## Type Specifiers for Functions

The type specifier (function arg-typespec-list value-typespec) is used in declaring functions. It denotes the set of functions that accept arguments of the given types and produce results that belong to the specified value type. The function type specifier is not acceptable to typep.

## Categories of Operations

This section groups operations on type specifiers according to functionality.

## Defining and Manipulating Types

| coerce | deftype |
| :--- | :--- |

These functions define type specifiers and manipulate the types of objects.

## Discriminating Among Types

| subtypep <br> typep | type-of <br> commonp |
| :--- | :--- |

These functions discriminate among types.

## coerce

Purpose: The function coerce is used to convert an object from one data type to another; the resulting object is returned. If such a coercion is not possible, an error is signaled. If it is already of the required result-type, the original object is returned.
The coercions listed below are the only ones that are possible.
Syntax: coerce object result-type
[Function]
Remarks: The following conversions are performed by coerce.
A sequence type may be converted to any other sequence type, provided that the resulting sequence is of a type that is compatible with the types of the elements of the original sequence. Elements of the new sequence will be eql to corresponding elements of the original sequence.

Certain objects may be converted to characters: strings of length 1 , symbols whose print names are of length 1, and nonnegative integers $n$ for which (int-char $n$ ) is defined. Coercing a string of length 1 results in the character contained in that string. Coercing a symbol whose print name is of length 1 results in the character contained in that print name string. Coercing a nonnegative integer for which (int-char $n$ ) is defined results in the character defined by (int-char $n$ ).
Any number may be converted to a complex number.
Any noncomplex number may be converted to a floating-point number.
Any object may be converted to type $t$.

```
Examples: > (setq *print-array* t)
    T
    > (coerce '(a b c) 'vector)
    #(A B C)
    > (coerce 'a 'character)
    #\A
    > (coerce 4.56 'complex)
    #C(4.56 0.0)
    > (coerce (cons 1 2) t)
    (1 . 2)
```

| See Also: | rational |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | rationalize |
|  | char-code |
|  | char-int |

## commonp

Purpose: The predicate commonp is true if its argument is a member of any standard Common Lisp data type; otherwise it is false.

| Syntax: | commonp object | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Examples: | $>$ (commonp *query-io*) |  |
|  | $T$ |  |
|  | $>$ |  |
|  | $T($ commonp nil) |  |
|  | $>($ commonp (expt 2130$))$ |  |
|  | $T$ |  |

## deftype

Purpose: The deftype macro is used to define a name for a new type specifier.
The deftype macro is like the defmacro macro in that the form arguments of its body constitute an expansion function for the type specifier definition.

The name of the new type specifier is returned as the value of the deftype form.
Syntax: deftype name lambda-list $\{\text { declaration } \mid \text { documentation }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}$ [Macro]
Remarks: The lambda list may contain \&optional and \&rest keywords.
If no initform is specified for an \&optional lambda-list argument, the default value * is used.

If the type name is used as an atomic type specifier, it is treated as a list with no arguments.

A documentation string may be attached to the name of the type by use of the optional documentation argument; the documentation type for this string is type.

Examples: > (deftype modd2 (koptional (limit 2)) (integer 0 , limit)) MODD2
> (typep 0 '(modd2))
T
> (typep 3 '(modd2))
NIL
> (typep 3 '(modd2 5))
T
See Also: defmacro

## subtypep

Purpose: The function subtypep compares two type specifiers. It returns two values. If type 1 is definitely a subtype of type2, then true and true are returned. If type 1 is definitely not a subtype of type2, then false and true are returned. In all other cases, false and false are the values returned.

Syntax:
Remarks: Type arguments of subtypep must be type specifiers that are acceptable to typep.
The type type1 may be a proper subtype of type 2 .
Examples: > (subtypep 'compiled-function 'function)
T
T
> (subtypep 'integer 'string)
NIL
INTEGER
> (subtypep '(satisfies foo) nil)
NIL
NIL

## type-of

Purpose: The function type-of returns a type of which its object argument is a member.

## Syntax: type-of object

Remarks: If the object is an instance of a structure created by the use of the defstruct construct, type-of returns the type name for the structure. In all other instances, type-of is probably useful only for debugging purposes. The action of type-of can be implementation dependent.

```
Examples: > (type-of 'a)
SYMBOL
    > (type-of "abc")
    SIMPLE-STRING
    >(type-of '(1.2))
    CONS
    > (type-of #c(0 1))
    COMPLEX
    > (defstruct foo x y z)
    FOO
    > (type-of (make-foo))
    FOO
```

See Also: typep
typecase
defstruct

## typep

Purpose: The predicate typep tests an object for membership in a particular data type.
Syntax: typep object type-specifier [Function]

Remarks: The type-specifier argument may be any type specifier except function, values, or a list whose first element is either of these.

```
Examples: > (typep 12 'integer)
    T
    (typep nil t)
    T
    (typep nil nil)
    NIL
    >(typep 1 '(mod 2))
    T
```


## Chapter 4. Program Structure

## Chapter 4. Program Structure

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## About Program Structure

Common Lisp programs are built from forms. A form is any data object that can be evaluated to produce values and, possibly, side effects. In particular, certain forms call functions to perform computations upon other forms. Some of these forms also define functions. Not all data objects can be evaluated; hence not all data objects are valid forms.

A function is a data object that performs computations upon forms. When a function is called, the function's arguments are bound to values, and the forms contained within the function body are evaluated in the context of these bindings. Normally functions also return one or more values.

## Forms

There are five basic categories of forms: self-evaluating forms, variables, special forms, macro calls, and function calls.

## Self-evaluating Forms

Self-evaluating forms are forms that evaluate to themselves. The value of a selfevaluating form is that object itself. The following are self-evaluating forms: numbers, characters, strings, bit vectors, keywords, $t$, and nil. The predicate constantp is true of any self-evaluating form.

## Variables

Variables provide symbolic references to the objects of a Lisp form. Variables can be either lexical or special, depending on the program context.
A variable is an association of an identifier with a location. The location is the cell or cells where the value associated with the variable is stored. The association between the variable name and the location is termed a binding. Depending on the type of binding that is current for the given identifier, this location may be a register, a stack location, or some other memory location. In particular, for certain types of variables, it may be the value cell of a symbol.
Bindings may be either lexical or dynamic. Correspondingly, a given variable is either a lexical or a dynamic variable, depending on the program context. Dynamic variables are also called special variables.
The scope of a binding is that portion of a program in which the binding is in effect. The scope of a variable thus determines when and where the variable may be referenced.
A lexical variable is a variable whose scope is lexical or textual. That is, the variable may be accessed only by expressions that lie textually within the same construct in which the variable was established. Lexical variables are created by lambda expressions, let forms, function definitions, and a number of other basic forms. The control structures that create lexical variables are discussed in the chapter "Control Structure."

A special variable consists of the binding of an identifier to the value cell of a symbol. This binding may temporarily alter the value of the symbol. Variables created by let and similar constructs may be declared special. The scope of a special variable is dynamic. This means that until the construct that establishes the variable binding terminates, references to the variable name access the special variable, even though such references may not be textually within the scope of the establishing construct. The declaration of special variables is discussed in the chapter "Declarations."

When new variable bindings are created, existing variable bindings may be shadowed. Shadowing occurs when a name or identifier that is meaningful at a given point is re-used there for a different item. In this case, the newly created item shadows the older item, causing references to the common name to refer to the new item.

The context of bindings that are visible at a given point in a program is termed the environment. The lexical environment consists of those lexical bindings that are visible at a particular point in the program, as determined by the structure of the program text. The lexical environment of a top-level form is termed the null lexical environment. This environment has no lexical bindings. The dynamic environment consists of those dynamic bindings that are visible at a particular point during program execution, as determined by the dynamic execution of the program. The dynamic environment is also referred to as the global environment.

## Special Forms

A special form is a list form whose first element is one of a limited set of symbols. No new special forms may be defined by the user.

Special forms are processed in a special manner by the evaluator and the compiler. Special evaluation rules are invoked for these forms.

Like functions and macros, special forms may return one or more values or cause nonlocal exits.

The following table lists all of the Common Lisp symbols that have definitions as special forms.

| block | if | progy |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| catch | labels | quote |
| compiler-let | let | return-from |
| declare | let | setq |
| eval-when | macrolet | tagbody |
| flet | multiple-value-call | the |
| function | multiple-value-prog1 | throw |
| go | progn | unwind-protect |

Figure 4-1. Common Lisp Special Forms

## Macros

A macro call is a list form whose first element is the name of a macro. A macro call returns a Lisp expression to be evaluated in place of the macro call. Macros thus provide a text replacement facility. They enable the user to write forms that do not obey the usual rules for evaluation. Macros are discussed in the chapter "Macros."

## Function Calls

A function call is a list form whose first element is either the name of a function or an anonymous function definition (lambda expression). The remaining elements of the list form are considered to be the arguments to the function. The arguments are evaluated as forms in the order in which they occur, and the function is invoked upon them. This process is called applying the function to the arguments.
The actual function arguments are all evaluated before the function is invoked, and the formal function parameters are bound to the resulting values. (If any function argument results in more than one value, only the first of these values is used.) If the resulting values are pointers to objects and the function modifies its arguments, the original data objects may be modified as a side effect of the function call.

The function invocation may result in one or more values, or it may cause a nonlocal exit. The result of the function call form is the result returned by the function.

## Functions

A function may be specified in a function call form in one of two ways: by the function name or by a lambda expression.

## Named Functions

A named function is a function object to which a name has been given either by use of the defun macro or by the flet or labels special form. The use of a name to name a function is completely independent of any association it may have as a variable identifier.

## Lambda Expressions

A lambda expression defines an anonymous function.
A lambda expression acts just like a function, but it is not associated with a function name.

The syntax for lambda expressions is the following:
(lambda lambda-list $\{\text { declaration } \mid \text { documentation }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}$ )

```
lambda-list::= (\{var\}*
    [\&optional \(\left.\{\text { var | (var [initform [supplied-p-parameter] ]) }\}^{*}\right]\)
    [krest var]
    [kkey \(\{\operatorname{var} \mid(\{\operatorname{var} \mid(\) keyword var \()\}\) [initform [supplied-p-parameter] ]) \}*
            [kallow-other-keys] ]
    [kaux \(\left.\left.\{\operatorname{var} \mid(\text { var }[\text { initform }])\}^{*}\right]\right)\)
```


## Lambda Lists

Lambda lists are used in the specification of named functions and lambda expressions. The lambda list specifies the parameters of the function. When the function is applied to arguments, the parameters specified in the lambda list are bound to actual argument values, and the forms in the body of the lambda expression or function are executed in the context of these bindings.

- All required parameters must be specified first. All parameters preceding the first lambda list keyword are required parameters. They are bound to actual argument values in the order in which they occur. There must be at least as many actual argument forms as there are required parameters. If no lambda list keywords are specified, there must be exactly as many actual arguments as parameters.
- Any optional parameters must be specified next. They are preceded by the lambda list keyword \&optional. If optional parameters are specified, they are bound in order to the corresponding remaining values in the argument list. If there are no remaining arguments at any point in the processing of optional parameters, then any remaining optional parameter is bound to the value that results from the evaluation of its associated initform, if the latter is given, or to nil, if not. A supplied-p-parameter variable may be used in conjunction with an initform. Its purpose is to indicate whether an actual argument value was supplied. It is bound to true if an actual argument was supplied; otherwise (if the initform was evaluated) it is bound to nil.
- One rest parameter may be specified next. It is preceded by the \&rest lambda list keyword. If a rest parameter has been specified, it is bound to a list consisting of all the actual arguments that have not yet been processed. If no arguments remain, the rest parameter is bound to nil.
- The use of the lambda list keyword \&key and keyword parameter specifiers allows keyword arguments to be used in function calls. If any keyword parameters are to appear in the function call, they must be preceded by \&key in the lambda list. These keyword parameters may be followed by the lambda list keyword \&allow-other-keys.

A keyword parameter may be specified in one of three ways. These forms differ in whether the name for the keyword to be used in the actual argument list is specified explicitly or implicitly and whether an initial value is to be used if such a keyword argument is not given.
If a variable, var, specifies the keyword parameter, the keyword argument to be used in the argument list consists of a keyword (in the keyword package) with the same name as var. If such a keyword does not appear in the argument list, var is bound to nil.
If the form (var [initform [supplied-p-parameter]]) specifies the keyword parameter, the keyword argument to be used is specified in the same way as in the simpler case discussed above. This construct, however, allows the variable to be bound to an initial value if the keyword is not specified in the argument list. The supplied-p-parameter may be used to test whether such an argument value was given.

The form ((keyword var) [initform [supplied-p-parameter]]) allows the explicit specification of the argument list keyword that is associated with var. It also allows the variable to be bound to an initial value if the keyword is not specified in the argument list.
There must be an even number of actual keyword arguments. Keyword arguments are considered to occur in pairs. The first argument in the pair is a keyword; the second is the value to which the corresponding keyword parameter is to be bound. The keyword-value pairs may occur in any order in the argument list; they are not constrained by the order of the keyword parameters in the lambda list. If a given keyword argument is specified more than once, however, only the first keyword-value pair is used in the binding of the keyword parameter. If a rest parameter has been
specified, the arguments used in processing keyword parameters are the same as those used in processing the rest parameter.

- The \&allow-other-keys lambda list keyword is used to specify that the argument list may contain a keyword that does not correspond to a lambda list keyword parameter. Otherwise it is an error if such an argument pair occurs unless the argument list contains a keyword-value pair whose key is :allow-other-keys and whose value is non-nil. The \&rest keyword parameter may be used to access values specified by means of the \&allow-other-keys and :allow-other-keys constructs.
It is an error if there are remaining arguments and neither a rest parameter nor a keyword parameter has been specified.
- Finally, the \&aux lambda list keyword may be used to specify auxiliary variables. These serve as local variables within the lambda expression or function. Auxiliary variables are not bound to argument list values. An auxiliary variable may be bound within the lambda expression itself or by specifying a corresponding initform in the lambda list.

Since the lambda list elements are processed in the order in which they occur, any initform may reference a parameter variable (including a supplied-p-parameter variable) that is bound earlier in the processing of the lambda list.
After the lambda list parameters are bound to actual argument values, the forms contained in the body of the lambda expression or function are evaluated in sequence in the context of these bindings. The result returned by the lambda expression or function is the result of the last form evaluated. If no forms are evaluated, nil is returned.
The variable bindings in effect before the function invocation are restored when the function exits.

## Lexical Closures

A closure is a function along with a binding context. When a function or lambda expression is created, it is created within a context of lexical bindings. Creating a lexical closure means retaining this lexical environment of bindings through the lifetime of the function (closure) object. The function is thus able to reference these same bindings in different invocation contexts. With closures it is thus possible to create objects that retain separate contexts that can be manipulated.

The following example shows a function that returns a lexical closure in which the variable $x$ is bound to 20 . When the closure function is itself invoked, this binding is referenced.

```
> (defun foo ()
    (let ((x nil) (fn nil))
        (setq fn #'(lambda (y) (setq x (cons x y))))
        (setq x 20)
        fn))
F00
> (funcall (foo) 1)
(20 . 1)
```

Functions that are intended to generate a series of new values for consumption by other functions are called generators. The following example shows a generator that is written as a lexical closure. It generates the positive integers. Each time it is called, it produces a new integer in the series. The internal state of the generator is maintained in the lexical closure.

```
> (setq closure (let ((x 0)) #'(lambda () (incf x) x)))
#<Interpreted-Function (LAMBDA NIL (INCF X) X) 40FC97>
> (funcall closure)
1
> (funcall closure)
2
> (funcall clōsūxe)
3
```


## Categories of Operations

This section groups operations related to program structure according to functionality.

## Data Type Predicates

| functionp | compiled-function-p |
| :--- | :--- |

These predicates determine whether an object is a function object.

## Declaring Global Variables and Named Constants

```
defconstant defvar
defparameter
```

These constructs proclaim special variables and constants.

## Function Definition

```
defun
define-function
*redefinition-action*
```

lambda-list-keywords lambda-parameters-limit

``` *redefinition-action*
```

These constructs are used in defining functions.

## Function Calls

apply
call-arguments-limit
funcall

These constructs are used in applying functions to arguments.

## Accessing Variable and Function Bindings

| symbol-value | makunbound |
| :--- | :--- |
| symbol-function | fmakunbound |
| boundp | function |
| fboundp | special-form-p <br> constantp |

These operations access variable and function bindings.

## Controlling Evaluation

| quote | eval-when |
| :--- | :--- |

These functions affect the evaluation process.

## Identity Operator

## identity

This function returns its argument unchanged.

## apply

Purpose: The function apply applies its function argument to a list of arguments.
The function argument must be a function object. It may be a compiled code object, a lambda expression, or a symbol that has a global definition as a function (not a macro or special form).

Syntax: apply function arg \&rest more-args
[Function]
Remarks: The last argument specified must be a list. It is appended to a list of all the other arguments except function.

If the function uses keyword arguments, the keywords must also be given in the argument list.

The macro setf may be used with apply if the function argument is a function that is acceptable to setf.

Examples: > (apply \#'+ 123 '(4 5 6))
21
> (apply \#' (lambda (x y z) (+ x (- y z ) )) '(123))
0
See Also: funcall
function

## boundp

Purpose: The predicate boundp is true if the dynamic variable associated with its symbol argument has a value; otherwise it is false.

| Syntax: | boundp symbol | [Function] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Examples: | > (setq sym 1) |  |
|  |  |  |
|  | > (boundp 'sym) |  |
|  |  |  |
|  | > (makunbound 'sym) |  |
|  | SYM |  |
|  | > (boundp 'sym) |  |
|  | NIL |  |
|  | > (let ( sym 2)) (boundp 'sym) ) |  |
|  | NIL |  |
| See Also: | set |  |
|  | setq |  |
|  | symbol-value |  |
|  | makunbound |  |

## call-arguments-limit

Purpose: The constant call-arguments-limit defines the upper exclusive bound on the number of arguments that may be passed to any Common Lisp function.
The value of call-arguments-limit in Sun Common Lisp is $2^{9}$.
Syntax: call-arguments-limit [Constant]
Examples: > call-arguments-limit
512
See Also: lambda-parameters-limit
multiple-values-limit

## compiled-function-p

| Purpose: | The predicate compiled-function-p is true if its argument is a compiled code <br> object; otherwise it is false. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Syntax: | compiled-function-p object |
| Examples: | $>$ (compiled-function-p (symbol-function 'append)) |
|  | T |
|  | $>$ (compiled-function-p \#' (lambda (x) $x)$ ) |
|  | NIL |

## constantp

Purpose: The predicate constantp is true if its argument is a constant; otherwise it is false. A constant is an object that always evaluates to the same value.

The following objects are constants: numbers, characters, strings, keywords, $t$, nil, bit vectors, symbols declared by means of defconstant, and lists whose first element is quote.

Syntax: constantp object [Function]
Examples: > (constantp 1)
$T$
> (constantp ''foo)
T
> (defconstant this-is-a-constant 'never-changing)
this-IS-A-CONSTANT
> (constantp 'this-is-a-constant)
T
> (constantp "foo")
T
See Also: defconstant

## defconstant

Purpose: The defconstant macro is used to proclaim a special variable. The variable is initialized to the result of evaluating the initial-value argument. Once such a variable has been defined using defconstant, its value is constant and may not be changed by assignment or binding.

The defconstant macro returns name as its result.
Syntax: defconstant name initial-value [documentation]
[Macro]
Remarks: The name argument is a symbol; it is not evaluated.
No special binding of the variable may already exist when defconstant is called.
Note that a constant defined by defconstant may be changed with defconstant, but functions compiled using the old value may be incorrect.

A documentation string may be attached to the name of the global variable by the optional documentation argument; the documentation type for this string is variable.

Examples: > (defconstant this-is-a-constant 'never-changing "for a test") this-IS-A-CONSTANT
> this-is-a-constant
NEVER-CHANGING
> (documentation 'this-is-a-constant 'variable)
"for a test"
> (constantp 'this-is-a-constant)
T

See Also: defvar
defparameter
proclaim
documentation

## define-function

Purpose: The function define-function is used by the macro defun to do the actual defining of a new function. It replaces the function cell of the named symbol with the specified function object.

If the function is currently traced, it remains traced, but with the new definition.
Syntax: define-function name function
[Function]
Remarks: The name argument is a symbol.
The function define-function is an extension to Common Lisp.
Examples: > (defun foo () 101)
FOO
$>$ (foo)
101
> (define-function 'foo \#'+)
F00
$>$ (foo)
0
> (foo 123 )
6
> (define-function 'foo \#'(lambda () 202))
FOO
$>$ (foo)
202
See Also: defun
symbol-function
*redefinition-action*

## defparameter

Purpose: The defparameter macro is used to proclaim a special variable. The variable is initialized to the result of evaluating the initial-value argument.

The defparameter macro returns name as its result.
Syntax: defparameter name initial-value [documentation] [Macro]
Remarks: The name argument is a symbol; it is not evaluated.
A documentation string may be attached to the name of the global variable by the optional documentation argument; the documentation type for this string is variable.

Examples: > (defparameter *p* 1)
*P*
> *p*
1
> (constantp '*p*)
NIL
$>$ (setq *p* 2)
2
> (defparameter *p* 3)
*P*
> *p*
3
See Also: defvar
defconstant
proclaim
documentation

## defun

| Purpose: | The defun macro is used to define a new function. |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | The name argument of defun must be a symbol; it is not evaluated. The function defun causes a global function definition to be attached to the symbol name as the contents of the symbol's function cell. This function definition is given by the expression that follows: <br> (lambda lambda-list $\{\text { declaration } \mid \text { documentation }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}$ ) |
|  | The name of the new function is returned as the value of the defun form. |
|  | The body of the function consists of the forms specified by the form arguments; they are executed in order when the function is called. |
|  | The function body is enclosed in a block construct. This block bears the same name as the function itself. Thus the return-from construct may be used to cause an exit from the function as well as the block. |
| Syntax: | defun name lambda-list $\left\{\right.$ declaration $\mid$ documentation ${ }^{*}$ \{form ${ }^{*}$ [Macro] |
| Remarks: | The definition of functions and the syntax of lambda lists are discussed in the section "Functions." |
|  | The function is defined in the lexical environment in which the defun form is executed. Normally, the defun macro occurs as a top-level form. If it is a top-level form, the null lexical environment is used. |
|  | A documentation string may be attached to the name of the function by use of the optional documentation argument; the documentation type for this string is function. |
|  | The defun macro may be used to redefine a function or to replace a macro definition with a function definition. The Common Lisp special forms may not be redefined. |
| Examples: | ```> (defun ex (a b koptional c (d 66) &rest keys &key test (start 0)) (list a b c d keys test start))``` |
|  |  |
|  | (12 NIL 66 NIL NIL 0) |
|  | > (ex 1234 : test 'equal :start 50) |
|  | (1234 (:TEST EQUAL : START 50) EQUAL 50) |
|  | > (ex : test 1 : start 2) |

## defun

See Also: $\begin{array}{ll}\text { flet } \\ & \text { labels }\end{array}$
block
return-from
documentation

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## defvar

Purpose: The defvar macro is used to proclaim a special variable.
If an initial-value argument is specified, the variable is initialized to the result of evaluating initial-value. If the variable already has a value, this value is not changed and initial-value is not evaluated.

The defvar macro returns name as its result.
Syntax: defvar name [initial-value [documentation]]
Remarks: The name argument is a symbol; it is not evaluated.
A documentation string may be attached to the name of the global variable by use of the optional documentation argument; the documentation type for this string is variable.

Examples: > (defvar *v* 'global)
*V*
> *v*
GLOBAL
> (let ( $\left(*{ }^{*} * \cdot\right.$ local))
(symbol-value '*v*))
LOCAL
> (setq should-stay-nil nil)
NIL
> (defvar *v* (setq should-stay-nil t ))
*V*
> *v*
GLOBAL
> should-stay-nil
NIL
See Also: defparameter proclaim
documentation

## eval-when

Purpose: The special form eval-when is used to specify when a particular body of code is to be executed.
This time is defined by the situation arguments. Each situation argument must be either compile, load, or eval.

If eval is specified, the evaluator evaluates the form arguments at execution time. If compile is specified, the compiler evaluates the form arguments at compilation time. If load is specified and the file containing the eval-when is compiled, then the forms are compiled; they are executed when the output file produced by the compiler is loaded.

The form arguments are executed in order. The value of the last form evaluated is returned as the result of eval-when. If no forms are executed, eval-when returns nil.

Syntax: eval-when (\{situation $\}^{*}$ ) $\{\text { form }\}^{*}$
[Special Form]
Examples: > (setq foo 3)
3
> (eval-when (compile) (setq foo 2))
NIL
$>$ foo
3
> (eval-when (eval) (setq foo 2))
2
> foo
2

## fboundp

Purpose: The predicate fboundp is true if its symbol argument has an associated global function definition; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: fboundp symbol [Function]
Remarks: The function definition may be that of a function, a macro, or a special form.
Examples: > (defun foo (x) $x$ )
F00
$>$ (fboundp 'foo)
$T$
> (fmakunbound 'foo)
FOO
> (fboundp 'foo)
NIL
> (flet ((foo \#'(lambda (x) x)))
(fboundp 'foo))
NIL
See Also: symbol-function
fmakunbound

## fmakunbound



See Also: fboundp

## funcall

Purpose: The function funcall applies its function argument to the specified arguments. The function argument must be a function object. It may be a compiled code object, a lambda expression, or a symbol that has a global definition as a function (not a macro or special form).

Syntax: funcall function \&rest args [Function]
Examples: > (funcall \#'+ 12 3)
6
(funcall 'car '(12ll)
1
(funcall 'position 1 '(12 23 1) :start 1)
4
> (funcall \#'(lambda () 101)) 101

See Also: apply
function

## function

Purpose: The special form function returns the function object associated with its argument. If the function argument is a symbol, this object is the function definition that is associated with the symbol's function cell. If function is a lambda expression, function returns a lexical closure for that lambda expression.

Syntax: function function [Special Form]
Remarks: The notation \#'function may be used as an abbreviation for (function function). The function argument is not evaluated.

```
Examples: > (defun foo () 'top-level)
FOO
> (funcall (function foo))
TOP-LEVEL
> (flet ((foo ()'shadow))
    (funcall (function foo)))
SHADOW
> (eq (function foo) #'foo)
T
> (eq (function foo) (symbol-function 'foo))
T
> (flet ((foo () 'shadow))
    (eq (function foo) (symbol-function 'foo)))
NIL
```


## functionp

Purpose: The predicate functionp is true if its argument is of a form that is appropriate for applying to arguments, as with the funcall or apply function; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: functionp object [Function]
Remarks: The predicate functionp is true of symbols, any list whose first element is lambda, values returned by function, and values returned by compile when its first argument is nil.

```
Examples: > (functionp 'sss)
T
(functionp (symbol-function 'append))
T
> (functionp :test)
T
> (functionp nil)
T
> (functionp 12)
NIL
```


## identity



## lambda-list-keywords

Purpose: The constant lambda-list-keywords defines the lambda list keywords that are available for use in lambda expressions, function definitions, and macro definitions. Its value is a list. This list contains the symbols \&optional, \&rest, \&key, \&aux, \&allow-other-keys, \&body, \&whole, and \&environment.

Syntax: lambda-list-keywords [Constant]
Remarks: The lambda list keywords \&body, \&whole, and \&environment may be used only in macro definitions.
The use of lambda list keywords in function definitions is discussed in the section "Functions." The use of lambda list keywords in macro definitions is discussed in the chapter "Macros."

Examples: > lambda-list-keywords (\&OPTIONAL \&REST \&KEY \&AUX \&ALLOW-OTHER-KEYS \&BODY \&WHOLE \&ENVIRONMENT)

## lambda-parameters-limit

Purpose: The constant lambda-parameters-limit defines the upper exclusive bound on the number of distinct parameter names in a lambda list.
The value of lambda-parameters-limit in Sun Common Lisp is $2^{9}$.
Syntax: lambda-parameters-limit
[Constant]
Examples: > lambda-parameters-limit
512
See Also: call-arguments-limit

## makunbound

Purpose: The function makunbound causes the dynamic variable associated with its symbol argument to be unbound (have no value). It returns symbol as its result.

Syntax: makunbound symbol
[Function]
Examples: > (setq foo 1 )
1
> (boundp 'foo)
$T$
> (makunbound 'foo)
FOO
> (boundp 'foo) NIL

See Also: boundp

## quote

Purpose: The special form quote returns its object argument. The object is not evaluated. The special form quote is used when it is desirable not to evaluate an object or form, but rather to manipulate it as a constant.

Syntax: quote object
[Special Form]
Remarks: The single-quote character may be used as an abbreviation for quote. The construct 'object is equivalent to (quote object).

Examples: > (setq a 1 )
1
> (quote (setq a 1 )) (SETQ A 1)
$>a$
1
$>$ 'a
A
>'"a
(quote A)

## *redefinition-action*

Purpose: The global variable *redefinition-action* is only used in the functions definefunction and define-macro. It is used to specify what action will be taken when a redefinition occurs.

If *redefinition-action* is set to :warn, the user is warned when a function or macro is redefined. If the variable is set to :query, the user is asked whether he wishes to proceed with the redefinition. If *redefinition-action* is set to any other value, no warning is given.
The default value of *redefinition-action* is :warn.
Syntax: *redefinition-action*
Remarks: The variable *redefinition-action* is an extension to Common Lisp.

```
Examples: > *redefinition-action*
:WARN
> (defun foo ())
FOO
> (defmacro bar ())
BAR
> (defun foo ())
;;; Warning: Redefining F00
FOO
> (defmacro bar ())
;;; Warning: Redefining BAR
BAR
> (define-function 'foo #'car)
;;; Warning: Redefining F00
F0O
> (define-macro 'bar #'do)
;;; Warning: Redefining BAR
BAR
> (let ((*redefinition-action* :quiet))
    (defun foo()))
F00
> (let ((*redefinition-action* :quiet))
    (define-macro 'bar #'do))
BAR
> (setq *redefinition-action* :quiet)
:QUIET
>(defun foo())
FOO
> (defmacro bar ())
BAR
```


## *redefinition-action*

```
    > (define-function 'foo #'car)
    F00
    > (define-macro 'bar #'do)
    BAR
define-function
define-macro
```

See Also:

## special-form-p

Purpose: The predicate special-form-p is true if its symbol argument has an associated global function definition that is a special form; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: special-form-p symbol [Function]
Examples: > (special-form-p 'if)
$T$
> (special-form-p 'car)
NIL
> (special-form-p 1)
NIL

## symbol-function

Purpose: The function symbol-function returns the contents of the function cell named by its symbol argument. This function definition may be a function, a special form, or a macro. An error is signaled by symbol-function if the function definition does not exist.

Syntax: symbol-function symbol
[Function]
Remarks: The existence of a function definition associated with a symbol may be tested with fboundp.

The macro setf may be used with symbol-function to replace the contents of the function cell.

Examples: > (defun foo () "this function returns this string") F00
> (funcall (symbol-function 'foo))
"this function returns this string"
> (setf (symbol-function'foo)
\#'(lambda () "this function is a replacement"))
\#<Interpreted-Function (LAMBDA NIL "this function is a replacement") 3B85AF> > (funcali (symboi-function 'foo))
"this function is a replacement"
See Also: fboundp

## symbol-value

Purpose: The function symbol-value returns the contents of the value cell of the variable associated with its symbol argument. An error is signaled if this variable is unbound.

The function symbol-value may also be applied to named constants and keywords. Applying symbol-value to a keyword returns that keyword.

Syntax: symbol-value symbol
[Function]
Remarks: The predicate boundp may be used to test the existence of a value associated with a symbol.
The macro setf may be used with symbol-value to replace the contents of the value cell.

Examples: > (setq a 1 )
1
> (symbol-value 'a)
1
> (let ((a 2)) (symbol-value 'a))
1 ;only the global value is given by symbol-value
> (let ((a 2))
(setf (symbol-value 'a) 3)
a)

2
> a
3
> (symbol-value 'a)
3
See Also: boundp
set
setq

## Chapter 5. Control Structure

## Chapter 5. Control Structure

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## About Control Structure

Common Lisp provides many different constructs for controlling the flow of program execution and evaluation. This collection of functions, macros, and special forms encourages the design of clear, understandable programs.

The available programming constructs include assignment to lexical, dynamic, and generalized variables; various forms of iteration; conditionals; blocks; function calls; nonlocal transfers and exits; and function returns with multiple values.

## Assignment Constructs

Common Lisp provides both simple and generalized assignment constructs.

## Simple Assignment

The set, setq, and psetq constructs are used to alter the values of variables. The set function is used to alter the value of a dynamic variable. The setq and psetq forms may be used to assign values to both lexical and dynamic variables.

## Generalized Variables

A simple variable is a binding of an identifier with a location. It is accessed by name. Common Lisp also provides a more general notion of variable. A generalized variable is a binding of an accessing formula with a location.

Like simple variables, generalized variables can be updated. The syntax for updating generalized variables requires, in place of the variable name, a specification of the accessing formula for the variable.

In the syntactic descriptions of operations on generalized variables, this accessing formula is referred to as a place form. It may be any one of the following:

- The name of a lexical or dynamic variable.
- A call to a selector function created by means of defstruct.
- A call to any of the functions listed in Figure 5-1.
- A the type declaration.
- Calls to access forms defined by defsetf or define-setf-method.
- Calls to apply that also have special meaning to setf.
- A macro call that expands into one of these forms.

| symbol-value | aref | car | caaadr |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| symbol-function | svref | cdr | caadar |
| symbol-plist | get | caar | caaddr |
| macro-function | elt | cadr | cadaar |
| documentation | getf | cdar | cadadr |
| first | gethash | cddr | caddar |
| second | fill-pointer | caaar | cadddr |
| third | char | caadr | cdaaar |
| fourth | schar | cadar | cdaadr |
| fifth | bit | caddr | cdadar |
| sixth | sbit | cdaar | cdaddr |
| seventh | subseq | cdadr | cddaar |
| eighth | char-bit | cddar | cddadr |
| ninth | ldb | cdddr | cdddar |
| tenth | mask-field | caaaar | cddddr |
| nth | rest |  |  |

Figure 5-1. Table of Place Constructors
The macro setf takes a generalized place specifier and a value and stores the value in the specified location. It is intended to be used for all operations that need to update a piece of data. Using setf uniformly to update such data eliminates the need for numerous different functions to do updating on different types of data locations.

## Blocks and Sequencing

The forms progn, prog1, and prog2 provide the primitive sequencing constructs of Common Lisp. They cause a series of forms to be executed in the order in which they are listed as arguments.

The block special form acts in a similar way but allows a name to be associated with the series of forms. The execution of a block may be terminated by the use of the return and return-from constructs. The defun macro provides an implicit block around the body of the defined function. This block bears the same name as the funtion. The iteration forms loop, do, do*, dolist, and dotimes also provide implicit blocks.

The prog, prog*, progv, let, let*, and compiler-let constructs establish new variable bindings and execute a series of forms using these bindings. These constructs differ in the types of bindings they provide and in how the bindings are made. In addition, the prog and prog* constructs provide implicit tagbodies and thus allow for control transfer operations.

The flet, labels, and macrolet constructs establish new function definition bindings and execute a series of forms using these bindings.

## Iteration

Common Lisp provides several forms of iteration.
The loop construct provides a primitive indefinite iteration facility.
The do, do*, dolist, and dotimes constructs provide structured means of definite iteration. These forms all create bindings for iteration variables and provide for the execution of a series of forms within the context of these bindings. Explicit termination conditions may be specified for the iteration. The dolist construct is tailored for iterating over the elements of a list. The dotimes construct allows for iteration over a sequence of integers.

## Conditionals

Conditional control structures allow the execution of forms to be contingent on the results of evaluating other forms.

The if, when, and unless constructs allow for the execution of a form to be dependent on the results of another form. The cond construct is a generalization of if. It provides a multibranch if facility.
The various case and typecase forms provide for the selective execution of one group of forms out of a set of many such groups. The selection is made on the basis of the value or type of a key associated with the set.

## Control Transfer

The most common form of control transfer is the function call. Functions and the function call mechanism are discussed in the chapter "Program Structure."

A simple "goto" facility is provided by the go and tagbody constructs. The tagbody special form allows for control transfer within a body of code by means of tags, or statement labels. The go form is used to cause control to transfer to the statement labeled by the tag. The forms do, do*, dolist, dotimes, prog, and prog* all have implicit tagbodies. Tagbody tags have lexical scope. A go form may thus transfer control only to a tag in a lexically surrounding tagbody.

The return and return-from constructs provide for structured exits from blocks. They are used in conjunction with the block construct. Block names have lexical scope. A return or return-from form may transfer control only to the end of a lexically surrounding block.

The catch and throw facility provides a means of control transfer in which the destination is determined by the dynamic environment.
The unwind-protect construct guarantees that a series of cleanup forms will be executed before a nonlocal exit occurs.

## Multiple Values

Normally, a Lisp function returns a single value, although the single value might be a list or a vector of many objects. In certain cases, however, it is natural for a function to compute and return more than one value. Common Lisp provides a straightforward way of doing this.
Unless explicit requests are made both to return multiple values and to receive them, a function call supplies only a single value. If the function returns multiple values, but the caller expects only a single value, the result is the first value, and the remaining multiple values are discarded. If the function returns no values, but the caller expects a single value, the result is nil.
Many constructs that select a form to be returned will return multiple values if the selected form returns multiple values. These include progn and constructs where forms are executed in order. Constructs such as defun, defmacro, eval-when, progv, let, when, block and forms containing implicit blocks, catch, case, and typecase behave as if a progn had been wrapped around the series of forms that they execute.

Other forms that return any supplied multiple values are eval, apply, funcall, multiple-value-call, if, return, return-from, multiple-value-prog1, unwind-protect, and the. The macros and and or return multiple values only from the last subform. The macro cond returns multiple values unless the clause selected contains only a single form (the test itself). In that case, the single non-nil value of the test is returned.
Forms that always return only a single value include setq, prog1, and prog2.

## Categories of Operations

This section groups operations related to control structure according to functionality.

## Assignment

```
set shiftf
setq
psetq
setf
psetf
rotatef
define-modify-macro
defsetf
define-setf-method
get-setf-method
get-setf-method-multiple-
value
```

These constructs are used for assignment to simple variables and generalized variables.

## Sequencing

| block | prog |
| :--- | :--- |
| compiler-let | prog |
| flet | prog1 |
| labels | prog2 |
| let | progn |
| let | progv |
| macrolet |  |

These constructs enable a group of statements to be executed sequentially. Some of them provide for the introduction of new variable bindings.

## Iteration

| loop <br> do <br> do* | dolist <br> dotimes |
| :--- | :--- |

These constructs provide facilities for definite and indefinite iteration.

## Conditionals

| cond | ecase |
| :--- | :--- |
| if | ccase |
| when | typecase |
| unless | etypecase |
| case | ctypecase |

These conditional constructs allow selective execution of a form or groups of forms.

## Control Transfer

| go | catch |
| :--- | :--- |
| tagbody | throw |
| return |  |
| return-from | unwind-protect |

These constructs provide for local and nonlocal exits.

## Multiple Values

```
multiple-value-bind
multiple-value-call
multiple-value-list
multiple-value-prog1
```

multiple-value-setq multiple-values-limit
values
values-list

These constructs manipulate multiple values.

## block

Purpose: The block special form names and evaluates a series of forms. The forms are evaluated in the order in which they are given in the argument list. The result returned by block is the result returned by evaluating the last of the form arguments.

The execution of a block may be terminated by the use of return or return-from. In this case, the value returned is that specified by the return or return-from form.

If the last form of the block, a return form, or a return-from form returns multiple values, those multiple values are returned by block. If there are no form arguments, block returns nil.

Syntax: block name $\{\text { form }\}^{*}$
[Special Form]
Remarks: The name argument is a symbol; it is not evaluated. It has lexical scope.
Examples: > (block empty)
NIL
> (block foo 12 (return-from foo) 3 4)
NIL
> (block foo 12 (block bar 34 (return-from foo (values 56)) 78) 9 10)
5
6
See Also: return
return-from

## case

Purpose: The case macro allows the execution of a group of forms to be dependent on selection by a key match.

The keyform argument is evaluated and matched against the key arguments; the key arguments are not evaluated. If the keyform value matches a key, then the forms associated with that key are executed in order.

The case macro returns the value of the last form executed. If no key matches or the matching key has no associated forms, case returns nil.

Syntax: case keyform $\left\{\left(\left\{\left(\{k e y\}^{*}\right) \mid \text { key }\right\}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}$ [Macro]
Remarks: A given key may appear only once. Keys are compared using eql.
If only one key is associated with a group of forms, it is not necessary to include that key in a list unless the key is nil, $t$, otherwise, or a cons. If $t$ or otherwise is not enclosed in a list, it has special meaning to case; if nil is not enclosed in a list, it is treated as the empty list, not as a key.

Either the symbol $\mathbf{t}$ or the symbol otherwise may be used as the last key. If no other key match succeeds, the forms associated with the $t$ or otherwise key are executed.

Examples: > (dolist (k'(12 3 :four \#\v () t 'other))
(format t "~s "
(case k ( $(12$ ) 'clause1)
( 3 'clause2)
((nil) 'nilslot)
((:four \#\v) 'clause4)
( $(\mathrm{t})$ 'tslot)
(otherwise 'others))))
CLAUSE1 CLAUSE1 CLAUSE2 CLAUSE4 CLAUSE4 NILSLOT TSLOT OTHERS NIL

See Also: cond
ecase
ccase
typecase
etypecase
ctypecase

## catch

Purpose: The catch special form is used as the destination of a nonlocal control transfer by throw.

The tag argument is evaluated first. It serves as the name of the catch. The form arguments are then evaluated in order. If a throw occurs during the execution of one of the forms, control is transferred to the catch construct whose tag is eq to the tag argument of the throw. The results of the throw are returned as the results of the catch.

Catch tags have dynamic scope. If several catch tags match the tag argument of a throw, control is transferred to the most recently occurring such catch.

If the catch exits normally, the value or values returned by the last form are returned as the results of the catch. If no form arguments are specified, catch returns nil.

Syntax: catch tag $\{\text { form }\}^{*}$
[Special Form]
Remarks: Catch tags are compared using eq. Characters and numbers should therefore not be used as tags.

Examples: > (catch 'foo 12 (throw 'foo 3) 4)
3
> (catch 'foo 1234 )
4
> (defun throw-back (tag) (throw tag t)) THROW-BACK
> (catch 'foo (throw-back 'foo) 2)
T
> (catch 'foo (catch 'foo (throw-back 'foo) 2) 3)
3
See Also: throw

## compiler-let

Purpose: The compiler-let special form is used to create new variable bindings and to execute a series of forms that use these bindings. These variable bindings have lexical scope.
The value arguments are evaluated first, in the order in which they are given. The var arguments are then bound to the corresponding values in parallel. If no value is specified for a given var argument, that variable is bound to nil.

Unlike the variable bindings created by let, the bindings in compiler-let take effect during compilation instead of at run-time; no code is generated for them. The compiler-let construct is used for communication between macros.

If a compiler-let is evaluated by the Lisp interpreter, the effect is identical to that of a let whose variables are all declared special.

The form arguments are executed in order. The result returned by compiler-let is the value or values returned by the last form executed. If no form arguments are specified, compiler-let returns nil.

Syntax: compiler-let (\{var | (var value) $\}^{*}$ ) $\{\text { form }\}^{*}$
[Special Form]
Remarks: No declarations may be specified in a compiler-let.

```
Examples: > (defvar *collect-var* nil)
*COLLECT-VAR*
> (defmacro with-collecting (zbody body)
    (let ((var (gensym)))
            '(compiler-let ((*collect-var*',var))
                (let ((,var '()))
            ,Obody
            (mreverse ,var)))))
WITH-collecting
> (defmacro collect (value)
    (if *collect-var*
            '(push ,value ,*collect-var*)
            (error "COLLECT can only be used inside WITH-COLLECTING")))
cOLLECT
> (collect 1)
>>Error: COLLECT can only be used inside WITH-COLLECTING
IF:
Original code: (IF *COLLECT-VAR* # #)
```

:A Abort to Lisp Top Level
-> : a
Back to Lisp Top Level
> (with-collecting (collect 1) (collect 2) (collect 3))
(1 2 3)
See Also: let

## cond

Purpose: The cond macro allows the execution of a group of forms to be dependent on a test form.

The test arguments are evaluated one at a time in the order in which they are given in the argument list until a test is found that evaluates to a non-nil value.

The form arguments associated with this test are then evaluated in order. The cond returns immediately after the evaluation of the last of these forms. No additional test or associated form arguments are evaluated. The cond returns the results of the last form evaluated. If no forms were associated with the given test, cond returns the value of the test argument.
If none of the test arguments is non-nil, cond returns nil.
Syntax: cond $\left\{\left(\text { test }\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}$ [Macro]
Remarks: If a test succeeds and its associated form argument returns multiple values, the multiple values are returned from the cond. Only a single value is returned in the case where a test succeeds and has no associated forms.

Examples: > (defun foo ()
(cond ((=a 1) (setq a 2))
( (=a2) (setq a 3))
((and (= a 3) (floor a 2)))
(t (floor a 3)))
FOO
> (setq a 1 )
1
> (foo)
2
$>a$
2
> (foo)
3
$>$ a
3
$>$ (foo)
1

## $>$ (setq a 5) <br> 5 <br> $>$ (foo) <br> 1 <br> 2

See Also: if
case

## define-modify-macro

Purpose: The macro define-modify-macro is used to define a macro to access and update a generalized variable.

The arguments to the new macro will be a reference to the generalized variable, followed by the arguments that are specified in the lambda-list argument of define-modify-macro.

When the macro is invoked, the function specified by the function argument of define-modify-macro is applied to these arguments to obtain the new value, and the generalized variable is updated to contain the result.

The macro define-modify-macro returns name as its result.
Syntax: define-modify-macro name lambda-list function [documentation]
[Macro]
Remarks: The name argument is a symbol; it is not evaluated.
The function argument is not evaluated; it should be the name of a function.
The lambda list may contain the \&optional and \&rest keywords only.
A documentation string may be attached to the name of the new macro by the optional documentation argument; the documentation type for this string is setf.

Examples: > (define-modify-macro appendf (krest args) append "Append onto list") APPENDF
$>(\operatorname{setq} x \quad(a b c) y x)$
(A B C)
> (appendf x '(def)'(123))
(ABCDEF123)
$>x$
(ABCDEF123)
$>\mathrm{y}$
(ABC)
See Also: defsetf
define-setf-method

## define-setf-method

Purpose: The macro define-setf-method is used to specify the means by which setf is to update a generalized variable that is referenced by a given access function.

When setf is given a generalized variable that is specified in terms of this access function and a new value for the variable, it is expanded into a call on the update function. The arguments of the access function and the new value are passed to the update function, and the update function is invoked to modify the value of the variable.

The lambda-list argument specifies the arguments of the access function. When setf is called with the access function, the lambda list parameters are bound to the corresponding access function arguments in the call form.

The form arguments must compute the expansion for a call on setf that references the generalized variable by means of the given access function.

The evaluation of the form arguments must result in the following five values: a list of the temporary variables used; a list of the value forms to whose values the temporary variables are bound; a list consisting of the store variable (the temporary variable that is bound to the new value); the store form (the form that is used to update the generalized variable and return the resulting value); and the access form (the form that is used to access and return the value of the generalized variable).
The define-setf-method macro returns the name of the access function as its result.

Syntax: define-setf-method access-fn lambda-list
[Macro]
\{declaration $\mid$ documentation $\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}$
Remarks: The access-fn argument is the name of a function or macro; it is not evaluated.
A documentation string may be attached to the name of the new macro by the optional documentation argument; the documentation type for this string is setf.

## define-setf-method

```
Examples: > (defun lastguy (x) (car (last x)))
    LASTGUY
    > (define-setf-method lastguy ( \(x\) )
            "Set the last element in a list to the given value."
            (multiple-value-bind (dummies vals newval setter getter)
                (get-setf-method \(x\) )
                (let ((store (gensym)))
                (values dummies
                vals
                - (, store)
                - (progn (rplaca (last , getter) , store) , store)
                -(lastguy , getter)))))
    LASTGUY
    > (setq a (list 'a 'b 'c 'd)
            b (list 'x)
            c (list 123 (list 45 6)))
    (123(456))
    > (setf (lastguy a) 3)
3
> (setf (lastguy b) 7)
7
> (setf (lastguy (lastguy c)) 'foo)
F00
\(>\mathrm{a}\)
    (A B C 3)
> b
(7)
\(>c\)
(123 (45 F00))
See Also: setf
defsetf
get-setf-method
```


## defsetf

Purpose:

## Syntax:

The macro defsetf is used to specify the means by which setf is to update a generalized variable that is referenced by a given access function. It specifies an update function that is to be used in conjunction with the given access function.
When setf is given a generalized variable that is specified in terms of this access function and a new value for the variable, it is expanded into a call on the update function. The arguments of the access function and the new value are passed to the update function, and the update function is invoked to modify the value of the variable.

The defsetf macro returns the name of the access function as its result.
The arguments to defsetf include the access function and either the name of an update function or a body of code that will expand the setf call, update the given location, and return the new value that was stored.

In the first of these methods, an update function is specified by use of the update-fn argument. The update-fn argument is the name of a function or macro; it is not evaluated. The update function must take one more argument than the access function. This last argument corresponds to the new value that is to be assigned to the generalized variable. The update function must return the new value as its result.

In the second method, the form arguments must compute the expansion for a call on setf that references the generalized variable by means of the given access function. This expansion must also return the new value assigned to the variable as its result.

The lambda-list argument specifies the arguments of the access function. The store-variable corresponds to the value that is to be used to update the generalized variable.

The forms in the body may assume that the lambda list parameters and the store variable are bound to the corresponding arguments in the call to setf. When the forms in the body are evaluated, the lambda list parameters and the store variable are actually bound to the names of temporary variables, which, when setf is expanded, are bound to the actual argument values.
defsetf access-fn \{update-fn[documentation]|
lambda-list (store-variable)
\{declaration $\mid$ documentation $\left.\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right\}$

```
Remarks: The access-fn argument is the name of a function or macro; it is not evaluated. The access function must be a function or a macro that evaluates all of its arguments.
The lambda-list argument may use the \&optional, \&rest, \&key keywords, default values, and supplied-p parameters.
A documentation string may be attached to the name of the new macro by the optional documentation argument; the documentation type for this string is setf.
```

```
Examples: > (defun middleguy (x) (nth (truncate (1- (list-length \(x\) )) 2) \(x\) ))
```

Examples: > (defun middleguy (x) (nth (truncate (1- (list-length $x$ )) 2) $x$ ))
MIDDLEGUY
MIDDLEGUY
> (defun set-middleguy ( $x$ v)
> (defun set-middleguy ( $x$ v)
(unless (null x)
(unless (null x)
(rplaca (nthcdr (truncate (1- (list-length x)) 2) x) v)
(rplaca (nthcdr (truncate (1- (list-length x)) 2) x) v)
v))
v))
SET-MIDDLEGUY
> (defsetf middleguy set-middleguy)
MIDDLEGUY
> (setq a (list 'a 'b 'c 'd)
b (list 'x)
c(list 12 3(list 4 5 6) 7 8 9))
(123 (4 5 6) 7 8 9)
> (setf (middleguy a) 3)
3
> (setf (middleguy b) 7)
7
> (setf (middleguy (middleguy c)) 'foo)
FOO
> a
(A 3 C D)
> b
(7)
c
(123 (4 FOO 6) 7 8 9)
See Also: setf
define-setf-method
get-setf-method

```

\section*{do, do*}

Purpose: The do macro is used to iterate over a group of forms while a test condition holds.
It provides for a series of local iteration variables that may be stepped each time through the iteration loop.

An initial value may be specified for each iteration variable by use of the init form. The init forms are all evaluated first. The iteration variables are then bound in parallel to the corresponding values. If an init form is not specified for a given variable, that variable is bound to nil.

The step form arguments may be used to specify how the variables should be updated on succeeding iterations through the loop. The step forms are all evaluated, and then the iteration variables are bound in parallel to the corresponding values. If a step form is not specified for a given variable, that variable is not stepped.

The end-test form is evaluated at the beginning of each iteration. The do terminates when the result of end-test is non-nil. It is only when end-test results in a non-nil value that the forms associated with the end test are evaluated. They are evaluated in order. The do then returns the value of the last of these forms. If no such forms are specified, do returns nil.

The body of the do is like a tagbody. It consists of a series of tags and statements. The tag and statement arguments are processed in the order in which they occur. The tag arguments are not evaluated; they must be symbols or integers. The tags serve the purpose of labeling statements and have lexical scope. The statement forms are evaluated. The go special form may be used within the body of the do to transfer control to a statement labeled by a tag.

The do* macro is identical to do except that the iteration variables are bound to the initial values and the values of the step forms sequentially. A variable may thus refer to the value to which a variable occurring earlier in the variables list has just been bound.

Syntax:
```

do ({var|(var [init [step] ] )}*)(end-test {form}*) [Macro]
{declaration}* {tag| statement}*
do* ( {var|(var [init [step]])}*)(end-test {form}*)
[Macro]
{declaration}* {tag| statement}*

```

Remarks: Declarations may be specified for the iteration variables, the init and step forms, the end-test, the result form, and statements in the body of the do construct.

If a declaration is specified for a variable, the initial value of that variable must be consistent with the declaration.

A block with the name of nil encloses the do construct. The return macro may thus be used to exit from the do.

Examples: > (do ((fool 1 ( \(1+\) fool))
(f002 0 (1-foo2)))
((> (- fool foo2) 5) fool))
4
\(>\) (do ( \((f 0011\) ( \(1+\) fool) \()\)
(foo2 0 ( \(1+\) fool)))
( \((=3\) foo2) fool))
3
> (do* ((fool 1 ( \(1+\) fool))
(foo2 0 ( \(1+\) fool)))
( \((=3\) foo2) fool))
2
See Also: dolist
dotimes
loop
tagbody
return

\section*{dolist}

Purpose: The macro dolist is used to iterate over the elements of a list.
The listform argument is evaluated first; it should result in a list. The variable var is bound to each element of the list in turn, and the body of dolist is executed for that element.

When all the list elements have been processed, the result form is evaluated, and its value is returned as the result of the dolist. If a result form is not specified, dolist returns nil.

The body of the dolist is like a tagbody. It consists of a series of tags and statements. The tag and statement arguments are processed in the order in which they occur. The tag arguments are not evaluated; they must be symbols or integers. The tags serve the purpose of labeling statements and have lexical scope. The statement forms are evaluated. The go special form may be used within the body of the dolist to transfer control to a statement labeled by a tag.

Syntax: dolist (var listform [result]) \{declaration \(\}^{*}\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}\) [Macro]
Remarks: At the time the result form is processed, var is bound to nil.
A block with the name of nil encloses the dolist construct. The return macro may thus be used to exit from the dolist.

Examples: > (setq foo2 '())
NIL
> (dolist (foo1 '(1 2 3 4) foo2) (push fool foo2))
(4 32 1)
\(>(\operatorname{setq} \mathrm{fool} 0)\)
0
> (dolist (foo1'(1 23 4)) (incf foo2))
NIL
\(>\) fool
4
See Also: do

\section*{dotimes}

Purpose: The dotimes macro is used to iterate over a fixed number of integer values.
The countform argument is evaluated first; it should result in an integer. The variable var is bound in turn to each integer from 0 up to but not including the value of countform, and the body of the dotimes is executed for that value. When all such integer values have been processed, the result form is evaluated, and its value is returned as the result of the dotimes. If a result form is not specified, dotimes returns nil.
The body of the dotimes is like a tagbody. It consists of a series of tags and statements. The tag and statement arguments are processed in the order in which they occur. The tag arguments are not evaluated; they must be symbols or integers. The tags serve the purpose of labeling statements and have lexical scope. The statement forms are evaluated. The go special form may be used within the body of the dotimes to transfer control to a statement labeled by a tag.

Remarks: At the time the result form is processed, var is bound to the number of times the body was executed.
A block with the name of nil encloses the dotimes construct. The return macro may thus be used to exit from the dotimes.
If the countform argument is zero or negative, the body is not executed.
Examples: > (dotimes (fool 10 fool))
10
> (setq foo2 0)
0
\(>\) (dotimes (fool 10 t\()\) (incf foo2))
T
> foor
10
See Also: do

\section*{ecase, ccase}

Purpose: The ecase and ccase macros allow the execution of a group of forms to be dependent on selection by a key match.

The ecase macro evaluates its keyform argument and matches it against the key arguments; the key arguments are not evaluated. If the keyform value matches a key, the forms associated with that key are executed in order.

The ecase macro returns the value of the last form executed. If the matching key has no associated forms, ecase returns nil. If there is no matching key, ecase signals a fatal error.
The ccase macro matches the value contained in its keyplace argument against the key arguments; the key arguments are not evaluated. If the value in keyplace matches a key, the forms associated with that key are executed in order.
If the object in keyplace does not match any of the keys, ccase signals a continuable error and enters the debugger. If the user continues from this error, ccase prompts for a new value to store in keyplace and tries the key matching again.

The macro ccase returns the value of the last form executed. If the matching key has no associated forms, ccase returns nil.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: & ecase keyform \(\left\{\left(\left\{\left(\{\text { key }\}^{*}\right) \mid \text { key }\right\}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\) & {\([\) Macro \(]\)} \\
& ccase keyplace \(\left\{\left(\left\{\left(\{\text { key }\}^{*}\right) \mid \text { key }\right\}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\) & {\([\) Macro \(]\)}
\end{tabular}

Remarks: A given key may appear only once. Keys are compared using eql.
If only one key is associated with a group of forms, it is not necessary to include that key in a list unless the key is nil, \(t\), otherwise, or a cons.

Examples: > (setq k 'foo)
FOO
> (ecase k ((foo bar) (setq k 3000)) (2000 (setq k 'bar)))
3000
See Also: case

\section*{etypecase, ctypecase}

Purpose: The etypecase and ctypecase macros allow the execution of a group of forms to be dependent on selection by a type match.

The etypecase macro evaluates its keyform argument and matches it against the type arguments in turn. The type arguments must be type specifiers; they are not evaluated. If the object specified by the keyform argument is an instance of a given type, then the forms associated with that type are executed in order. If the object is an instance of more than one such type, only the forms associated with the first of these types are executed.

The etypecase macro returns the value of the last form executed. If the matching type has no associated forms, it returns nil. If no type matches, etypecase signals a fatal error.

The ctypecase macro matches the value contained in its keyplace argument against the type arguments in turn. The type arguments must be type specifiers; they are not evaluated. If the object contained in the keyplace argument is an instance of a given type, then the forms associated with that type are executed in order. If the object is an instance of more than one such type, only the forms associated with the first of these types are executed.

If the object in keyplace does not match any of the types, ctypecase signals a continuable error and enters the debugger. If the user continues from this error, ctypecase prompts for a new value to store in keyplace and tries the type matching again.

The ctypecase macro returns the value of the last form executed. If the matched type has no associated forms, ctypecase returns nil.

Syntax: etypecase keyform \(\left\{\left(\text { type }\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\)
[Macro]
ctypecase keyplace \(\left\{\left(\text { type }\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\)
[Macro]
Remarks: The type arguments are not evaluated.
It is not permitted to use \(\mathbf{t}\) or otherwise as a type argument.
```

Examples: > (etypecase nil (cons "it's a cons")
(list "it's nil")
(symbol "it's a symbol"))
"it's nil"

```

See Also: typecase

\section*{flet}

Purpose: The special form flet is used to define functions whose names are meaningful only locally and to execute a series of forms with these function definition bindings. Any number of such local functions may be defined.

The names of functions defined by flet have lexical scope; they retain their local definitions only within the body of the flet. Any references within the body of the flet to functions whose names are the same as those defined within the flet are thus references to the local functions instead of to any global functions of the same names. The scope of these function definition bindings, however, includes only the body of flet, not the definitions themselves. Within the function definitions, local function names that match those being defined refer to global functions defined outside the flet. It is thus not possible to define recursive functions with flet.

The form arguments are executed in order. The result returned by flet is the value or values returned by the last form executed. If no form arguments are specified, flet returns nil.
Syntax: \(\quad\) flet \(\left(\left\{\left(\right.\right.\right.\) name lambda-list \(\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { declaration } \mid \text { documentation }\}^{*} \\ \left.\left.\left.\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\right)\{\text { form }\}^{*}\end{array} \quad[\right.\) Special Form]

Remarks: An flet local function definition is identical in form to the function definition part of a defun. It contains a name, argument list, optional declarations and documentation string, and a body.

Examples: > (flet ((flet1 (n) (+ n n)))
(flet ((flet1 ( n ) (+ 2 (flet1 n)))) (flet1 2)))

6
> (flet ((+ (\&rest args) 'crossed-out))
(+ 12 3))
CROSSED-OUT
See Also: labels
let
defun

\section*{get-setf-method, get-setf-method-multiple-value}

Purpose: The function get-setf-method returns a multiple value result that characterizes the setf method for a given form.

The result consists of the following five values: a list of the temporary variables; a list of the value forms to whose values the temporary variables are bound; a list consisting of the store variable; the store form; and the access form.

The function get-setf-method-multiple-value is like get-setf-method except that a list containing more than one store variable may be returned.
Syntax: get-setf-method form [Function]

Remarks: The form argument must be a reference to a generalized variable.
Examples: > (get-setf-method 'x)
NIL
NIL
(\#:G50)
(SETQ X \#:G50)
\(\mathbf{x}\)
> (define-setf-method multivalue (x)
(values '() '() '(,(gensym) ,(gensym)) '(setq ,x 3) '4))
mULTIVALUE
> (get-setf-method-multiple-value '(multivalue foo))
NIL
NIL
(\#:G59 \#:G60)
(SETQ FOO 3)
4
See Also: defsetf
define-setf-method
setf

\section*{go}

Purpose: The go special form is used to transfer control to a location within a tagbody.
Control is transferred to the statement labeled by a tag that is eql to the tag argument. Tags have lexical scope. If several tags match the tag argument of the go, control is transferred to whichever matching tag is contained in the tagbody form that most immediately contains the go.

No value is returned.
Syntax: go tag
Remarks: The tag argument is not evaluated. It must be a symbol or an integer. It is an error if there is no matching tag.

Examples: > (tagbody
(setq val 2)
(go lp)
(incf val 3)
lp (incf val 4))
NIL
> val
6
See Also: tagbody

Purpose: The if special form allows the execution of a form to be dependent on a single test form.

First, the test argument is evaluated before either the then or the else argument. Next, either the then or the else argument is evaluated, depending on the result of test.

If the test argument is non-nil, the then form is evaluated. The results of the then form are returned as the results of if.

If the test argument is nil, the else form is evaluated. The results of the else form are returned as the results of if. If an else argument is not specified, nil is returned.

Syntax: if test then [else] [Special Form]
Examples: > (if th)
1
> (if nil 12 )
2
See Ailiso: and
when
unless
or

\section*{labels}

Purpose: The special form labels is used to define functions whose names are meaningful only locally and to execute a series of forms with these function definition bindings. Any number of such local functions may be defined.

The names of functions defined by labels have lexical scope; they retain their local definitions only within the body of the labels construct. Any references within the body of the labels construct to functions whose names are the same as those defined within the labels form are thus references to the local functions instead of to any global functions of the same names. The scope of these function definition bindings includes the definitions themselves as well as the body of the labels construct.

The form arguments are executed in order. The result returned by labels is the value or values returned by the last form executed. If no form arguments are specified, labels returns nil.

Syntax:

Remarks: A labels local function definition is identical in form to the function definition part of a defun. It contains a name, argument list, optional declarations and documentation string, and a body.

Examples: > (defun recursive-times (k n)
(labels ((foo ( n ) (if (zerop n\() 0(+k(f o o(1-n))))\) ) (foo n)))
RECURSIVE-TIMES
> (recursive-times 2 3)
6
See Also: flet
let
defun

\section*{let, let*}

Purpose: The let special form is used to create new variable bindings and to execute a series of forms that use these bindings.

The variable bindings created are lexical bindings unless the appropriate special declarations are specified. The bindings have lexical scope.

The value arguments are evaluated first, in the order in which they are given. The var arguments are then bound to the corresponding values in parallel. If no value is specified for a given var argument, that variable is bound to nil.
The form arguments are executed in order. The result returned by let is the value or values returned by the last form executed. If no form arguments are specified, let returns nil.

The special form let* is identical to let except that the variables are bound to the values sequentially. A variable may thus refer to the value to which a variable occurring earlier in the variables list has just been bound.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: & let \(\left(\{\text { var } \mid(\text { var value })\}^{*}\right)\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & {\([\) Special Form \(]\)} \\
& let \(\left(\{\text { var } \mid(\text { var value })\}^{*}\right)\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & {\([\) Special Form \(]\)}
\end{tabular}

Remarks: If a declaration is specified for a variable, the initial value of that variable must be consistent with the declaration.

Examples: > (setq a 'top)
TOP
> (defun foo () a)
F00
> (let ((a 'inside) (b a))
(format t " S -s -S" a b (foo)))
INSIDE TOP TOP
NIL
> (let* ((a 'inside) (b a))
(format t "~S ~S "S" a b (foo)))
INSIDE INSIDE TOP
NIL
> (let ((a 'inside) (ba))
(declare (special a))
(format t "-s "S "S" a b (foo)))
INSIDE TOP INSIDE
NIL

\section*{loop}

Purpose: The loop macro is used to perform indefinite iteration.
Each form argument is evaluated in turn. After the last form is evaluated, the evaluation starts over again with the first. The only way to exit from a loop is by explicit termination, as by a return, go, or throw.

An implicit block named nil is created by the loop construct. It is thus possible to return a value from loop by the use of return.

Syntax: loop \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) [Macro]
Examples: > (let ( \((\mathrm{i} 0)\) )
(loop (incf i) (if (= i 3) (return i)))
3
\(>(\) let \(((i \quad 0)(j 0))\)
(tagbody
(loop (incf j 3) (incf i) (if (= i 3) (go exit))) exit)
j)

9
See Also: do
dolist
dotimes
return
go
throw

\section*{macrolet}

Purpose: The macrolet special form is used to define macros whose names are meaningful only locally and to execute a series of forms with these macro definition bindings. Any number of such local macros may be defined.

The names of macros defined by macrolet have lexical scope; they retain their local definitions only within the body of the macrolet. Any references within the body of the macrolet to macros whose names are the same as those defined within the macrolet are thus references to the local macros instead of to any global macros of the same names. The scope of these macro definition bindings, however, includes only the body of macrolet, not the definitions themselves. Within the macro definitions, local function names that match those being defined refer to global macros or functions defined outside the macrolet.
The form arguments are executed in order. The result returned by macrolet is the value or values returned by the last form executed. If no form arguments are specified, macrolet returns nil.

Syntax: macrolet (\{ (name lambda-list \(\{\) declaration \(\mid\) documentation\}* \(\quad\) [Special Form] \(\left.\left.\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\) ) \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)

Remarks: The macro expansion functions defined by macrolet are defined in the global environment, not in the lexical environment of the macrolet; they thus do not have access to items within the lexical scope of the macrolet.

A macrolet local macro definition is identical in form to the macro definition part of a defmacro. It contains a name, argument list, optional declarations and documentation string, and a body.

Examples: > (defmacro mlets (x kenvironment env)
(let ( \(\mathrm{form} \cdot(\mathrm{baz}, \mathrm{x})\) )) (macroexpand form env)))
MLETS
> (macrolet ( \((\operatorname{baz}(z) \cdot(+, z, z)))(\) mlets 5) )
10
See Also: flet
let
defmacro

\section*{multiple-value-bind}
Purpose: The multiple-value-bind macro is used to create new variable bindings and to execute a series of forms that use these bindings.
The variable bindings created are lexical bindings unless the appropriate special declarations are specified. The bindings have lexical scope.
The values-form argument is evaluated first. The var arguments are then bound to the values that it returns. If there are more variables than results, the remaining variables are bound to nil. If there are more results than variables, the remaining values are discarded.
The form arguments are executed in order. The value returned by multiple-value-bind is the value or values returned by the last form executed. If no form arguments are specified, multiple-value-bind returns nil.
Syntax: multiple-value-bind ( \(\{\text { var }\}^{*}\) ) values-form \(\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) [Macro]
Remarks: If a declaration is specified for a variable, the value to which that variable is bound must be consistent with the declaration.
Examples: > (multiple-value-bind (f r) (floor 130 11) (list fr)) (119)
See Also: let

\section*{multiple-value-call}
Purpose: The multiple-value-call special form applies a function to the values collected from groups of multiple values.
The function argument is evaluated first. All of the form arguments are then evaluated. The values they produce are passed to the function as arguments. The result of applying the function to these arguments is returned as the result of the multiple-value-call form.
Syntax: multiple-value-call function \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) [Special Form]
Examples: > (multiple-value-call \#'list 1 '/ (values 2 3) '/ (values) '/ (floor 2.5)) (1/23/2.5)

\section*{multiple-value-list}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Purpose: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The multiple-value-list macro returns as a list the multiple values that are \\
produced as a result of evaluating a given form.
\end{tabular} \\
Syntax: & multiple-value-list form
\end{tabular}\(\quad\) [Macro]

See Also: values-list

\section*{multiple-value-prog1}


\section*{multiple-value-setq}

Purpose: The macro multiple-value-setq is used to assign values to a list of variables. The form argument is evaluated first. The values it returns are then assigned to the corresponding variables of the list.

If there are more variables than results, nil is assigned to the remaining variables. If there are more results than variables, the remaining values are discarded.

The result of multiple-value-setq is the first value returned by form. If form returns no values, the result is nil.

Syntax: multiple-value-setq vars form
Remarks: The vars argument is a list of variables.
Examples: > (multiple-value-setq (a b c) (values 12 ))
1
\(>\) a
1
\(>\) b
2
\(>c\)
NIL
See Also: setq

\section*{multiple-values-limit}

Purpose: The constant multiple-values-limit defines the upper exclusive bound on the number of values that any function may return.

The value of multiple-values-limit in Sun Common Lisp is \(2^{9}\).
Syntax: multiple-values-limit
[Constant]
Examples: > multiple-values-limit
512

\section*{prog, prog*}

Purpose: The prog macro is used to create a block, new variable bindings, and an implicit tagbody, and to execute a series of forms that use these items.

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

The init arguments are evaluated first, in the order in which they are given. The var arguments are then bound to the corresponding values in parallel. If no init value is specified for a given var argument, that variable is bound to nil.
The body of the prog is like a tagbody. It consists of a series of tags and statements. The tag and statement arguments are processed in the order in which they occur. The tag arguments are not evaluated; they must be symbols or integers. The tags serve the purpose of labeling statements. The statement forms are evaluated. The go special form may be used within a prog body to transfer control to a statement labeled by a tag. The tags have lexical scope.

A block with the name of nil encloses the prog construct. The return macro may thus be used to exit from the prog.

The prog* macro is identical to prog except that variables are bound to the initial values sequentially. A variable may thus refer to the value to which a variable occurring earlier in the variables list has just been bound.

The prog and prog* macros return nil.
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
Syntax: & prog \(\left(\{\text { var } \mid(\text { var }[\text { init }])\}^{*}\right)\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}\) & {\([\) Macro \(]\)} \\
& prog* \(\left(\{\text { var } \mid(\text { var }[\text { init }])\}^{*}\right)\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}\) & {\([\) Macro \(]\)}
\end{tabular}

Remarks: If a declaration is specified for a variable, the initial value of that variable must be consistent with the declaration.

Examples: > (setq a 1 )
1
> (prog ((a 2) (b a)) (return (if (= a b) '= '/=))) \(1=\)

\(=\)
> (prog () 'no-return-value)
NIL
prog, prog*
See Also: block
let
tagbody
go
return

\section*{prog 1}

Purpose: The prog1 macro evaluates a series of forms. The forms are evaluated in the order in which they are given in the argument list. The result returned by prog1 is the result returned by evaluating the first form argument.

Syntax: prog1 first \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
Remarks: If the first form returns multiple values, only the first of these values is returned by prog1. If the first form returns no values, prog1 returns nil.

Examples: > (setq fool 1)
1
(prog1 fool (setq fool nil))
1
> fool
NIL
> (prog1 (values t t))
T
See Also: progn
prog2
multiple-value-prog1
prog2

Purpose: The prog2 macro evaluates a series of forms. The forms are evaluated in the order in which they are given in the argument list. The result returned by prog2 is the result returned by evaluating the second form argument.

Syntax: \(\quad\) prog2 first second \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
[Macro]
Remarks: If the second form returns multiple values, only the first of these values is returned by prog2. If the second form returns no values, prog2 returns nil.

See Also: progn
prog1

\section*{progn}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The progn special form evaluates a series of forms. The forms are evaluated in the order in which they are given in the argument list. The result returned by progn is the result returned by evaluating the last of the form arguments. If the last form returns multiple values, those multiple values are returned as the result of progn. If no form arguments are specified, progn returns nil. \\
\hline Syntax: & progn \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) [Special Form] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{12}{*}{Examples:} & > (progn) \\
\hline & NIL \\
\hline & \(>\) (progn 123 3) \\
\hline & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 3 \\
& > \\
& (\text { progn (values } 1
\end{aligned} 23 \text { )) }
\] \\
\hline & 1 \\
\hline & 2 \\
\hline & 3 \\
\hline & > (setq a 1 ) \\
\hline & \\
\hline & > (if a \\
\hline & (progn (setq a nil) 'true) \\
\hline & (progn (setq a t) 'false)) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{progv}

Purpose: The progv special form is used to create new dynamic variable bindings and to execute a series of forms that use those bindings.

The symbols argument specifies a list of dynamic variables. The values argument specifies a list of values. The symbols and values arguments are evaluated, and the variables are bound to the corresponding values. If there are more variables than values, the remaining variables are unbound. If there are more values than variables, the remaining values are discarded.

The form arguments are executed in order. The value returned by progv is the value or values returned by the last form executed. If no form arguments are specified, progv returns nil.

Syntax: progv symbols values \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
Remarks: The previous bindings of the dynamic variables are restored when progv exits.
Examples: > (setq *x* 1)
1
```

(progv '(*x*) '(2) *x*)

```
2
*x*
1
> (let ((*x* 3)) (progv '(*x*) '(4) (list *x* (symbol-value '*x*)))
(3 4)

See Also: progn
return, return-from

Purpose: The return and return-from constructs are used to return from a lexically enclosing block. Both return and return-from specify the value or values to be returned from the block.

The name argument of return-from is a symbol; it is not evaluated. It specifies the lexically enclosing block of the same name from which to return.

The return macro is like return-from except that it causes a return from the lexically enclosing block whose name is nil. Such implicit blocks are created by prog and the iteration constructs do, do*, dolist, dotimes, and loop.

Syntax
return [result]
return-from name [result]
[Macro]
[Special Form]
Remarks: If the result argument is not specified, nil is returned.
```

Examples: > (block foo 1 (return-from foo 2) 3)
2
> (let ((a 0))
(dotimes (i 10) (incf a) (when (oddp i) (return)))
a)
2
> (defun foo (x)
(if x (return-from foo 'bar))
44)
FOO
>(foo nil)
4 4
> (foo t)
BAR

```

See Also: block

\section*{rotatef}

Purpose: The rotatef macro is used to modify the values of a series of generalized variables by rotating values from one generalized variable into another.

First the values of all the place arguments are obtained. The location specified by each place argument is then assigned the value corresponding to the argument that follows it in the argument list. The location specified by the last place argument is assigned the original value of the first argument.

The rotatef macro returns nil as its result.
Syntax: rotatef \(\{\text { place }\}^{*}\) [Macro]
Remarks: The place arguments must be generalized variables acceptable to the macro setf.
The rotatef macro may be used to assign values to lexical as well as to dynamic variables.

Examples: > (let ( n 0 )
( \(x\) (list 'a 'b 'c 'd 'e 'f 'g)))
(rotatef (nth (incf n) \(x\) )
(nth (incf n) \(x\) )
(nth (incf n) x))
x)
(ACDBEFG)
See Also: setf
shiftf
set
Purpose: \begin{tabular}{l} 
The function set is used to modify the value of a special variable. \\
It causes the dynamic variable associated with the symbol argument to have the \\
specified value.
\end{tabular}
Syntax: \(\quad\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
set symbol value
\end{tabular}
Examples: \(\quad>\) (set 'foo 1)
1
\(>\)

\section*{setf, psetf}

Purpose: The setf macro is used to update a generalized variable. It modifies the location specified by the place argument to contain newvalue.

More than one generalized variable may be updated in a single setf. In this case the pairs of place and newvalue arguments are processed sequentially.
The result returned by setf is the value of the last newvalue argument. If no arguments are given, setf returns nil.

The macro psetf is like setf except that if multiple argument pairs are specified, the updates are done in parallel. The result returned by psetf is nil.

Syntax: setf \(\left\{\right.\) place newvalue\}* \({ }^{*}\) [Macro]
psetf \{place newvalue\}* \({ }^{*}\) [Macro]
Remarks: The macros setf and psetf may be used to assign values to lexical as well as to dynamic variables.

The place arguments must be generalized variables.
If more than one of the place forms given to psetf evaluates to the same location, the results are unpredictable.
```

Examples: > (setq x (cons 'a 'b) y (list 1 2 3))
(1 2 3)
> (setf (car x) 'x (cadr y) 'foo (cdr x) y (cadr y) 'bar)
BAR
> (setf (third y) 7)
7
> x
(X 1 BAR 7)
y
(1 BAR 7)

```

\section*{setq, psetq}

Purpose: The setq and psetq constructs are used to assign values to variables.
The special form setq evaluates its form arguments sequentially. The first form argument is evaluated, and its value is stored in the variable specified by the first var argument before the next form argument is evaluated. Hence, if a form references a variable in the argument list whose value has already been modified, the new value of the variable is used.

The macro psetq is like setq except that the form arguments are all evaluated in parallel, and the resulting values are stored in parallel in the var arguments.
The result returned by setq is the result returned by evaluating the last of the form arguments. If this form produces multiple values, only the first value is returned; if the form produces no values, setq returns nil.

The psetq macro returns nil.
\(\begin{array}{rlr}\text { Syntax: } & \text { setq }\{\text { var form }\}^{*} & {[\text { Special } \text { Form }]} \\ & \text { psetq }\{\text { var form }\}^{*} & {[\text { Macro }]}\end{array}\)
Remarks: The setq and psetq constructs may be used to assign values to both special and lexical variables.

Examples: > (setq foo 1)
1
> foo
1
See Also: setf
set
shiftf

Purpose: The shiftf macro is used to modify the values of a series of generalized variables by shifting values from one generalized variable into another.

First the values of all the place arguments and the value specified by newvalue are obtained. The location specified by each place argument is then assigned the value corresponding to the argument that follows it in the argument list.
The original value of the first place argument is returned as the result of shiftf.
\(\begin{array}{ll}\text { Syntax: } & \text { shiftf }\{\text { place }\}^{+} \text {newvalue } \\ \text { [Macro] }\end{array}\)
Remarks: The place arguments must be generalized variables acceptable to the macro setf.
The shiftf macro may be used to assign values to lexical as well as dynamic variables.

TRASH
> (shiftf y x (cdr x) '(hi there))
TRASH
\(>x\)
(2 3)
\(>y\)
(1 HI THERE)
See Also: setf
rotatef

\section*{tagbody}

Purpose: The tagbody special form provides for control transfers within a body of code by means of statement labels called tags.

The tagbody consists of a series of tags and statements. The tag and statement arguments are processed in the order in which they occur. The tag arguments are not evaluated; they must be symbols or integers. The tags serve the purpose of labeling statements. The statement forms are evaluated. The go special form may be used within a tagbody to transfer control to a statement labeled by a tag.

Tags have lexical scope.
The tagbody special form returns nil.
Syntax:
\[
\text { tagbody }\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}
\]
[Special Form]
Remarks: The forms do, do*, dolist, dotimes, prog, and prog* all have implicit tagbodies.
```

Examples: > (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)
1 5

```

See Also: go

\section*{throw}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{Purpose:} & The throw special form is used to cause a nonlocal control transfer. \\
\hline & Both the tag and the result arguments are evaluated. Control is transferred to the catch construct whose tag is eq to the tag argument. The results of throw are returned as the results of the catch form. \\
\hline & Catch tags have dynamic scope. If several catch tags match the tag argument of throw, control is transferred to the most recently occurring catch form. \\
\hline Syntax: & throw tag result [Special Form] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{Remarks:} & The throw special form may return multiple values. \\
\hline & The successful execution of the throw form causes the stack to be unwound and any dynamic variable bindings to be restored to their state as of the point of the catch. Any intervening unwind-protect code is executed during this process. \\
\hline & There must be a matching tag; otherwise the stack is not unwound and an error is signaled. \\
\hline & Since catch tags are compared using eq, characters and numbers should not be used as tags. \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{Examples:} & ```
> (catch 'foo
    (setq i 0)
    (loop (incf i) (when (> i 10) (throw 'foo 'bar)))
    i)
``` \\
\hline & BAR \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{See Also:} & catch \\
\hline & unwind-protect \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{typecase}

Purpose: The typecase macro allows the execution of a group of forms to be dependent on selection by a type match.

The keyform argument is evaluated and matched against the type arguments in turn. The type arguments must be type specifiers; they are not evaluated. If the object specified by the keyform argument is an instance of a given type, then the forms associated with that type are executed in order. If the object is an instance of more than one such type, only the forms associated with the first of these types are executed.

The typecase macro returns the value of the last form executed. If no type matches or the matching type has no associated forms, typecase returns nil.

Syntax: \(\quad\) typecase keyform \(\left\{\left(\text { type }\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\)
Remarks: Either the symbol \(\mathbf{t}\) or the symbol otherwise may be used as the last type specifier. If no other type match succeeds, the forms associated with the \(t\) or otherwise are executed.

Examples:
```

> (typecase '(a b)
(integer "integer")
(list "list")
(t "otherwise"))
"list"
> (typecase 'a
(integer "integer")
(list "list")
(otherwise "otherwise"))
"otherwise"

```

See Also: etypecase
ctypecase
case
ecase
ccase
cond

\section*{unless}

Purpose: The unless macro allows the execution of a series of forms to be dependent on a single test form.

If the test argument is non-nil, none of the form arguments are evaluated, and unless returns nil.

If test is nil, then the form arguments are evaluated in order. The value or values of the last form argument are returned as the result of unless. If no form arguments are specified, unless returns nil.

Syntax: unless test \(\left\{\right.\) form \({ }^{*}\)
[Macro]
Examples: > (unless nil 1) 1
\(>\) (unless t 2)
NIL
> (unless nil)
NIL
See Also: when

\section*{unwind-protect}

Purpose: The unwind-protect special form is used to execute a protected form and to guarantee that a series of cleanup forms are executed before the unwind-protect exits.

The unwind-protect special form returns the value or values that result from the execution of the protected form.

Syntax: unwind-protect protected-form \{cleanup-form\}* \({ }^{*}\) [Special Form]
Remarks: The cleanup forms are generally used to ensure that if an exit of any kind causes the execution of the protected form to be aborted, the unwind-protect construct is able to perform any necessary actions before it exits.
The cleanup forms are not protected.
```

Examples: > (defun foo (x)
(setq state 'running)
(unless (numberp x) (throw 'abort 'not-a-number))
(setq state (1+ x)))
F00
> (catch 'abort (foo 1))
2
> state
2
> (catch 'abort (foo 'trash))
NOT-A-NUMBER
> state
RUNNING
> (catch 'abort (unwind-protect (foo 'trash) (setq state 'aborted)))
NOT-A-NUMBER
> state
ABORTED
See Also: throw
catch
go
return
return-from

```

\section*{values}

Purpose: The function values is used to return multiple values. It returns one value for each of its arguments, in order.

Syntax: values \&rest args [Function]
Remarks: If any argument produces more than one value, only the first of these is returned. If no arguments are specified, values returns no values.

Examples: > (values)
> (values 12 3)
1
2
3
> (values (values 12 3) 4 5)
1
4
5

\section*{values-list}

Purpose: The function values-list returns the elements of its list argument as multiple values.

Syntax: values-list list [Function]
Examples: > (values-list nil)
> (values-list '(1 2 3))
1
2
3

\section*{when}

Purpose: The when macro allows the execution of a series of forms to be dependent on a single test form.

If the test argument is nil, none of the form arguments are evaluated, and when returns nil.

If test is non-nil, then the form arguments are evaluated in order. The value or values of the last form argument are returned as the result of when. If no form arguments are specified, when returns nil.
```

Syntax: when test {form}* [Macro]
Examples: > (when t 1)
1
> (when nil 2)
NIL
> (when t)
NIL
> (setq foo t)
T
> (when foo (setq foo nil) 3)
3
>(when foo 4)
NIL

```
See Also: unless

\section*{Chapter 6. Macros}

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\section*{About Macros}

Macros are important tools in constructing programs. Macros enable the user to write forms that do not obey the usual rules for evaluation. They provide facilities for data abstraction that are potentially more efficient to use than functions.

A macro is not a function, but rather a functionlike object that returns a Lisp expression to be evaluated in place of the macro call.

Macros are processed in a special way by the evaluator. When the evaluator encounters a macro call form, it calls the macro whose name is the first element in this form and passes to it the rest of the elements of the macro call form as arguments. These arguments are passed unevaluated to the macro.

\section*{Macro Evaluation}

The evaluation of the macro is a process known as macro expansion. Its result is an expression that is to be evaluated in place of the macro call form. The result of the macro expansion is substituted for the original macro call form. The evaluator evaluates the results of this macro substitution and returns the results as if they were the results of the macro call. If the result of the macro expansion is again a macro call form, the entire macro evaluation process is repeated. The functions macroexpand and macroexpand-1 are used to perform the macro expansion operation.

When a program is compiled, the compiler manages the process of macro expansion. Macros may thus be used to provide an efficient data abstraction facility like that provided by functions, but without the run-time overhead involved in macro expansion. When a program using macros is compiled, the macro definition must precede the first macro use in the program text. Similarly, when a program is interpreted, all the macros in the body of the program must be known; otherwise they will be interpreted as unknown functions.

\section*{Macro Definition}

Macro definition is performed by use of the defmacro facility. The syntax for defining macros is much like that for function definition.
Defining a macro causes an expansion function for the given macro to be associated with the macro name in the global environment. The body of the macro expansion function consists of the series of form arguments specified in the macro definition. When the macro expansion function is applied to the macro call form, the parameters specified in the lambda list given in the macro definition are bound to actual argument values, and the forms in the body of the macro expansion function are executed in the context of these bindings. The result returned by the macro expansion is the result of the last form evaluated. If no forms are evaluated, nil is returned.

The syntax for macro definitions is the following:
```

(defmacro name lambda-list {declaration|documentation}* {form}*)
lambda-list::= ([kwhole var]
{var}*
[kenvironment var]
[koptional {var | (var [initform [supplied-p-parameter] ])}*]
[{krest | \&body} var]
[\&key {var|({var|(keyword var)} [initform[supplied-p-parameter] ])}*
[\&allow-other-keys]]
[kaux {var |(var [initform] )}*] )

```

\section*{Lambda Lists}

The lambda list specifies the parameters of the macro expansion function. When the macro call is processed, the parameters specified in the lambda list are bound to the actual argument values occurring in the macro call, and the forms in the body of the lambda expression are executed in the context of these bindings. Unlike the arguments to functions, however, these arguments are passed unevaluated to the macro expansion function.
= The \&whole keyword argument is optional. If it is specified, it must occur first in the lambda list. It causes the following variable to be bound to the macro call form.
- The specifiers for all required parameters must appear next in the list. If \&whole is not specified, all parameters preceding the first lambda list keyword are required parameters. Otherwise all parameters following the \&whole variable and preceding the next lambda list keyword are considered to be required parameters. The required parameters are bound to actual argument values in the order in which they occur. There must be at least as many actual argument forms as there are required parameters. If no further lambda list keywords are specified, there must be exactly as many actual arguments as parameters.
- The \&environment lambda list keyword may be used to specify a lexical environment in which the macro call is to be evaluated. If it is used, it must follow the required lambda list parameters.
- Any optional parameters must be specified next. They are preceded by the lambda list keyword \&optional. If optional parameters are specified, they are bound in order to the corresponding remaining values in the argument list. If there are no remaining arguments at any point in the processing of optional parameters, then any remaining optional parameter is bound to the value that results from the evaluation of its associated initform, if the latter is given, or to nil, if not. A supplied-p-parameter variable may be used in conjunction with an initform. Its purpose is to indicate
whether an actual argument value was supplied. It is bound to true if an actual argument was supplied; otherwise (if the initform was evaluated), it is bound to nil.
- One rest parameter may be specified next. It is preceded by the \&rest lambda list keyword. If a rest parameter has been specified, it is bound to a list consisting of all the actual arguments that have not yet been processed. If no arguments remain, the rest parameter is bound to nil.
- The \&body keyword may be used instead of \&rest. It performs the same function, but it also provides information to formatting functions.
- The use of the lambda list keyword \&key and keyword parameter specifiers enables keyword arguments to be used in macro calls. If any keyword parameters are to appear in the macro call, they must be preceded by \&key in the lambda list. These keyword parameters may be followed by the lambda list keyword \&allow-other-keys.
A keyword parameter may be specified in one of three ways. These forms differ in whether the name for the keyword to be used in the actual argument list is specified explicitly or implicitly and whether an initial value is to be used if such a keyword argument is not specified.

If a variable, var, specifies the keyword parameter, the keyword argument to be used in the argument list consists of a keyword (in the keyword package) with the same name as var. Thus, for example, \&key name in the lambda list corresponds to :name in the macro call form. If such a keyword does not appear in the argument list, var is bound to nil.

If the form (var [initform [supplied-p-parameter]]) specifies the keyword parameter, the keyword argument to be used is specified in the same way as in the simpler case discussed above. This construct, however, allows the variable to be bound to an initial value if the keyword is not specified in the argument list. The supplied-p-parameter may be used to test whether such an argument value was specified.
The form ((keyword var) [initform [supplied-p-parameter]]) allows the explicit specification of the argument list keyword that is associated with var. It also allows the variable to be bound to an initial value if the keyword is not specified in the argument list.

There must be an even number of actual keyword arguments. Keyword arguments are considered to occur in pairs. The first argument in the pair is a keyword; the second is the value to which the corresponding keyword parameter is to be bound. The keyword-value pairs may occur in any order in the argument list; they are not constrained by the order of the keyword parameters in the lambda list. If a given keyword argument is specified more than once, however, the first keyword-value pair is used in the binding of the keyword parameter. If a rest parameter has been specified, the arguments used in processing keyword parameters are the same as those used in processing the rest parameter.
- The \&allow-other-keys lambda list keyword is used to specify that the argument list may contain a keyword that does not correspond to a lambda list keyword parameter. Otherwise it is an error if such an argument pair occurs unless the argument list contains a keyword-value pair whose key is :allow-other-keys and whose value is non-nil. The \&rest keyword parameter may be used to access values specified by means of the \&allow-other-keys and :allow-other-keys constructs.

It is an error if there are remaining arguments and neither a rest parameter nor a keyword parameter has been specified.
- Finally, the \&aux lambda list keyword may be used to specify auxiliary variables. These serve as local variables within the macro expansion function. Auxiliary variables are not bound to argument list values. An auxiliary variable may be bound within the lambda expression itself or by specifying a corresponding initform in the lambda list.

Since the lambda list elements are processed in the order in which they occur, any initform may reference a parameter variable (including a supplied-p-parameter variable) that is bound earlier in the processing of the lambda list.
When the function exits, the variable bindings in effect before the function invocation are restored.

\section*{Destructuring Facility}

The macro destructuring facility provides for a generalization of the lambda list syntax. The destructuring facility allows a lambda list to appear wherever a parameter name (but not a list) can appear in a lambda list. When the actual arguments are processed, the embedded lambda list itself is bound to the form to which such a parameter would have been bound. This binding is also performed according to the method described above.

The destructuring facility allows for a dotted lambda list that ends with a parameter name. In this case, the last parameter is treated as if it had been preceded by the \&rest lambda list keyword instead.

\section*{Backquote Facility}

The backquote (') mechanism is designed to simplify the writing of macro definitions. It can be used in the macro body to create a template for the macro expansion. A list preceded by a backquote provides a list template into which elements are spliced. The backquote acts just like the quote (') construct, except that it allows the following constructs to be used.

The comma (, ) construct is used in conjunction with the backquote mechanism. If a comma immediately precedes a form in such a template, that form is evaluated and the result is spliced into the resulting list at the position where the comma and its associated form occurred. The comma thus has the effect of "unquoting" the following form.
A comma may also be followed by the at-sign symbol (e). The , e construct specifies that the evaluation of the following form produces a list of objects. These objects themselves (not the list) are inserted into the resulting list at the position where the , e and its associated form occurred.

The ,. construct is like the , e construct, except that it may have the side effect of modifying the list produced by evaluating the associated form.
Any other forms occurring in such a template are not evaluated. They remain at the same position in the resulting list as they occupy in the template.
The backquote facility is discussed further in the chapter "Input/Output."

\section*{Categories of Operations}

This section groups operations on macros according to functionality.

\section*{Macro Definition}
defmacro
define-macro macro-function

These functions are used to define macros.

\section*{Macro Expansion}
```

macroexpand
*macroexpand-hook*
macroexpand-1

```

These constructs are used to expand macros.

\section*{define-macro}

Purpose: The function define-macro is used by defmacro to do the actual defining of a new macro. It replaces the function cell of the named symbol with the specified function object.

If the function is currently traced, it remains traced, but with the new definition.
Syntax: define-macro name function
Remarks: The name argument is a symbol.
The function define-macro is an extension to Common Lisp.
Examples: > (define-macro 'foo \#'do)
FOO
> (foo ((io (1+i))) ((> i 2) i))
3
See Also: defmacro
symbol-function
*redefinition-action*

\section*{defmacro}

Purpose: The defmacro macro is used for macro definition. It causes an expansion function for the given macro name to be defined in the global environment.

The name argument of defmacro is a symbol; it is not evaluated. The defmacro macro causes a global macro expansion function to be associated with the function cell of the symbol name.
The body of the macro expansion function is specified by the form arguments. They are executed in order. The value of the last form executed is returned as the result of executing the macro.
The name of the new macro is returned as the result of defmacro.
Syntax: defmacro name lambda-list \(\{\text { declaration } \mid \text { documentation }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*} \quad\) [Macro]
Remarks: The definition of macros and the syntax of lambda lists are discussed in the section "About Macros."

A documentation string may be attached to the name of the function by use of the optional documentation argument; the documentation type for this string is function.

The defmacro macro can be used to redefine a macro or to replace a function definition with a macro definition. The Common Lisp special forms may not be redefined.

When defmacro occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in the construct (eval-when (eval compile load) ...).

Examples: > (defmacro fool (a b) '(+ ,a (* ,b 3)))
F001
\(>(f 00145)\)
19
> (defmacro foo2 (koptional (a 2 b) (c 3 d) krest \(x\) ) ' ' (, a , b , c ,d , x))
F002
\(>(f 0026)\)
( 6 T 3 NIL NIL)
\(>(f 002638)\)
(6 T 3 T (8))
> (defmacro foo3 (kwhole \(r\) a koptional (b 3) krest \(x\) \&key \(c(d a))\)
"'(,r ,a ,b ,c ,d ,x))
F003
> (foo3 16 :d 8 :c 9 :d 10)
((F003 16 :D 8 :C 9 :D 10) 1698 (:D 8 :C 9 :D 10))
```

> (defmacro f004
(\&whole (su \&rest (p \&rest q)) a \&optional (b 3) \&rest x kkey c (d a))
''(,su ,p ,a ,b ,c ,d ,x))
F004
>(foo4 1 6 :d 8 :c 9 :d 10)
(F004 1 1 6 9 8 (:D 8 :C 9 :D 10))

```

See Also: macrolet

\section*{macro-function}

Purpose: The function macro-function is used to determine whether a given symbol has a global function definition that is a macro definition. If it does, the macro expansion function is returned. If the symbol has no global function definition or is not a macro, macro-function returns nil.

Syntax: macro-function symbol
Remarks: The function macro-function examines global definitions only.
The macro setf can be used with macro-function to replace the global macro definition associated with a symbol. The function definition argument to setf must be a function of two arguments, a macro call form and an environment. It should compute the macro expansion for the call.

Examples: > (defmacro foo (x) '(macro-function 'foo)) F00
> (not (macro-function 'foo))
NIL
> (and (setf (macro-function 'foo) \#'equal)
(equal (macro-function 'foo) \#'equal))
T
> (macrolet ((foo (x) "local"))
(equal (macro-function 'foo) \#'equal))
T
See Also: defmacro

\section*{macroexpand, macroexpand-1}
Purpose: The functions macroexpand and macroexpand-1 are used to expand macros.
If the form argument is a macro call, the function macroexpand-1 expands the
macro call once. It returns the macro expansion and \(\mathbf{t}\) as its results. If the form
argument is not a macro call, macroexpand-1 returns form and nil as its results.
The function macroexpand is like macroexpand-1 except that it causes the
form argument to be expanded until it is no longer a macro call. It returns the
macro expansion and \(\mathbf{t}\) as its results. If the form argument is not a macro call,
macroexpand returns form and nil as its results.
Syntax: macroexpand form \&optional env
[Function]
macroexpand-1 form \&optional env

Remarks: The env argument specifies a lexical environment. It may be used to specify an environment in which local macro definitions exist. If it is not specified, the null lexical environment is used.
```

Examples: > (defmacro outer (x y) '(inner , x , y))
OUTER
> (defmacro inner (x y) '(aa ,x ,y))
INNER
> (defun not-a-macro (x y) x)
NOT-A-MACRO
> (defmacro env-sens (x y kenvironment e)
'(macroexpand '(inner ,x ,y)',e))
ENV-SENS
>.(macroexpand-1 '(outer a b))
(INNER A B)
T
> (macroexpand '(outer a b))
(AA A B)
T
> (macroexpand '(not-a-macro a b))
(NOT-A-MACRO A B)
NIL
> (macroexpand-1 'not-a-macro)
NOT-A-MACRO
NIL
> (env-sens a b)
(AA A B)
T

```
macroexpand, macroexpand-1
```

> (macrolet ((inner (x y) '(+ ,x ,y))) (env-sens a b))
(+ A B)
T

```

See Also: *macroexpand-hook*

\section*{*macroexpand-hook*}

Purpose: The variable *macroexpand-hook* is used to control the macro expansion process.
When a macro is expanded, the function to which *macroexpand-hook* is bound is called with three arguments: the macro expansion function, the macro call form, and the environment in which the expansion is to take place.

Syntax: *macroexpand-hook* [Variable]
Remarks: The initial value of *macroexpand-hook* is funcall.
```

Examples: > (defun hook (expander form env)
(format t "Now expanding: -s"%" form)
(funcall expander form env))
HOOK
> (defmacro foo (x y) '(/ (+ ,x ,y) 2))
FOO
> (macroexpand '(foo 1 2))
(/ (+ 1 2) 2)
T
> (let ((*macroexpand-hook* \#'hook)) (macroexpand '(foo 1 2)))
Now expanding:(FOO 1 2)
(/ (+ 1 2) 2)
T

```

See Also: macroexpand macroexpand-1 funcall

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\section*{Chapter 7. The Evaluator}

\section*{Chapter 7. The Evaluator}
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\section*{About the Evaluator}

The evaluator executes programs by evaluating forms.
The evaluator is invoked automatically in the top-level read-eval-print loop. This is the normal interpretive mode of interaction with the system in which the user types in a form, the form is read by the Lisp reader, it is evaluated by the evaluator, and the resulting value or values are printed out for the user's inspection. The read-eval-print loop then automatically re-enters a state in which it is again waiting for the user to enter a form. The top-level loop also maintains a number of global variables that enable the user to examine recent forms that have been entered and the results of their evaluation.

The evaluator may also be invoked explicitly by means of the function eval. The expression (eval form) applies the function eval to the form argument. Because eval is itself a normal function (and not a special form), the form argument is evaluated before it is passed to eval. When eval itself is explicitly invoked, the result of this argument evaluation is itself evaluated.

Before any form is executed, all the macros in it are expanded. The first time that an interpreted function is called, it is replaced by a function object; all the macros in the function body of this function object have been expanded.

The normal action of the evaluator may be modified by means of the variables *evalhook* and *applyhook* and the functions evalhook and applyhook. These allow the user to specify evaluation functions that may be useful for special purposes, such as debugging.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

These functions and variables are used in evaluation.
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline & \\
** & applyhook \\
\(* * *\) & *applyhook* \\
+ & decache-eval \\
++ & eval \\
+++ & evalhook \\
- & *evalhook* \\
\(/\) & grindef \\
\(/ /\) & *prompt* \\
\(/ / /\) & source-code \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

*,**,***

```

Purpose: The global variables *, **, and *** are maintained by the top-level read-eval-print loop to save the values of results that were printed at the end of the loop.

The variable * is bound to the last result printed, the variable ** is bound to the previous value of \(*\), and the variable \(* * *\) is bound to the previous value of \(* *\).

Syntax: *
**
*

Remarks: If more than one value is produced, * is bound to the first value only. If no value is produced, \(*\) is bound to nil.

The values of these variables are not updated when the evaluation of a form is aborted.

Examples: > 3
3
> "two"
"two"
> (values 'star "second value not retained by *")
STAR
"second value not retained by *"

* => STAR
** => "two"
*** \(\Rightarrow 3\)
NIL
See Also: /
\(+,++,+++\)
```

Purpose: The global variables }+,++\mathrm{ , and +++ are maintained by the top-level read-eval-print loop to save forms that were recently evaluated.
The variable + is bound to the last form that was evaluated, the variable ++ is bound to the previous value of + , and the variable +++ is bound to the previous value of ++ .

| Syntax: | + | [Variable] |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
|  | ++ | [Variable] |
|  | +++ |  |
| [Variable] |  |  |

```

\section*{See Also:}

Purpose: The variable - is bound to the form that is currently being evaluated by the read-eval-print loop.

/, //, ///

Purpose: The global variables /, //, and /// are maintained by the top-level read-eval-print loop to save the values of results that were printed at the end of the loop.

The variable / is bound to a list of the values that were last printed, the variable // is bound to the previous value of /, and the variable /// is bound to the previous value of //.

Syntax:
/
[Variable]
//
[Variable]
///
[Variable]
Remarks: The values of these variables are not updated when the evaluation of a form is aborted.

Examples: > (values 12 3)
1
2
3
> (floor 300/14 23)
0
150/7
> "singleton"
"singleton"
> (format t "/ => ~s~\%// => ~s\%/// => ~s~\%" / // ///)
/ => ("singleton")
// \(\Rightarrow\) ( 0 150/7)
/// => ( \(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2\end{array}\) 3)
NIL
See Also: *
**
***

\section*{decache-eval}
Purpose: \begin{tabular}{l} 
The function decache-eval forces the re-expansion of all function bodies when \\
they are next executed.
\end{tabular}
Syntax: decache-eval
[Function]

Remarks: The function decache-eval should normally be used only in exceptional situations or in the debugging of macros.
The first time that an interpreted function is called, it is replaced by a function object; all the macros in the function body of this function object have been expanded. After a macro has been redefined or a function has been redefined as a macro, the re-expansion of the function body will occur automatically when the body of the function is next entered. The function decache-eval need not be invoked in this situation.

Redefinition of a function while that function is running may cause unpredictable results.
The function decache-eval is an extension to Common Lisp.
Examples: > (defvar *expand-counter* 0)
*EXPAND-COUNTER*
> (defmacro return-counter () (incf *expand-counter*)) RETURN-COUNTER
> (defun use-return-counter () (return-counter))
USE-RETURN-COUNTER
> *expand-counter*
1
> (use-return-counter)
2
*expand-counter*
2
(use-return-counter)
2
(decache-eval)
T
*expand-counter*
2
(use-return-counter)
3
> (use-return-counter)
3
See Also: eval

\section*{eval}

Purpose: The function eval evaluates its form argument and returns the result.
The evaluation takes place in the current dynamic environment and a null lexical environment.

Syntax: eval form
[Function]
Remarks: The function eval handles its arguments in the normal way. That is, the argument is evaluated before it is passed to the function eval. Two levels of evaluation thus take place.

Examples: > (setq form ' \({ }^{(1+}\) a) a 999)
999
> (eval form)
1000
> (eval 'form)
( \(1+\mathrm{A}\) )
> (let ((a'(this would break if eval used local value))) (eval form)) 1000

\section*{evalhook, applyhook}

Purpose: The functions evalhook and applyhook rebind the variables *evalhook* and *applyhook* for the course of the execution of one form or one function respectively.

The function evalhook temporarily rebinds the *evalhook* variable to the evalhookfn function and the *applyhook* variable to the applyhookfn function and then evaluates the specified form.

The function applyhook operates similarly. It temporarily rebinds the *evalhook* variable to the evalhookfn function and the *applyhook* variable to the applyhookfn function and then applies the function argument to the argument list specified by args.

Both the evalhook and applyhook functions rebind the *evalhook* and *applyhook* variables for the evaluation of the top-level form or function only and not for the evaluation of subforms.

The optional env argument may be used to specify the lexical environment in which the evaluation is to occur. If it is nil or not specified, the null lexical environment is used.
```

Syntax: evalhook form evalhookfn applyhookfn \&optional env
applyhook function args evalhookfn applyhookfn \&optional env [Function]
Examples: > (defvar *foo*)
*F00*
> (defun hook1 (x)
(let ((*evalhook* \#'eval-hook-function))
(eval x)))
H00K1
> (defun eval-hook-function (form koptional env)
(setq *foo* form)
(evalhook form \#'eval-hook-function nil env))
EVAL-HOOK-FUNCTION
> (defun hook2 (x)
(let ((*applyhook* \#'apply-hook-function))
(eval x)))
H00К2
> (defun apply-hook-function (fun args koptional env)
(setq *foo* (car args)))
APPLY-HOOK-FUNCTION

```

\section*{evalhook, applyhook}
```

    > (let ((*foo* nil)) (hook1 t) *foo*)
    (QUOTE T)
    > (let ((*foo* nil)) (hook2 '(car (cons t 2))) *foo*)
    (CAR (CONS T 2))
    ```

See Also: eval
*evalhook*
*applyhook*

\section*{*evalhook*, *applyhook*}

Purpose: The global variables *evalhook* and *applyhook* are used to modify the behavior of eval.

If the values of *evalhook* and *applyhook* are nil, eval has its usual behavior. By rebinding *evalhook* or *applyhook*, users can replace the evaluator with their own functions for evaluating forms and functions.

The *evalhook* variable may be rebound to a function of two arguments: a form and an environment. When any form is to be evaluated, this hook function is invoked instead of eval to evaluate the form. The form to be evaluated is passed to the hook function without any prior evaluation. The results of executing the hook function are returned as if they were the results of having executed eval.

The *applyhook* variable may be rebound to a function of three arguments: a function, a list of arguments, and an environment. The applyhook function is invoked whenever a function is to be applied to arguments. The results of executing the hook function are returned as if they were the results of having applied the function to its arguments in the usual way.

Whenever either of the hook functions is itself invoked, the values of both *evalhook* and *applyhook* are nil. The functions specified by the hooks are thus invoked in the normal way.

Syntax: *evalhook*
*applyhook*
[Variable]
Remarks: An environment argument may be used to specify the lexical environment in which the evaluation is to occur. If it is nil or not specified, the null lexical environment is used.

The hook function is only relevant to interpreted calls to functions.
If there is a throw back to the top level, both *evalhook* and *applyhook* are automatically reset to nil.
```

Examples: > (defvar *last-form*)
*LAST-FORM*
> (defun ehook (form koptional env)
(setq *last-form* form)
(eval form))
EHOOK
> (let ((*evalhook* \#'ehook)) (+ 1 2 3))
6

```
*evalhook*, *applyhook*
```

> *last-form*
(+ 1 2 3)
> (defun ahook (f args koptional env) (cdr args))
AHOOK
> (let ((*applyhook* \#'ahook)) (+ 1 2 3))
(2 3)

```

\section*{See Also: eval}
evalhook
applyhook

\section*{grindef}

Purpose: The grindef macro pretty-prints the source code associated with the name of an interpreted function. The macro grindef returns no values.

Syntax: grindef \&rest function-name
[Macro]
Remarks: The function-name argument is not evaluated.
The macro grindef is an extension to Common Lisp.
Examples: > (defun grist (x y)

GRIST
> (grindef grist)
(DEFUN GRIST
( X Y) (LET ((A 1)
*prompt*

Purpose: The global variable *prompt* is used to specify the string to be used as a prompt in the top-level read-eval-print loop. Initially, *prompt* is unbound and the default prompt string (>) is used.

Syntax: *prompt* [Variable]
Remarks: The variable *prompt* is an extension to Common Lisp.
Examples: > (setq *prompt* "at your service! " dummy nil) NIL
at your service! 999
999
at your service! (makunbound '*prompt*) *PROMPT*
> 999
999

\section*{source-code}

Purpose: The function source-code returns the source code of an interpreted function.
The function argument may be a function object or a symbol. If the argument is an interpreted function or a symbol that has a function definition that is an interpreted function, the source code of the function is returned. Otherwise source-code returns nil.

Syntax: source-code function [Function]
Remarks: The function source-code is an extension to Common Lisp.
```

Examples: > (source-code \#'car)
NIL
> (source-code \#'(lambda (x) (1+ x)))
(LAMBDA (X) (1+ X))
> (defun ink (x) (1+ x))
INK
> (source-code \#'ink)
(NAMED-LAMBDA INK (X) (BLOCK INK (1+ X)))

```

\section*{Chapter 8. Declarations}

\section*{Chapter 8. Declarations}
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\section*{About Declarations}

Declarations are used to affect the status of variable bindings, to provide advice to the compiler, and to add documentation to a program.

With the exception of special declarations, declarations are optional and are used as advice to the compiler. The meaning of a correct program is not affected by declarations other than special declarations.

The use of declarations, however, may have a significant impact on the efficiency of compiled code. The user is referred to the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide for more information about compiled code.

The proclaim function is used to make global declarations. Such global declarations are also called proclamations. The declare special form is used for local declarations within other Common Lisp forms. Unless explicitly noted, the term "declaration" is used to refer to both declarations and proclamations.

\section*{Syntax for Declaration Specifiers}
```

decl-spec::=(special $\left.\{v a r\}^{*}\right)$
| (type type-specifier $\left.\{v a r\}^{*}\right)$
| (ftype type-specifier \{function-name\}*)
|(function function-name (\{type-specifier $\}^{*}$ ) \{type-specifier $\left.\}^{*}\right)$
| (inline \{function-name\}*)
| (notinline \{function-name\}*)
| (ignore \{var\}*)
| (optimize \{quality value\}*)
| (declaration \{declaration-name $\}^{*}$ )
quality::= speed $\mid$ space $\mid$ safety $\mid$ compilation-speed
value::=0|1|2|3

```

\section*{Types of Declarations}

A special declaration specifies that the given variables are all special variables. References to the variables thus refer to the dynamic binding of the variables. If the declare special form is used to make a special declaration, the declaration observes the rules of lexical scope. If, however, a special proclamation is made, all bindings of variables with the given name are special.

A type declaration asserts that the given variables will only have values of the specified type. A short form of this declaration, (type-specifier \(\{v a r\}^{*}\) ), may be used if the type specifier is one of the atomic types listed in Figure 3-1. The type declaration applies only to those variables whose bindings are established by the form in which the declaration occurs. Type proclamations take effect only for special bindings of such variables. The type declaration is used to enable the compiler to produce more efficient code.

An ftype declaration is used to specify that a series of functions are of a given function type. This means that whenever the arguments of these functions are of the indicated types, the results of the functions will also be of the types specified in the ftype declaration. A function declaration is equivalent to an ftype declaration of the form (ftype (function arglist (values result-type1 result-type2 ...) name)). This abbreviated form is provided for convenience. An ftype or function declaration obeys the rules of lexical scoping. The ftype and function declarations are used to enable the compiler to produce more efficient code.

An inline declaration specifies that it is desirable that the code for a given function be compiled in-line, rather than as a function call. An inline declaration obeys the rules of lexical scoping. A notinline declaration specifies that the code for the given function is not to be compiled in-line, but rather as a function call. The inline and notinline declaration types apply to all occurrences of the specified function in the body of the form in which the declaration occurs. Both inline and notinline declarations are ignored by the interpreter.

An ignore declaration applies only to those variables whose bindings are established by the form in which the declaration occurs. An ignore declaration prevents the compiler from issuing a warning if any of the given variables are not referenced in the body of code.

An optimize declaration provides advice to the compiler about what trade-offs should be made in optimizing code. There are four optimization classes: speed, safety, space, and compilation-speed. Each class may be assigned an integer value between 0 and 3. This value indicates the priority assigned to that type of optimization; the highest priority is 3 , the lowest is 0 . In Sun Common Lisp, the default values are speed 3, safety 1, space 0 , and compilation-speed 0 . An optimize declaration applies to all of the code in the body of the form in which it occurs.

A declaration proclamation specifies that the given declaration names are not names of standard declarations, although they may be used as such. A declaration proclamation advises the compiler that warnings are not to be issued if the given names are used as declaration specifiers. The declaration declaration specifier may be used in proclamations only.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

These constructs are used to specify declarations.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
declare & locally \\
proclaim & the
\end{tabular}

\section*{declare}

Purpose: The declare special form may be used to make declarations within certain forms. Declarations may occur in lambda expressions and in the following forms:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
defmacro & \begin{tabular}{l} 
do-symbols \\
dolist
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l} 
macrolet \\
defsetf
\end{tabular} \\
multiple-value-bind \\
deftype & dotimes & prog \\
defun & flet & prog* \\
\hline do & labels & with-open-stream \\
do* & let & with-open-file \\
do-all-symbols & let* & with-output-to-string \\
do-external-symbols & locally & with-input-from-string \\
declare \(\left\{\right.\) decl-spec\} \({ }^{*}\) & & \\
[Special Form]
\end{tabular}

Syntax: declare \(\{\text { decl-spec }\}^{*}\)
[Special Form]
Remarks: Declarations may only occur where specified by the syntax of these forms.
Macro calls may expand into declarations as long as this syntax is observed.
The declaration specifier argument is not evaluated.
Examples: > (defun foo (y)
; this \(y\) is regarded as special
(declare (special y))
(let \(((y t)) \quad ;\) this \(y\) is regarded as lexical (list y
(locally (declare (special y)) y))) ; this y refers to the ; special binding of \(y\)
FOO
> (foo nil)
(T NIL)
See Also: proclaim

\section*{locally}

Purpose: The locally macro is used to make local declarations that affect only the form arguments in its body.

Syntax: locally \(\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) [Macro]
```

Examples: > (defun foo (y) ;this y is regarded as special
(declare (special y))
(let ((y t)) ;this y is regarded as lexical
(list y
(locally (declare (special y)) y)))) ;this y refers to the
;special binding of y
F00
>(foo nil)
(T NIL)

```

\section*{proclaim}

Purpose: The proclaim function is used to make a global declaration or proclamation. A proclamation whose declaration specifier declares a variable to be special causes all occurrences of that variable name to be special references.

Syntax:
proclaim decl-spec
[Function]
Remarks: Although the effect of the proclamation is global, it may be overridden by a local declaration.

Type proclamations take effect only for special bindings of variables.
The argument of proclaim is evaluated. It may therefore be a computed declaration specifier.

Examples: > (proclaim'(special prosp))
T
\(>\) (setq prosp 1 reg 1\()\)
1
> (let ((prosp 2) (reg 2)) ; the binding of prosp is special (set 'prosp 3) (set 'reg 3) ;due to the preceding proclamation, (list prosp reg)) ;whereas the variabie reg is lexical
(3 2)
> (list prosp reg)
(1 3)
See Also: declare
defvar
defparameter

\section*{the}

Purpose: The the special form is used to specify that the value produced by a form will be of a certain type.

The the special form returns the value or values that result from the evaluation of the form argument.

Syntax: the value-type form
[Special Form]
Remarks: The value-type argument is a type specifier; it is not evaluated.
The macro setf may be used with the type declarations. In this case the declaration is transferred to the form that specifies the new value. The resulting setf form is then analyzed.

The form the is mainly used by the compiler to produce more efficient code.
```

Examples: > (the list '(a b))
(A B)
> (the (values integer list) (values 5 '(a b)))
5
(A B)
> (let ((i 100))
(declare (fixnum i))
(the fixnum (1+ i)))
1 0 1

```

\section*{Chapter 9. Predicates}

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\section*{About Predicates}

Predicates are functions that test for some condition involving their arguments. They return nil if the condition is false and some non-nil value if the condition is true. The symbol \(\mathbf{t}\) is used as the standard true value if no more specific non-nil value is available. The values of \(t\) and nil cannot be modified.

A predicate is said to be true of an object if it returns a non-nil value and false if it returns nil.

Constructs that test for logical values consider any non-nil value to be true; only nil is considered to be false.

This chapter discusses logical predicates and constants and the predicates that test for the equality of two objects. Data type predicates are discussed in the chapters that follow.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

These constructs are used in logical operations.

\section*{Equality Predicates}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline eq & equal \\
eql & equalp \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The predicates eq, eql, equal, equalp provide a range of equality tests, from the most specific (eq) to the most general (equalp). Any objects that satisfy one of the equality tests also satisfy any such equality test that is more general.

\section*{Logical Constants}
\(\mathbf{t}\) nil

These constants specify logical values.

\section*{Logical Operators}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline and & not \\
or
\end{tabular}

These macros perform logical operations.

\section*{and}

Purpose: The macro and evaluates each of its arguments in turn. As soon as any form evaluates to nil, and returns nil without evaluating the remaining forms. If all forms but the last evaluate to non-nil values, and returns the results produced by evaluating the last of the forms.

Syntax: and \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
[Macro]
Remarks: The result of evaluating the expression (and) is \(t\).
Examples: > (setq fool 1 foo 21 foo3 1)
1
\(>\) (and (incf foo1) (incf foo2) (incf foo3))
2
\(>\) (and (eql 2 fool) (eql 2 foo2) (eql 2 foo3))
T
\(>\) (decf foo3)
1
> (and (decf foo1) (decf foo2) (eq 'foo 'nil) (decf foo3))
NIL
> (and (eql fool foo2) (eql foo2 foo3))
T
> (and)
T
See Also: or
eq

Purpose: The predicate eq is true of two objects if they are both the same object, that is, if they both occupy the same memory locations; otherwise it is false.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: & eq \(x y\) & [Function]
\end{tabular}

Remarks: Objects that are printed the same may or may not be eq. Symbols having the same print name are usually eq because of the use of the function intern. Numbers having the same value, however, are often not eq.

Examples: > (eq 3 3.0)
NIL
> (eq (cons 'a 'b) (cons 'a 'b))
NIL
> (eq "Foo" (copy-seq "Foo"))
NIL
See Also: eql
equal
equalp
\(=\)

\section*{eql}

Purpose: The predicate eql is true of two objects if they are eq, if they are both numbers of the same type and the same value, or if they are both character objects that represent the same character; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: eql \(\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\)
[Function]
Remarks: The predicate eql may not be true of floating-point numbers even when they represent the same value. The predicate \(=\) should be used instead when comparing mathematical values.

Two complex numbers are eql if both their real and imaginary parts are eql.
Examples: > (eql 3 3.0)
NIL
> (eql (cons 'a 'b) (cons 'a 'b)) NIL

See Also: eq
equal
equalp
=

\section*{equal}

Purpose: The predicate equal is true of two objects if they are symbols that are eq, if they are numbers that are eql, or if they are character objects that are eql.
Objects that have components are equal if they are both of the same type and if the corresponding components of each are equal.
Arrays other than strings and bit-vectors are equal only if they are eq. Strings and bit-vectors are compared up to the limits specified by fill pointers (if any). They are equal if and only if the fill pointers are \(=\) and if the corresponding elements of each are equal. Character case differences in strings are observed by equal.

Pathnames that are printed the same are equal.
Syntax: equal \(x y\)
[Function]
Remarks: The predicate equal may fail to terminate if its arguments are circular structures.
Examples: > (equal 3.0 3.0)
\(T\)
> (equal (cons 'a 'b) (cons 'a 'b)) T
(equal "Foo" "Foo")
3
> (equal "Foo" "foo")
NIL
See Also: eq
eql
equalp
\(=\)
string \(=\)
string-equal
char \(=\)
char-equal
tree-equal

\section*{equalp}Purpose: The predicate equalp is true of two objects if they are equal, if they are charactersthat are char-equal, or if they are numbers that are \(=\). Objects that havecomponents are equalp if they are both of the same type and if the correspondingelements of each are equalp.
Two arrays are equalp if and only if they have the same number of dimensions, the dimensions are of the same length, and the corresponding elements of each are equalp. If, however, either array has a fill pointer, then the arrays are compared only up to the limits specified by the fill pointers. They are equalp if and only if the fill pointers are \(=\) and the corresponding elements of each are equalp.
\(\begin{array}{lll}\text { Syntax: equalp } x & y & \text { [Function] }\end{array}\)

\title{
Remarks: The predicate equalp ignores case differences when comparing character or string objects.
}
The predicate equalp may fail to terminate if its arguments are circular structures.

\section*{Examples: > (equalp 3.0 3.0)}
T
> (equalp "Foo" "foo")
T
See Also: eq
eql
equal
=
string \(=\)
string-equal
char \(=\)
char-equal
Purpose: \begin{tabular}{l} 
The value of the constant nil is nil. The constant nil represents both the logical \\
false value and the empty list. It is also written as (). \\
Syntax: nil \\
Remarks: It is not possible to modify the value of nil. \\
Examples: > nil \\
NIL \\
See Also: \(\quad t\)
\end{tabular},\(l\)

\section*{not}

Purpose: The function not returns \(\mathbf{t}\) if its argument is nil; otherwise it returns nil.
Syntax: not \(\boldsymbol{x}\)
Remarks: The result of applying not to an object is the same as that of using null. The function not is intended to be used in inverting a logical value, whereas null is intended to be used in testing for an empty list.

Examples: > (not nil)
\(T\)
(not (integerp \({ }^{\text {ssss) })}\)
\(T\)
> (not (integerp 1))
NIL
See Also: null

\section*{Or}

Purpose: The macro or evaluates each of its arguments in turn. As soon as any form evaluates to a non-nil value, or returns that value without evaluating the remaining forms. If all forms but the last evaluate to nil, or returns the results produced by evaluating that form.

Syntax: or \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
[Macro]
Remarks: The result of evaluating the expression (or) is nil.
```

Examples: > (or)
NIL
> (setq fool 1 foo2 1 foo3 1)
1
> (or nil nil foo1 (setq foo2 nil))
1
>(eq foo2 nil)
NIL
> (or (incf foo1) (incf foo2) (incf foo3))
2
fool
2
> foo2
1
> foo3
1

```

See Also: and

Purpose: The value of the constant \(\mathbf{t}\) is \(\mathbf{t}\).
Syntax: t [Constant]

Remarks: It is not possible to modify the value of \(t\).
Examples: \(\begin{gathered} \\ \\ \\ T\end{gathered}\)
See Also: nil
\(\qquad\)

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\section*{Chapter 10. Symbols}

\section*{Chapter 10. Symbols}
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\section*{About Symbols}

Symbols are data objects with five components: a print name, a value cell, a function cell, a property list, and a package cell.

The print name is a string that is used to identify and locate the symbol. Symbol names are unique within a package.

The value cell is the cell that holds the current value of the dynamic variable associated with the symbol. When a new symbol is created, the contents of this cell are normally undefined, and the variable is said to be unbound. An error occurs if such an unbound variable is accessed. A value may be associated with this cell by assignment functions or by constructs that establish new variable bindings. Constructs for accessing the value cell and for binding and unbinding a symbol are discussed in the chapters "Program Structure" and "Control Structure."

The function cell contains the global function definition associated with the symbol. When a new symbol is created, the contents of this cell are also normally undefined. Accessing it in this state causes an error. A value may be associated with the function cell through the various function definition constructs. Constructs for accessing and modifying the function cell of a symbol are discussed in the chapters "Program Structure" and "Control Structure."

A property list allows an extensible set of named components to be associated with a symbol. A component may be any Lisp object. Each successive two elements of the property list constitute an entry. The first element of an entry is the indicator, or property name, and the second element is the property value. Indicators within the same property list are unique. When a symbol is created, its property list is empty.

The package cell refers to a package object. A package is a Common Lisp object that specifies a correspondence between print name strings and symbols. It is used to locate a symbol. A symbol is owned by only one package. The package that owns the symbol is called the symbol's home package. The package cell of the symbol specifies the symbol's home package. If a symbol is owned by a package, it is said to be an interned symbol. Symbols not owned by any package are uninterned symbols. The package cell of an uninterned symbol is nil. An uninterned symbol is normally printed as \#: followed by its print name. Packages are discussed in the chapter "Packages."
When a symbol identifier is read by the Lisp reader, an interned symbol is normally created automatically. If a symbol with this name is not already accessible in the current package, a new one is created whose print name corresponds to the identifier. If such a symbol identifier contains lowercase characters, the Lisp reader converts them to uppercase unless they are preceded by the escape character \(\backslash\) or enclosed by the \(\mid\) multiple escape characters.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

This section groups operations on symbols according to functionality.

\section*{Data Type Predicates}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline symbolp & keywordp \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These predicates determine whether an object is a symbol.

\section*{Functions on Property Lists}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{ll} 
get \\
getf \\
get-properties
\end{tabular} & remf \\
& remprop \\
symbol-plist
\end{tabular}

These functions may be used to access and alter a symbol's property list,

\section*{Functions on Package Cells and Print Names}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline symbol-name & symbol-package \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These functions may be used to access package cells and print names.

\section*{Creating Symbols}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline copy-symbol & \begin{tabular}{l} 
gensym \\
make-symbol
\end{tabular} \\
gentemp
\end{tabular}

These functions provide for the creation of uninterned and interned symbols.

\section*{copy-symbol}

Purpose: The function copy-symbol creates and returns a new uninterned symbol whose print name is the same as that of a given symbol.

If the copy-props argument is non-nil, the contents of the new symbol's value and function cells and its property list are copied from symbol. If the copy-props argument is nil, the contents of the symbol's value and function cells are undefined, and the symbol's property list is empty.

Syntax: copy-symbol symbol koptional copy-props [Function]
Examples: > (setq *symbol* t) \(T\)
> (symbol-package (copy-symbol *symbol*)) NIL
> (boundp (copy-symbol *symbol*)) NIL > (boundp (copy-symbol *symbol* t)) T

See Also: make-symbol

\section*{gensym}

Purpose: The function gensym creates and returns a new uninterned symbol. The print name of the symbol consists of a prefix followed by a positive decimal integer.

Syntax: gensym toptional \(\boldsymbol{x}\)
[Function]
Remarks: The optional argument may be a string or a positive integer. If the optional argument is not specified, the prefix for the symbol's print name is G, and the number is a count value maintained by gensym. If a string is specified, gensym uses that string as a prefix for the current and future calls. If a positive integer value is specified, the internal counter of gensym is reset to that value.

Examples: > (symbol-package (gensym))
NIL
> (symbol-name (gensym 99))
"G99"
> (symbol-name (gensym "FoO"))
"Fo0100"
> (symbol-name (gensym))
"Fo0101"
> (symbol-name (gensym 2))
"Foũ2"
> (symbol-name (gensym "G1"))
"G13"
See Also: gentemp

\section*{gentemp}

Purpose: The function gentemp creates and returns a new symbol.
The symbol created is interned in the package package. If the package argument is not specified, the symbol is interned in the current package. It is guaranteed that the symbol created will be unique within the package.

Syntax: gentemp aoptional prefix package
[Function]
Remarks: The name of the symbol is prefixed by the string specified by the prefix argument. If the prefix argument is not specified, the name is prefixed by \(\mathbf{T}\) followed by a nonnegative integer value. This number is a counter value maintained by gentemp.

Any prefix specified is not retained across separate calls to gentemp.
Examples: > (symbol-name (gentemp)) "TO"
> (find-symbol "TO")
T0
:INTERNAL
> (symbol-name (gentemp "likely-unique" (find-package 'lisp)))
"likely-unique0"
> (find-symbol "likely-unique0")
NIL
NIL
> (find-symbol "likely-unique0" (find-package 'lisp))
LISP::|likely-uniqueO|
:INTERNAL
See Also: gensym
get

Purpose: The function get searches a symbol's property list for an indicator identical (eq) to its indicator argument. If one is found, the value associated with it is returned. If no such indicator is found and the default argument is specified, the default value is returned; otherwise get returns nil.

Syntax: get symbol indicator koptional default [Function]
Remarks: The macro setf may be used with get to replace the value associated with a property name or to insert a new property-value pair.

Examples: > (setq *symbol* (gensym))
\#:G2
> (setq *indicator* (gensym)) \#:G3
> (setq *value* (gensym))
\#:G4
> (get *symbol* *indicator*)
NIL.
> (get *symbol* *indicator* 'foo)
F00
> (setf (get *symbol* *indicator*) *value*)
\#:G4
> (eq (get *gymbol* *indicator* 'foo) *value*)
T
See Also: getf
symbol-plist

\section*{getf, get-properties}

Purpose: The functions getf and get-properties are used to access property list entries.
The function getf searches the property list stored in place. It returns the property value associated with the indicator that is identical (eq) to the indicator argument. If the given indicator is not found and a default value is specified, then default is returned; otherwise getf returns nil.

The function get-properties is like getf except that its second argument is a list of indicators, and it returns three values. It searches the property list for the first entry whose indicator is identical (eq) to one of the indicators in the indicator list. If such an entry is found, the first two values returned are the indicator and its associated property value, and the third value is the tail of the sublist of the property list whose car is the indicator. If no such entry is found, all three values are nil.

Syntax: getf place indicator koptional default
get-properties place indicator-list
[Function]
Remarks: If the place argument is a generalized variable acceptable to the macro setf, then setf may be used with the function getf to replace the value associated with an indicator or to create a new entry (indicator and property value).

Examples: > (setq \(\times(\) cons \()())\)
(NIL)
> (setq *indicator-list* '(prop1 prop2)) (PROP1 PROP2)
> (getf (car x) 'prop1)
NIL
> (setf (getf (car x) 'prop1) 'val1)
VAL1
> (eq (getf (car x) 'prop1) 'vall)
T
> (get-properties (car x) *indicator-list*)
PROP1
valı
(PROP1 VAL1)
See Also: get

\section*{keywordp}

Purpose: The predicate keywordp is true if its argument is a symbol and if that symbol belongs to the keyword package; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: keywordp object [Function]
Remarks: A keyword is written with a leading colon.
A keyword is a constant and evaluates to itself.
```

Examples: > (keywordp :optional)
T
> (keywordp ':optional)
T
> (keywordp '(:optional))
NIL
> (keywordp 'optional)
NIL

```

\section*{make-symbol}


\section*{remf}

Purpose: The macro remf is used to remove an entry from a property list. It removes from the property list found in place both the property whose indicator is identical (eq) to the indicator argument and its associated property value. The function remf returns a non-nil value if the property was found; otherwise it returns nil.

Syntax:
remf place indicator
[Macro]
Remarks: The place argument must be a generalized variable acceptable to the macro setf.
Examples: > (setq x (cons () ())
(NIL)
> (setf (getf (car x) 'prop1) 'val1)
valı
> (remf (car x) 'prop1)
\(T\)
> (remf (car x) 'prop1)
NIL
See Also: remprop
getf

\section*{remprop}

Purpose: The function remprop is used to remove an entry from the property list of a symbol. It removes from the property list of symbol both the property whose indicator is identical (eq) to the indicator argument and its associated property value. The function remprop returns a non-nil value if the specified property was found; otherwise it returns nil.

Syntax: remprop symbol indicator
Examples: > (setq *symbol* (gensym)) \#:G51
> (remprop *symbol* 'prop1) NIL
> (setf (get *symbol* 'prop1) 'val1) VAL1
> (remprop *symbol* 'prop1) (PROP1 VAL1)
> (remprop *symbol* 'prop1) NIL

See Also: remf

\section*{symbol-name}

Purpose: The function symbol-name returns the print name of a given symbol.
Syntax: symbol-name symbol [Function]
Examples: > (symbol-name 'foo) "FOO"
> (symbol-name (gensym)) "G52"

\section*{symbol-package}

Purpose: The function symbol-package returns the contents of the package cell of a given symbol. If no package object is associated with this cell, symbol-package returns nil.

Syntax: symbol-package symbol
[Function]
Examples: > (symbol-package :optional) \#<Package "KEYWORD" 30DC43> > (symbol-package (gensym)) NIL

\section*{symbol-plist}

Purpose: The function symbol-plist returns the property list of a given symbol.
Syntax: symbol-plist symbol
[Function]
Remarks: The macro setf may be used with symbol-plist to replace the property list of a symbol.

Examples: > (defvar *sym* (gensym)) *SYM*
> (symbol-plist *sym*)
NIL
> (setf (get *sym* 'prop1) 'val1)
VAL1
> (symbol-plist *sym*)
(PROP1 VAL1)
> (setf (get *gym* 'prop2) 'val2)
VAL2
> (symbol-plist *sym*)
(PROP2 VAL2 PROP1 VAL1)
> (setf (symbol-plist *sym*) '(prop3 val3)) (PROP3 VAL3)
> (symbol-plist *sym*)
(PROP3 VAL3)

\section*{symbolp}

Purpose: The predicate symbolp is true if its argument is a symbol; otherwise it is false.
Syntax: symbolp object [Function]
Examples: > (symbolp 'sss)
T
> (symbolp 12)
NIL
> (symbolp nil)
T
> (symbolp :test)
T

\section*{Chapter 11. Packages}

\section*{Chapter 11. Packages}
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\section*{About Packages}

A package is a Common Lisp object that specifies a correspondence between print name strings and symbols. The package facility may be used to create a hierarchical program name space and to increase program modularity. Packages enable the user to avoid name conflicts that may arise when separate modules become part of the same system. By the use of packages, two different modules using the same name for different internal purposes can do so safely and without name conflicts. There are also constructs that are designed to enable a package to reference the symbols of other packages in a convenient and transparent manner.
Package names are unique. In addition to its name, a package may also have nicknames. A package renaming operation is available, should conflicts among package names arise.
Like symbol names, when package names are read by the Lisp reader, lowercase characters are converted to uppercase unless they are preceded by the escape character \(\backslash\) or enclosed by the \(\mid\) multiple escape characters. Operations that compare package names are sensitive to these conventions.

The symbols whose string-to-symbol mappings are defined within the package are said to be present in the package. Each such symbol is either an external or an internal symbol of that package, but not both. An external symbol of a package is part of that package's public interface and is accessible to other packages. An internal symbol is intended for the private use of the package.

Names within a package are unique. Two different symbols with the same name may only exist in separate packages. Note, however, that the same symbol may be an external symbol in some packages and an internal symbol in others.
A symbol is owned by only one package. The package that owns the symbol is called the symbol's home package. The package cell of the symbol specifies the symbol's home package. If a symbol is owned by a package, it is said to be an interned symbol. Symbols not owned by any package are uninterned symbols. The package cell of an uninterned symbol is nil. The name of an uninterned symbol is printed with a leading \#:. The symbol-package function may be used to determine a symbol's home package.

A symbol is accessible in a package if it is present in the package or if it has been inherited from some other package by means of the use-package construct. Only the external symbols of a package may be inherited by some other package.

Only one package is current at any given time. The Lisp reader interprets names as symbols according to the mappings specified by the current package. The current package is the package that is specified by the global variable *package*.

Any symbol in any package can be referenced, no matter what the current package is. An external, internal, or inherited symbol of the current package may simply be referenced by its name. To reference an external symbol of some other package, the symbol name is qualified by preceding it with the package name and one colon. To reference a symbol
of some other package without regard to whether it is an external or an internal symbol, the symbol name is qualified by preceding it with the package name and two colons. Since internal symbols are normally intended for the private use of a package, accessing the internal symbols of a package that is not current may cause the integrity of the package system to be violated.

There are several functions that influence which symbols are accessible in a package. These functions are briefly described here. For a complete description, the user is referred to the individual function pages.

A package controls which of its symbols may be inherited by another package by means of the export construct. The external symbols of a package are those symbols that have been exported from the package. Only exported symbols may be inherited. It is customary to list all external symbols of a package with an export at the beginning of the definition of the package.
The use-package construct causes the external symbols of the used package to become inherited symbols of the using package. As such they are accessible in the using package. It is not necessary to qualify their names when the using package is current. If any external symbols are added to the used package, they are automatically inherited by the using package.
The function intern may be used to create a new symbol and enter it into a package as an internal symbol, as long as a symbol with that name is not already accessible in the package. If such a symbol already exists, the existing symbol is simply returned.

The function import may be used to enter any existing symbol into a package as an internal symbol, as long as a symbol with that name is not already accessible in the package. The shadowing-import function is used to import a symbol without regard to whether another symbol with the same name is already accessible. The function shadow checks whether a symbol with a given name is already present in a package and, if it is not, causes one with that name to be created as an internal symbol of the package.
The functions unintern, unexport, and unuse-package are used to undo the effects of intern, export, and use-package respectively.
A symbol name conflict exists whenever a name can be interpreted as any of two or more different symbols. Sun Common Lisp is designed so that name conflicts will never arise without being noticed. Whenever a function changes the package environment, the changes are carefully checked and an error is signaled if a name conflict occurs. The matching of the names of symbols and of packages is case sensitive.

\section*{Built-in Packages}

Sun Common Lisp has four basic packages: lisp, user, keyword, and system.
- The lisp package contains the basis of the Common Lisp system. All the predefined Common Lisp functions, macros, constants, variables, and special forms, are external symbols in the lisp package. As a result, virtually all other packages use the lisp package.
- The user package is the package that normally becomes current when Common Lisp is started. The user package uses the lisp package.
- The keyword package consists of all the keyword symbols. Symbols in the keyword package are always external, and all are constants that evaluate to themselves. This eliminates the need to quote keywords in function calls. The names of keywords always start with a colon. Keywords should never be imported. Other packages may not use the keyword package.
- The system package is an implementation-dependent package reserved for internal system functions. It has the nickname sys. The system package uses the lisp package. Any symbol that is the name of a construct that is an extension to Common Lisp described in this manual is an external symbol in the system package.

\section*{Loading Files into Packages}

The normal way of specifying the package into which a file is to be loaded is to begin the file with a call to in-package. This function accepts a package name, a nickname list, and a use-package list. If the in-package construct is not used, the file will be loaded into the current package. If a file does not specify what package it should be in, by means of the in-package construct, the name of the package that was current when the file was compiled is not retained. Unpredictable results may occur if the package that is current at load time is different from the package that is current at compilation.
Whenever the function load is used, it remembers the initial value of *package* (the current package) and restores that value to *package* after the file loading has finished. Thus, using load to process a file will always preserve the current package, even if the file calls in-package.

\section*{Modules}

A module is a collection of one or more files that are always loaded together to provide some particular capability. A program can indicate that it wants a particular module to be loaded if and only if that module has not already been loaded. To make this work, Common Lisp keeps a list, in the variable *modules*, of the names of modules that have been loaded. The function provide is used to update the \(\approx\) modules \(*\) list to indicate that a given module has been loaded. Thus, one call to provide should occur in each module. The function require names a module that is needed; if the module has not already been loaded, it is loaded from the pathname(s) specified in the call to require.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

This section groups operations on packages according to functionality.

\section*{Data Type Predicates}
packagep

This predicate determines whether an object is a package.

\section*{Operations on Packages}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
delete-package & *package* \\
do-all-symbols & package-name \\
do-external-symbols & package-nicknames \\
do-symbols & package-shadowing-symbols \\
export & package-use-list \\
find-all-symbols & package-used-by-list \\
find-package & rename-package \\
find-symbol & shadow \\
import & shadowing-import \\
in-package & unexport \\
intern & unintern \\
list-all-packages & unuse-package \\
make-package & use-package
\end{tabular}

These constructs manipulate packages.

\section*{Operations on Modules}
```

provide *modules*
require

```

These constructs manipulate modules.

\section*{delete-package}


\section*{do-symbols, do-external-symbols, do-all-symbols}

Purpose: The macros do-symbols, do-external-symbols, and do-all-symbols iterate over the symbols of a package.

The macro do-symbols iterates over all the symbols accessible in a specified package.

The macro do-external-symbols iterates over all the external symbols of a specified package.

The macro do-all-symbols iterates over all the symbols that are present in any package.

For each symbol in the set, the variable var is bound to the symbol, and the statements in the body are executed. When all such symbols have been processed, the result-form is evaluated and returned as the value of the macro. If the result-form is not specified, the macro returns nil.

Syntax: do-symbols (var [package [result-form]])
\{declaration\}* \(\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}\)
do-external-symbols \(\begin{aligned} & \text { (var }[\text { package }[\text { result-form }]]) \\ & \{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}\end{aligned}\)
do-all-symbols (var [result-form])
[Macro]
\{declaration\}* \(\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}\)
Remarks: If execution of any statement in the body affects which symbols are present in the package, the results are unpredictable.

The macro do-all-symbols may cause a symbol that is present in several packages to be processed more than once.

The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used. If the package argument of do-symbols or do-external-symbols is not specified, the current package is used.
```

Examples: > (make-package 'temp :use nil)
\#<Package "TEMP" 42D7EB>
> (intern "SHY" 'temp) ;shy will be an internal symbol
TEMP::SHY ;in the package temp
NIL
> (export (intern "BOLD" 'temp) 'temp) ;bold will be external
T
> (let ((lst ()))
(do-symbols (s 'temp) (push s lst))
lst)
(TEMP::SHY TEMP:BOLD)
> (let ((lst ()))
(do-external-symbols (s 'temp lst) (push s lst)))
(TEMP:BOLD)
> (let ((lst ()))
(do-all-symbols (s lst)
(when (eq (find-package 'temp) (symbol-package s)) (push s lst))))
(TEMP::SHY TEMP:BOLD)

```

\section*{export}

Purpose: The function export is used to make a symbol that is accessible in a package an external symbol of that package. The exported symbol may be present in the package or inherited from some other package.
If the symbol is present as an internal symbol in the package, it is made external. If it is an internal symbol that is inherited, it is imported into the package and then made an external symbol in that package. If the symbol is already an external symbol in the package, export has no effect.
The symbols argument is a single symbol or a list of symbols to be exported.
The function export returns \(t\) as its result.
Syntax: export symbols koptional package
Remarks: A continuable error is signaled if the symbol is not accessible in the package or if a name conflict occurs.

The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used. If the package argument is not specified, the current package is used.

When export occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load) ...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.

Examples: > (make-package 'temp :use nil)
\#<Package "TEMP" 49024B>
> (use-package 'temp)
T
> (intern "TEMP-SYM" 'temp)
TEMP : : TEMP-SYM
NIL
> (find-symbol "TEMP-SYM")
NIL
NIL
> (export (find-symbol "TEMP-SYM" 'temp) 'temp)
T
> (find-symbol "TEMP-SYM")
TEMP-SYM
:INHERITED
See Also: import
unexport

\section*{find-all-symbols}

Purpose: The function find-all-symbols is used to find any symbol whose print name is specified by the string-or-symbol argument. All packages are searched.
The function find-all-symbols returns a list of all such symbols as its result.
Syntax: find-all-symbols string-or-symbol
[Function]
Remarks: If a symbol argument is given, the symbol's print name is used.
The matching of the names of symbols is case sensitive.
```

Examples: > (find-all-symbols 'car)
(CAR)
> (intern "CAR" (package-name (make-package 'temp :use nil)))
TEMP::CAR
NIL
> (find-all-symbols 'car)
(TEMP::CAR CAR) ;order in the result list is not significant
> (delete-package 'temp)
T
> (find-all-symbols 'car)
(CAR)

```

\section*{find-package}

Purpose: The function find-package returns the package whose name or nickname is name. If there is no such package, find-package returns nil.

Syntax: find-package name
[Function]
Remarks: The name argument may be either a string or symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used.

The matching of the names of packages is case sensitive.
Examples: > (find-package 'lisp)
\#<Package "LISP" 2D0003>
> (find-package "USER")
\#<Package "USER" 2D1023>
> (find-package 'not-there)
NIL

\section*{find-symbol}
Purpose: The function find-symbol is used to locate a symbol in a package.The symbols accessible in the package are searched for one whose name is the sameas the string argument.The function find-symbol returns two values. The first value is the symbol thatwas found. The second value indicates the status of that symbol. If the symbol waspresent in the given package as an internal symbol, it is :internal. If the symbolwas present in the package as an external symbol, it is :external. If the symbolwas inherited by the package through the use-package construct, it is :inherited.If the symbol was not found, both values are nil.
Syntax: find-symbol string koptional package ..... [Function]
Remarks: The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbolis given, its print name is used. If the package argument is not specified, thecurrent package is used.
Examples: > (find-symbol (intern "NEW-GUY"))
NEW-GUY
:INTERNAL
> (find-symbol 'car 'user)
CAR
:INHERITED
> (find-symbol 'car 'lisp)

CAR
    : EXTERNAL
    > (find-symbol "Not-Likely")
    NIL
    NIL
See Also: intern
import

Purpose: The function import is used to add a symbol to a package. The imported symbol becomes present as an internal symbol in the package. Once the symbol has been imported, it may be referenced in the importing package without the use of a qualifier.

The symbols argument is a single symbol or a list of symbols to be imported.
The function import returns \(t\).
Syntax: import symbols \&optional package
Remarks: If the symbol is already present in the package, import has no effect.
Importing a symbol does not affect its status in the package from which it is imported, if any.

A continuable error is signaled if a different symbol with the same name is accessible in the package.

The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used. If the package argument is not specified, the current package is used.

When import occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load)...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.

Examples: > (import 'lisp::car (make-package 'temp :use nil)) T > (find-symbol "CAR" 'temp) CAR
: INTERNAL
> (find-symbol "CDR" 'temp)
NIL
NIL
See Also: shadow

\section*{in-package}

Purpose: The function in-package changes the current package. Its main use is to specify the package into which a file should be loaded.

The :nicknames argument may be used to specify a list of alternative names for the package.
The :use argument may be used to specify a list of packages whose external symbols are to be inherited by the new package. If the :use argument is not specified, the lisp package is inherited.
If a package with the given name already exists, it is updated to reflect any new nicknames or used packages that are specified by the arguments. If a package with the given name does not already exist, a new package is created.

Syntax: in-package package-name \&key :nicknames :use [Function]
Remarks: The function in-package causes the *package* variable to be reset to the package with the given name. The *package* variable retains this value until it is changed by the user or until the loading operation has completed, at which time the load function resets *package* to the value it had before the loading was begun.
If the in-package construct is not used, the file is loaded into the current package.
The package-name argument and the nicknames may be either strings or symbols. If a symbol is given, its print name is used.

When in-package occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load) ...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.
```

Examples: > (in-package 'temporary :nicknames '("TEMP"))
\#<Package "TEMPORARY" 494753>
> *package*
\#<Package "TEMPORARY" 494753>
> (find-symbol "CAR")
CAR
:INHERITED

```

See Also: make-package

\section*{intern}

Purpose: The function intern is used to enter a symbol into a package.
If a symbol whose name is the same as the string argument is already accessible in the package as an external, internal, or inherited symbol, it is returned. If no such symbol is accessible in the package, a new symbol with the given name is created and entered into the package as an internal symbol.

The function intern returns two values. The first value is the symbol that was found or created. The second value indicates the status of that symbol. If a new symbol was created, the second value is nil. If the symbol was present in the given package as an internal symbol, it is :internal. If the symbol was present in the package as an external symbol, it is :external. If the symbol was inherited by the package through the use-package construct, it is :inherited.

Syntax: intern string koptional package [Function]

Remarks: If a new symbol is entered into the keyword package, it becomes an external symbol in that package.

The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used. If the package argument is not specified, the current package is used.
When intern occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load)...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.

Examples: > (in-package 'user)
\#<Package "USER" 2D1023>
> (intern "Never-Before")
|Never-Before|
NIL
> (intern "Never-Before")
|Never-Before|
:INTERNAL

\section*{list-all-packages}

Purpose: The function list-all-packages returns a list of all existing packages.
Syntax: list-all-packages [Function]
Examples: > (let ((before (list-all-packages)))
(make-package 'temp)
(set-difference (list-all-packages) before)) (\#<Package "TEMP" 4973A3>)

\section*{make-package}

Purpose: The function make-package creates and returns a new package with the name package-name.
The :nicknames argument may be used to specify a list of alternative names for the package.

The :use argument may be used to specify a list of packages whose external symbols will be inherited by the new package. If the :use argument is not specified, the lisp package will be inherited.

Syntax: make-package package-name kkey :nicknames :use
Remarks: Any packages specified by the :use argument must already exist.
The package-name argument and the nicknames may be either strings or symbols. If a symbol is given, its print name is used. These names must not conflict with any existing package names. A continuable error is signaled if they do.

When make-package occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load) ...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.
```

Examples: > (make-package 'temporary :nicknames '("TEMP" "temp"))
\#<Package "TEMPORARY" 499413>
> (make-package "OWNER" :use '("temp"))
\#<Package "OWNER" 4998BB>
> (package-used-by-list 'temp)
(\#<Package "OWNER" 4998BB>)
> (package-use-list 'owner)
(\#<Package "TEMPORARY" 499413>)

```

See Also: use-package

\section*{*modules*}

Purpose: The variable *modules* is used to keep track of all the modules that have been loaded into the system. Its value is a list of the names of these modules.
```

Syntax: *modules* [Variable]
Examples: > (member "MANGANESE" *modules* :test \#'equal)
NIL
> (provide 'manganese)
T
> (member "MANGANESE" *modules* :test \#'equal)
("MANGANESE")

```

See Also: provide
require

\section*{*package*}

Purpose: The value of the variable *package* is the current package.
Syntax: *package* [Variable]
Remarks: The value of *package* when Common Lisp is started is normally the user package.

The value of *package* may be affected during the course of the load operation. The value of *package* at the end of the load operation is guaranteed to be the same as its value before the operation was begun.

Examples: > (let ((curpack *package*)
out)
(in-package 'lisp)
(setq out *package*)
(in-package (package-name curpack))
out)
\#<Package "LISP" 2D0003>

\section*{package-name}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Purpose: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The function package-name returns the name of the given package. Its result is \\
a string.
\end{tabular} \\
Syntax: \(\quad\) package-name package \\
Examples: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
> (in-package 'user) \\
\\
\#<Package "USER" 2D1023> \\
\\
> (package-name *package*)
\end{tabular} \\
& "USER" \\
& > (package-name (symbol-package :test)) \\
& "KEYORD" \\
& > (package-name (find-package 'lisp)) \\
& "LISP"
\end{tabular}

\section*{package-nicknames}

Purpose: The function package-nicknames returns a list of all the nicknames for the given package. The nicknames are returned as strings. This list does not include the package name itself.

Syntax: package-nicknames package [Function]
Examples: > (package-nicknames (make-package 'temporary
("temp" "TEMP")

\section*{package-shadowing-symbols}

Purpose: The function package-shadowing-symbols returns the shadowing-symbols list of the specified package.

Shadowing symbols are symbols that have been entered into a package by the use of shadow or shadowing-import.

Syntax:
package-shadowing-symbols package
[Function]
Remarks: The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used.

Examples: > (package-shadowing-symbols (make-package 'temp)) NIL
> (shadow 'cdr 'temp)
T
> (package-shadowing-symbols 'temp) (TEMP::CDR)
> (intern "PILL" 'temp)
TEMP: :PILL
NIL
> (shadowing-import 'pill 'temp)
\(T\)
> (package-shadowing-symbols 'temp)
(PILL TEMP::CDR)
See Also: shadow
shadowing-import

\section*{package-use-list}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The function package-use-list returns a list of the packages that are used by the specified package. \\
\hline Syntax: & package-use-list package [Function] \\
\hline Remarks: & The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used. \\
\hline Examples: & ```
> (package-use-list (make-package 'temp))
(#<Package "LISP" 2D0003>)
> (use-package 'user 'temp)
T
> (package-use-list 'temp)
(#<Package "LISP" 2D0003> #<Package "USER" 2D1023>)
``` \\
\hline See Also: & use-package unuse-package \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{package-used-by-list}

Purpose: The function package-used-by-list returns a list of the packages that use the specified package.

Syntax: package-used-by-list package [Function]
Remarks: The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used.

Examples: > (package-used-by-list (make-package 'temp)) NIL
> (make-package 'trash :use '(temp)) \#<Package "TRASH" 4A1E53>
> (package-used-by-list 'temp) (\#<Package "TRASH" 4A1E53>)

See Also: use-package
unuse-package

\section*{packagep}

Purpose: The predicate packagep is true if its argument is a package; otherwise it is false.
Syntax: packagep object [Function]

Examples: > (packagep *package*)
T
> (packagep 'lisp)
NIL
provide

Purpose: The function provide is used to indicate that a module has been loaded. It adds the module's name to the *modules* list.

Syntax: provide module-name [Function]
Remarks: One call to provide should occur at the head of each module. It should specify the name by which that module is to be known to the system.

The module-name argument may be either a string or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used.

Examples: > (let ((omods *modules*)) (provide 'new-module)
(set-difference *modules* omods))
("NEW-MODULE")
See Also: *modules*

\section*{rename-package}

Purpose: The function rename-package is used to replace the name and nicknames of a package.

The package is renamed new-name. If a list of nicknames is specified, the package will have these new nicknames. If the list of nicknames is not specified, the package will have no nicknames.

Syntax: rename-package package new-name koptional new-nicknames [Function]
Remarks: The new-name argument may be either a string or a symbol. The new-nicknames argument is a list of strings or symbols. If a symbol is given, its print name is used. These names must not conflict with any existing package names.
The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used.
```

Examples: > (make-package 'temporary :nicknames '("TEMP"))
\#<Package "TEMPORARY" 4A28A3>
> (rename-package 'temp 'ephemeral)
\#<Package "EPHEMERAL" 4A28A3>
> (package-nicknames (find-package 'ephemeral))
NIL
> (find-package 'temporary)
NIL
> (rename-package 'ephemeral 'temporary '(temp fleeting))
\#<Package "TEMPORARY" 4A28A3>
> (package-nicknames (find-package 'temp))
("FLEETING" "TEMP")

```

\section*{require}

Purpose: The function require tests whether a given module has been loaded. If not, it causes the module to be loaded.

The pathname argument may be used to specify a list of files that are to be loaded in order to achieve the loading of the module.

Syntax: require module-name koptional pathname
[Function]
Remarks: The function require uses the *modules* variable to check whether a module has been loaded. Whenever a new module is loaded, require updates the *modules* variable.

The module-name argument may be either a string or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used.

The pathname argument may be a single file pathname or a list of pathnames. If it is a list, the files are loaded in the order given.
When require occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load) ...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.
```

Examples: ;;; the file/test/require-test.lisp must exist and contain
;;
;;; (provide 'test-module)
;;;
;;;(setq loaded-flag t)
;;;
;:; for this example to work
> (setq loaded-flag nil)
NIL
> (require 'test-module "/test/require-test")
T
loaded-flag
T
> (find "TEST-MODULE" *modules* :test \#'equal)
"TEST-MODULE"
> (setq loaded-flag nil)
NIL

```
```

> (require 'test-module "/test/require-test")
T
> loaded-flag
NIL

```

See Also: provide
*modules*

\section*{shadow}

Purpose: The function shadow is used to add a new symbol to a package.
If a symbol with the given name is already present in the package, then shadow has no effect. Otherwise a new symbol whose name is the same as the print name of the given symbol is created and entered into the package as an internal symbol. The new symbol is also added to the package's shadowing-symbols list.
The symbols argument is a single symbol or a list of symbols to be added.
The function shadow returns \(t\) as its result.
Syntax: shadow symbols koptional package [Function]
Remarks: The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used. If the package argument is not specified, the current package is used.

When shadow occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load) ...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.
```

Examples: > (package-shadowing-symbols (make-package 'temp))
NIL
> (find-symbol 'car 'temp)
CAR
:INHERITED
> (shadow 'car 'temp)
T
> (find-symbol 'car 'temp)
TEMP::CAR
:INTERNAL
> (package-shadowing-symbols 'temp)
(TEMP::CAR)

```

\section*{shadowing-import}

Purpose: The function shadowing-import is used to import a symbol whose name is the same as a symbol that is already accessible in a package.
The symbols argument is a single symbol or a list of symbols to be imported.
The new symbol is added to the shadowing-symbols list of the package.
If a symbol that is shadowed is present in the package, it will be uninterned from the package.

The function shadowing-import returns \(\mathbf{t}\) as its result.
Syntax: shadowing-import symbols koptional package
[Function]
Remarks: The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used. If the package argument is not specified, the current package is used.

When shadowing-import occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load) ...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.

\section*{Examples:}
```

> (in-package 'user)
\#<Package "USER" 2D1023>
> (setq sym (intern "CONFLICT"))
CONFLICT
> (intern "CONFLICT" (make-package 'temp))
TEMP: :CONFLICT
NIL
> (package-shadowing-symbols 'temp)
NIL
> (shadowing-import sym 'temp)
T
> (package-shadowing-symbols 'temp)
(CONFLICT)

```

See Also: import
unintern

\section*{unexport}

Purpose: The function unexport returns external symbols in a package to internal status. It is used to undo the effect of export.

The symbols argument is a single symbol or a list of symbols to be unexported.
The function unexport returns \(\mathbf{t}\) as its result.
If the symbol is already an internal symbol in the package, unexport has no effect.
Syntax: unexport symbols \&optional package [Function]
Remarks: The symbol must be present in the package.
The symbols argument cannot specify a symbol from the keyword package.
The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used. If the package argument is not specified, the current package is used.
When unexport occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load) ...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.
```

Examples: > (in-package 'user)
\#<Package "USER" 2D1023>
> (export (intern "CONTRABAND" (make-package 'temp)) 'temp)
T
> (find-symbol "CONTRABAND")
NIL
NIL
> (use-package 'temp)
T
> (find-symbol "CONTRABAND")
CONTRABAND
:INHERITED
> (unexport 'contraband 'temp)
T
> (find-symbol "CONTRABAND")
NIL
NIL

```

See Also: export

\section*{unintern}

Purpose: The function unintern is used to remove a symbol from a package.
If the symbol is present in the package, it is removed from the package. If it is a shadowing symbol, it is also removed from the shadowing-symbols list of the package.
If the package is the symbol's home package, the symbol will have no home package.
The function unintern returns \(t\) if the symbol was removed from the package; otherwise it returns nil.

Syntax: unintern symbol koptional package
Remarks: Even if a symbol has been uninterned, it may still be accessible if it is inherited from another package.
The package argument may be either a package, a string, or a symbol. If a symbol is given, its print name is used. If the package argument is not specified, the current package is used.

When unintern occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load) ...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.
```

Examples: > (in-package 'user)
\#<Package "USER" 2D1023>
> (setq temps-foo (intern "FOO" (make-package 'temp)))
TEMP::FOO
> (unintern temps-foo 'temp)
T
> (find-symbol "FOO" 'temp)
NIL
NIL
> temps-foo
\#:FOO

```

\section*{unuse-package}

Purpose: The function unuse-package is used to cause a package to cease inheriting all the external symbols of some other package; it undoes the effects of use-package. The packages that are unused are removed from the use-list of the unusing package.

The function unuse-package returns \(t\) as its result.
Syntax: unuse-package packages-to-unuse \&optional package
Remarks: The packages-to-unuse argument may be either a package, a package name, or a list of these. Either a symbol or a string may be given as a package name. If a symbol is given, its print name is used.

If the package argument is not specified, the current package is used.
When unuse-package occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load) ...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.
```

Examples: > (in-package 'user)
\#<Package "USER" 2D1023>
> (export (intern "SHOES" (make-package 'temp)) 'temp)
T
> (find-symbol "SHOES")
NIL
NIL
> (use-package 'temp)
T
> (find-symbol "SHOES")
SHOES
:INHERITED
> (find (find-package 'temp) (package-use-list 'user))
\#<Package "TEMP" 3CC483>
> (unuse-package 'temp)
T
> (find-symbol "SHOES")
NIL
NIL

```

See Also: use-package

\section*{use-package}

Purpose: The function use-package is used to cause a package to inherit all the external symbols of another package. The inherited symbols become accessible as internal symbols of the using package. The packages that are used are added to the use-list of the using package.

The function use-package returns \(\mathbf{t}\) as its result.
Syntax: use-package packages-to-use zoptional package
[Function]
Remarks: The keyword package may not be used.
The packages-to-use argument may be either a package, a package name, or a list of these. Either a symbol or a string may be given as a package name. If a symbol is given, its print name is used.

If the package argument is not specified, the current package is used.
When use-package occurs at the top level in a file, it is implicitly wrapped in an (eval-when (eval compile load) ...) construct, so that package systems changes are reflected both in the compiling and in the loading environment.

Examples: > (export (intern "LAND-FILL" (make-package 'trash)) 'trash) T
> (find-symbol "LAND-FILL" (make-package 'temp))
NIL
NIL
> (package-use-list 'temp)
(\#<Package "LISP" 2D0003>)
> (use-package 'trash 'temp)
\(T\)
> (package-use-list 'temp)
(\#<Package "LISP" 2D0003> \#<Package "TRASH" 3CDC83>)
> (find-symbol "LAND-FILL" 'temp)
TRASH:LAND-FILL
:INHERITED
See Also: unuse-package

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\section*{About Numbers}

Common Lisp provides integers, ratios, floating-point numbers, and complex numbers as separate data types. Integers and ratios together constitute a subtype of numbers called rational numbers.

Some operations on numbers are generic, that is, they accept arguments of any numerical data type and automatically provide any type conversions that are needed. Other operations are type specific and require arguments of a particular numerical data type.

Numbers in Common Lisp are ordinarily not true objects in the sense that eq cannot be counted on to operate reliably on them. In Sun Common Lisp, however, fixnums are true objects and eq can be counted on to operate reliably on fixnums. Otherwise if numbers are to be tested for equality, = or eql should be used.

\section*{Numerical Data Types}

\section*{Integers}

The integer data type consists of fixnums and bignums.
The fixnum data type is designed to allow integers in the range from most-negativefixnum to most-positive-fixnum to be represented efficiently, using a fixed number of bits. The fixnum data type is the default for the representation of integers.

The bignum data type is provided to allow for the representation of integers of arbitrary magnitude. The distinction between fixnums and bignums is generally not visible to the user. In Sun Common Lisp, the more appropriate representation is used automatically.

\section*{Ratios}

Ratios give an exact representation of the mathematical quotient of two integers. Ratios can be used to avoid the loss of precision that can result from using floating-point numbers.

Rational numbers are represented in canonical form. If the ratio is not an integer, the canonical representation is a pair of integers, the numerator and denominator, that represent the rational as a fraction in reduced form. The denominator is always positive. If the denominator evenly divides the numerator, the rational number is converted to the resulting integer.

\section*{Floating-Point Numbers}

Floating-point numbers constitute the type float. Common Lisp designates four floating-point number formats: short-float, single-float, double-float, and long-float. These formats differ in the precision they provide and in the range of exponents they allow. Sun Common Lisp represents all four types of floating-point numbers in the single-float format.

In Sun Common Lisp, single-float numbers are treated in accordance with the IEEE standard for the representation of 32 -bit single-precision floating-point numbers. They are represented by a sign bit, a 23 -bit unsigned mantissa, and an 8 -bit unsigned exponent. The exponent is excess-127; that is, the representation of the exponent is an 8 -bit integer whose value is 127 greater than the true exponent value. Floating-point numbers are represented in radix 2.

When an operation involves both a rational and a floating-point argument, the rational number is first converted to floating-point format, and then the operation is performed. This conversion process is called floating-point contagion.

\section*{Complex Numbers}

Complex numbers are represented as composite objects consisting of a real part and an imaginary part.

The two parts of a complex number must be of the same noncomplex type; if they are not, they are automatically converted to the same type, in accordance with the principle of floating-point contagion. Complex numbers are represented in canonical form. If a complex number whose components are of type integer or ratio has an imaginary part whose value is zero, the canonical representation is an integer or ratio whose value is the same as that of the real part.

\section*{Bytes}

Common Lisp provides functions that manipulate fields of bits that are contained within integers. Such a field of bits is called a byte. Functions that manipulate bytes use byte specifiers to indicate a field within an integer according to its size and position. A byte specifier whose size and position attributes are size and position designates bits whose weights are \(2^{\text {position }}\) through \(2^{\text {position+size- }}\).
Note that this usage of the term byte is distinct from its conventional meaning. Bytes in this chapter refer to the above meaning of the term.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

This section groups operations on numbers according to functionality.

\section*{Data Type Predicates}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{ll} 
numberp \\
complexp \\
fixnump
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l} 
floatp \\
integerp \\
rationalp
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These predicates determine whether an object is a number.

\section*{Predicates on Numbers}
```

plusp
evenp
minusp
oddp
zerop

```

These predicates test properties of numbers.

\section*{Numerical Comparisons}
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
= & > \\
/= & >= \\
< & \max \\
<= & \min
\end{array}
\]

These functions provide comparison operations on numbers.

\section*{Arithmetic Operations}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline+ & incf \\
- & decf \\
\(*\) & gcd \\
1 & lcm \\
\(1+\) & mod \\
\(1-\) & rem \\
ash & conjugate \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These functions perform arithmetic operations on numbers.

\section*{Irrational Functions}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline exp & asin \\
expt & acos \\
log & atan \\
sqrt & \(\sinh\) \\
isqrt & \(\cosh\) \\
abs & tanh \\
phase & asinh \\
signum & acosh \\
sin & atanh \\
cos & cis \\
tan & pi \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These constructs provide exponential, trigonometric, and other transcendental operations.

\section*{Type Conversion Operations}
```

rational
rationalize
numerator
denominator
floor
ceiling
truncate
round
ffloor
fceiling
ftruncate
fround

```
```

float

```
float
decode-float
decode-float
scale-float
scale-float
float-radix
float-radix
float-sign
float-sign
float-digits
float-digits
float-precision
float-precision
integer-decode-float
integer-decode-float
complex
complex
realpart
realpart
imagpart
```

imagpart

```

These functions perform conversion operations among the numerical data types.

\section*{Logical Operations on Numbers}
```

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

```

These constructs provide logical operations on integers.

\section*{Byte Manipulation Functions}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
byte & dpb \\
byte-size & ldb \\
byte-position & ldb-test \\
deposit-field & mask-field
\end{tabular}
byte-size ldb
byte-position ldb-test
deposit-field
mask-field

These functions manipulate fields of bits within integers.

\section*{Random Numbers}
```

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

```

These constructs provide a random number generation facility.

\section*{Implementation-Dependent Constants}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
most-positive-fixnum & least-negative-long-float \\
most-negative-fixnum & most-negative-short-float \\
most-positive-short-float & most-negative-single-float \\
most-positive-single-float & most-negative-double-float \\
most-positive-double-float & most-negative-long-float \\
most-positive-long-float & short-float-epsilon \\
least-positive-short-float & single-float-epsilon \\
least-positive-single-float & double-float-epsilon \\
least-positive-double-float & long-float-epsilon \\
least-positive-long-float & short-float-negative-epsilon \\
least-negative-short-float & single-float-negative-epsilon \\
least-negative-single-float & double-float-negative-epsilon \\
least-negative-double-float & long-float-negative-epsilon
\end{tabular}

These constants may be useful in parameterizing code. Their values are implementation dependent.

Purpose: The function * returns the product of its arguments. If no arguments are given, it returns 1 .

Syntax: * krest numbers [Function]
Remarks: Any necessary type conversions are performed automatically.
Examples: > (*)
1
> (* 3 5)
15
> (* 1.0 \#c(22 33) 55/98)
\#C(12.346938 18.520407)
\(+\)

Purpose: The function + returns the sum of its arguments. If no arguments are given, it returns 0 .

Syntax: + \&rest numbers
[Function]
Remarks: Any necessary type conversions are performed automatically.
Examples: > ( + )
0
(+ 1)
1
> (+ 31/100 69/100)
1
\(>(+1 / 50.8)\)
1.0

Purpose: The function - performs arithmetic subtraction and negation.
If - is given more than one argument, it subtracts from the first argument all of the following arguments and returns the result.

If it is given one argument, it returns the negative of that argument.
Syntax: - number \&rest more-numbers [Function]
Remarks: Any necessary type conversions are performed automatically.
```

Examples: > (- 55.55)
-55.55
> (- 0)
O
> (- \#c(100 45) \#c(0 45))
100
>(-10 1 2 3 4)
O

```

Purpose: The function / performs division.
If / is given more than one argument, it divides the first argument by all of the following arguments and returns the result.
If it is given one argument, it returns the reciprocal of that argument.
Syntax: / number erest more-numbers
Remarks: The function / results in a ratio if the arguments are all integers or ratios and the result is not an exact integer.

Any necessary type conversions are performed automatically.
```

Examples: > (/ 0.5)
2.0
> (/ 20 5)
4
> (/ 5 20)
1/4
>(/ 60 -2 3 5.0)
-2.0
> (/ 2 \#c(2 2))
\#C(1/2 -1/2)

```

See Also: floor
ceiling
truncate
round

\section*{1+, 1 -}

Purpose: The functions \(1+\) and 1 - increment and decrement a number by 1 respectively.
Syntax: \begin{tabular}{rl}
\(1+\) number \\
& \(1-\) number
\end{tabular}
[Function]
[Function]
Examples: > (1+99) 100

See Also: incf
decf
\[
<,<=,>,>=
\]

Purpose: The functions \(<,<=,>\), and \(>=\) perform arithmetic comparisons on their arguments.

The function < is true if its numerical arguments are in monotonically increasing order; otherwise it is false.

The function < = is true if its numerical arguments are in monotonically nondecreasing order; otherwise it is false.

The function \(>\) is true if its numerical arguments are in monotonically decreasing order; otherwise it is false.

The function \(>=\) is true if its numerical arguments are in monotonically nonincreasing order; otherwise it is false.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: & \(<\) number krest more-numbers & \\
& \(<=\) number \&rest more-numbers & [Function] \\
& \(>\) number \&rest more-numbers & [Function] \\
& \(>=\) number \&rest more-numbers & [Function] \\
& [Function]
\end{tabular}

Remarks: Any necessary type conversions are performed automatically.
The arguments of these functions must be noncomplex numbers.
```

Examples: > (< 1)
T
>(<= 1 1.0 11/10 1.9 1.99)
T
>(> 1000000000000000000000000 9.9 1.0 1)
NIL
>(>= 1000000000000000000000000 9.9 1.0 1)
T

```
=, /=

Purpose: \(\quad\) The predicates \(=\) and \(/=\) test for arithmetic equality.
The predicate \(=\) is true if all of its numerical arguments are the same in value; otherwise it is false.

The predicate \(/=\) is true if no two of its numerical arguments are the same in value; otherwise it is false.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: & \(=\) number krest more-numbers & [Function] \\
& \(/=\) number krest more-numbers & [Function]
\end{tabular}

Remarks: \(\quad\) The arguments of \(=\) and \(/=\) may be complex numbers.
Any necessary type conversions are performed automatically.
```

Examples: > (= 1)
T
> (= 1 5/5 1.0 \#c(1 0) \#c(1.0 0.0))
T
> (= 1 2)
NIL
> (=0.0(-0.0))
T
> (/= 1)
T
> (/= 1 1.0 2)
NIL

```

```

    T
    ```

\section*{abs}

Purpose: The function abs returns the absolute value of its numerical argument.
Syntax: abs number [Function]
Remarks: If number is noncomplex, the result is of the same type as the argument.
If number is complex, the result is equivalent to the following:
(sqrt (+ (expt (realpart number) 2) (expt (imagpart number) 2)))
Examples: > (abs 0)
0
> (abs 12/13)
12/13
> (abs-1.09)
1.09
> (abs \#c(3-4))
5.0

\section*{ash}

Purpose: The function ash performs the arithmetic shift operation on the binary representation of its integer argument and returns the result.

The count argument is an integer. If count is positive, the integer argument is shifted left count positions. If count is negative, the integer argument is shifted right -count positions.

Syntax: ash integer count [Function]
Remarks: The sign of the result is the same as the sign of the integer argument.
Examples: > (ash 16 1)
32
\(>(\) ash 160\()\)
16
\(>(\) ash \(16-1)\)
8
> (ash -100000000000000000000000000000000-100)
-79

\section*{asin, acos, atan}

Purpose: The functions asin, acos, and atan compute the arc sine, arc cosine, and arc tangent respectively. The results are given in radians.

Syntax: asin number [Function]
acos number [Function]
atan number1 koptional number2
[Function]
Remarks: The functions asin and acos may have complex arguments. The function atan may have a complex argument if only one argument is specified.

If the optional argument number2 of atan is specified, both it and the number 1 argument must be noncomplex numbers. In this case, the result is the arc tangent of number \(1 / n u m b e r 2\).

Examples: > \((\operatorname{asin} 0)\)
0.0
> (/ (realpart (acos \#c(0 1))) (/ pi 2))
1.0
> (/ (atan 1 (sqrt 3)) (/ pi 6)) 1.0000001

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

\author{
Purpose: The function boole is used to perform bit-wise logical operations on integers. The operation to be performed is specified by op, which must be one of the constants listed below. The result of the operation is returned as an integer.
}

The boole-clr operation always returns the value 0 .
The boole-set operation always returns the value 1.
The boole- 1 operation returns the value of its first operand.
The boole- 2 operation returns the value of its second operand.
The boole-c1 operation returns the logical complement of the value of its first operand.

The boole-c2 operation returns the logical complement of the value of its second operand.
The boole-and operation returns the logical and of its operands.
The boole-ior operation returns the logical inclusive or of its operands.
The boole-xor operation returns the logical exclusive or of its operands.
The boole-eqv operation returns the logical equivalence of its operands.
The boole-nand operation returns the logical complement of the logical and of its operands.

The boole-nor operation returns the logical complement of the logical inclusive or of its operands.

The boole-andc1 operation returns the result of performing the logical and operation on the second operand and the logical complement of the first operand.

The boole-andc 2 operation returns the result of performing the logical and operation on the first operand and the logical complement of the second operand.

The boole-orc 1 operation returns the result of performing the logical inclusive or operation on the second operand and the logical complement of the first operand.
The boole-orc2 operation returns the result of performing the logical inclusive or operation on the first operand and the logical complement of the second operand.

\section*{boole, boole-clr, boole-set, boole-1, boole-2, boole-c1, boole-c2, ...}
\begin{tabular}{llr} 
Syntax: & boole op integer1 integer2 & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
& boole-clr & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
& boole-set & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
& boole-1 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
& boole-2 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
& boole-c1 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
& boole-c2 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
& boole-and & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
& boole-ior & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
& boole-xor & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
& boole-eqv & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-nand & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-nor & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-andc1 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-andc2 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
& boole-orc1 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)}
\end{tabular}

Remarks: Negative integers are treated as if they were in two's complement representation.
Examples: > (boole boole-ior 1 16)
17
> (boole boole-and -2 5)
4
> (boole boole-eqv 17 15)
-31

\title{
boole, boole-clr, boole-set, boole-1, boole-2, boole-c1, boole-c2, ...
}
See Also: \begin{tabular}{rl} 
& logand \\
& logandc1 \\
& logandc2 \\
& logeqv \\
& logior \\
& lognand \\
& lognor \\
& logorc1 \\
& \(l o g o r c 2\) \\
& \(l o g x o r\)
\end{tabular}

\section*{byte, byte-size, byte-position}
Purpose: \begin{tabular}{l} 
The function byte constructs byte specifiers; the functions byte-size and \\
byte-position return the attributes of byte specifiers. \\
The function byte constructs and returns a byte specifier for use by byte \\
manipulation functions. The resulting byte specifier indicates a byte consisting of \\
size bits whose weights are \(2^{\text {position+ size-1 }}\) through \(2^{\text {position. }}\) \\
The function byte-size returns the number of bits in the specified byte as an \\
integer value. \\
\begin{tabular}{l} 
The function byte-position returns the position of the specified byte as a positive \\
integer.
\end{tabular} \\
Syntax: \begin{tabular}{l} 
byte size position \\
byte-size bytespec \\
byte-position bytespec
\end{tabular} \\
[Function]
\end{tabular} [Function]

Remarks: The size and position arguments must be integers. Their values must be in the range from 1 to 4095 inclusive.

Examples: > (setq b (byte 100 200))
\#. (BYTE 100. 200.)
> (byte-size b)
100
> (byte-position b)
200

Purpose: The function cis returns the value of \(\mathrm{e}^{i \text {-radianse }}\). The result is a complex number in which the real part is equal to the cosine of the radians argument, and the imaginary part is equal to the sine of the radians argument.

Syntax: cis radians
[Function]
Remarks: The radians argument must be a noncomplex number.
Examples: > (cis 0)
\#C(1.0 0.0)

\section*{complex}

Purpose: The function complex returns a complex number whose real and imaginary parts have the specified values.

If the imagpart argument is not specified, the imaginary part is a zero of the same type as the real part.

Syntax: complex realpart koptional imagpart [Function]
Remarks: The realpart and imagpart arguments must be noncomplex numbers. If one of these arguments is a floating-point number, the rules of floating-point contagion apply.
If realpart is a rational number and imagpart is zero, the result of complex is a rational number.
```

Examples: > (complex 0)
O
> (complex 0.0)
\#C(0.0 0.0)
> (complex 1 1/2)
\#C(1 1/2)
>(complex 1 .99)
\#C(1.0 .99)
> (complex 3/2 0.0)
\#C(1.5 0.0)

```

\section*{complexp}

Purpose: The predicate complexp is true if its argument is a complex number; otherwise it is false.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: & complexp object & [Function] \\
Examples: & \(>(\) complexp 1.2d2 \()\) & \\
& NIL \\
& \(>(\) complexp \#c(5/3 7.2)) & \\
& \(T\)
\end{tabular}

\section*{conjugate}


\section*{decode-float, integer-decode-float}

Purpose: The function decode-float returns three values that characterize its floating-point argument.

The first result is the value of the mantissa of float, scaled so that it is greater than or equal to \(1 /\) radix and less than 1 , where radix is the radix of the floating-point representation of float.

The second result is the integer exponent to which the radix must be raised to obtain the value that, when multiplied with the first result, produces the absolute value of the original float value.

The third result is a floating-point number of the same type as float. Its value is 1.0 if float is greater than or equal to zero; otherwise its value is \(\mathbf{- 1 . 0}\).

The function integer-decode-float is similar to decode-float. It returns three values. The first value is the result of scaling the mantissa of float so that it is an integer. The second result is the integer exponent to which the radix must be raised to obtain the value that, when multiplied with the first result, produces the absolute value of the original float value. The third result is 1 if float is greater than or equal to zero; otherwise it is \(\mathbf{- 1}\).

Syntax: decode-float float

Remarks: The product of the first result of decode-float or integer-decode-float, of the radix raised to the power of the second result, and of the third result is exactly equal to the value of the argument.
In Sun Common Lisp, all floating-point numbers are represented in single-float format.

Examples: > (decode-float 0)
0.0

0
1.0
> (decode-float .5)
.5
0
1.0
> (decode-float 1.0)
.5
1
1.0
```

> (integer-decode-float 1)
8388608
-23
1
>(* 8388608 (expt 2 -23) 1)
1

```

\section*{deposit-field}

Purpose: The function deposit-field is used to replace a field of bits within an integer. It returns a copy of its integer argument in which the bits of the specified byte have been replaced by the bits from the corresponding positions of the integer newbyte.

Syntax: deposit-field newbyte bytespec integer
[Function]
Remarks: The bytespec argument is a byte specifier.
Examples: > (deposit-field 7 (byte 2 1) 0)
6
> (deposit-field -1 (byte 40 ) 0 )
15
> (deposit-field 0 (byte 2 1) -3)
\(-7\)
See Also: byte
dpb

\section*{dpb}

Purpose: The deposit byte function dpb is used to replace a field of bits within an integer. It returns a copy of its integer argument in which the bits of the specified byte have been replaced by the corresponding number of low-order bits from the integer newbyte.

Syntax: dpb newbyte bytespec integer [Function]
Remarks: The bytespec argument is a byte specifier.
Examples: \(>\left(\begin{array}{l}\text { dpb } 1 \text { (byte } 110) \\ \text { ) }\end{array}\right.\) 1024
> (dpb -2 (byte 2 10) 0)
2048
> (dpb 1 (byte 2 10) 2048)
1024
See Also: byte
deposit-field

\section*{evenp, oddp}

Purpose: The predicate evenp is true if its integer argument is even; otherwise it is false. The predicate oddp is true if its integer argument is odd; otherwise it is false.
\begin{tabular}{llr} 
Syntax: & evenp integer & [Function] \\
& oddp integer & [Function] \\
Examples: & \(>\) (evenp 0) & \\
& T \((\) oddp 10000000000000000000000) & \\
& \(>\) NIL & \\
& \(>\) \\
& T (oddp -1) &
\end{tabular}

\section*{exp, expt}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{Purpose:} & The functions exp and expt are used for exponentiation. \\
\hline & The function exp returns e, the base of the natural logarithm function, raised to the power number. \\
\hline & The function expt returns the argument base-number raised to the power power-number. \\
\hline Syntax: & exp number [Function] \\
\hline & expt base-number power-number [Function] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{11}{*}{Examples:} & \(>(\exp 0)\) \\
\hline & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 1.0 \\
& >(\exp 1)
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline & 2.7182817 \\
\hline & > (exp ( \(\log 10)\) ) \\
\hline & 10.0 \\
\hline & > (expt 28 ) \\
\hline & 256 \\
\hline & > (expt 4.5 ) \\
\hline & 2.0 \\
\hline & > (expt \#c(0 1) 2) \\
\hline & -1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

See Also: log

\section*{fixnump}

Purpose: The predicate fixnump is true if its argument is a fixnum; otherwise it is false.
Syntax: fixnump object [Function]

Remarks: The predicate fixnump is an extension to Common Lisp.
Examples: > (fixnump 1)
\(T\)
(fixnump 12)
T
> (fixnump (expt 2 130))
NIL
> (fixnump 6/5)
NIL
See Also: most-positive-fixnum
most-negative-fixnum

\section*{float}Purpose: The function float converts a noncomplex number to a floating-point number.If the optional argument is not specified and the number is already in a floating-point format, then it is simply returned; otherwise the number is converted tosingle-float format.
An optional floating-point argument may be given. In this case, number isconverted to the same floating-point format as float.
Syntax: float number koptional float [Function]
Remarks: In Sun Common Lisp, all floating-point numbers are represented in single-float format.
Examples: > (float 0)
0.0
> (float 1 .5)
1.0
> (float 1.0)
1.0
See Also: coerce

\section*{float-digits, float-precision, float-radix}

Purpose: The functions float-digits, float-precision, and float-radix are used to examine the attributes of floating-point numbers.

The function float-digits returns the number of digits available in the radix of the floating-point representation for representing the mantissa of a floating-point number of the same type as the float argument. This result includes the hidden bit that is used in the normalization of floating-point numbers.

The function float-precision returns the number of significant digits in the radix of the floating-point representation of its float argument. If float is 0 , the result of float-precision is 0 .
The function float-radix returns the radix of the floating-point representation of its float argument.

Syntax: float-digits float
float-precision float
float-radix float
Remarks: For normalized floating-point numbers, the results of float-digits and floatprecision are the same.

In Sun Common Lisp, all floating-point numbers are represented in single-float format.

Examples: > (float-radix 1.0)
2
> (float-precision 1.0)
24
> (float-digits 1.0 )
24
> (float-precision least-positive-single-float)
1

\section*{float-sign}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The function float-sign returns a that of float1 and whose absolute argument is not specified, a floatin \\
\hline Syntax: & float-sign float1 \&optional float2 \\
\hline \multirow[t]{12}{*}{Examples:} & > (float-sign 5.0) \\
\hline & 1.0 \\
\hline & > (float-sign -5.0) \\
\hline & -1.0 \\
\hline & > (float-sign 0.0) \\
\hline & 1.0 \\
\hline & > (float-sign 1.0 0.0) \\
\hline & 0.0 \\
\hline & > (float-sign 1.0-10.0) \\
\hline & 10.0 \\
\hline & > (float-sign -1.0 10.0) \\
\hline & -10.0 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{floatp}Purpose: The predicate floatp is true if its argument is a floating-point number; otherwiseit is false.
Syntax: floatp object [Function]
Examples: > (floatp 1.2d2)
T
> (floatp 1.212)
I
> (floatp 1.2s2)
\(T\)> (floatp (expt 2 130))

NIL

\section*{floor, ceiling, ffloor, fceiling}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{Purpose:} & The functions floor, ceiling, flloor, and fceiling perform type conversion operations on noncomplex numbers. \\
\hline & The functions floor and ceiling convert their arguments to integers. The function floor returns the largest integer that is equal to or less than its argument. The function ceiling returns the smallest integer that is equal to or greater than its argument. \\
\hline & The functions ffloor and fceiling produce results identical to those of floor and ceiling except that the results are returned in floating-point format. \\
\hline & If the optional argument divisor is given, then the first value of the result is mathematically equivalent to dividing number by divisor and then applying the floor or ceiling operation. The divisor must also be a noncomplex number. \\
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{Syntax:} & floor number koptional divisor [Function] \\
\hline & ceiling number moptional divisor [Function] \\
\hline & ffloor number koptional divisor [Function] \\
\hline & fceiling number koptional divisor [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Remarks: Each of these functions returns the remainder of the result as a second value. If the arguments of floor and ceiling are of the same type, the remainder is of that type also; otherwise it is a floating-point number.

Examples: > (floor 3/2)
1
1/2
\(>\) (ceiling 3 2)
2
-1
> (ffloor 3 2)
1.0
1.0
> (fceiling 3/2)
2.0
\(-.5\)
See Also: truncate
round

\section*{gcd}

Purpose: The function ged returns the greatest common divisor of its arguments. If no arguments are specified, gcd returns 0.

Syntax: gcd krest integers [Function]
Remarks: The result of ged is always nonnegative.
Examples: > (gcd)
0
> (gcd 6042 )
6
\(>\) (gcd \(3333-33101\) )
1
> (gcd 3333-33 1002001)
11

\section*{incf, decf}

Purpose: The macros incf and decf are used for incrementing and decrementing the value of a variable.

The macro incf adds the number specified by delta to the number stored in place and returns the result.

The macro decf subtracts the number specified by delta from the number stored in place and returns the result.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: & incf place \([\) delta] & {\([\) Macro \(]\)} \\
& decf place \([\) delta \(]\) & {\([\) Macro \(]\)}
\end{tabular}

Remarks: The place argument must be a generalized variable acceptable to the macro setf. If delta is not specified, the number in place is incremented or decremented by 1.
Any necessary type conversions are performed automatically.
Examples: > (setq a \(\left.{ }^{\prime}(1)\right)\)
(1)
\(>\) (incf (car a))
2
\(>\) a
(2)
> (decf (car a) 2)
0
\(>\mathrm{a}\)
(0)

See Also: \(1+\)
1-

\section*{integer-length}

Purpose: The function integer-length determines how many bits are needed to represent a given integer.

If the integer is nonnegative, it can be represented as an unsigned binary number in (integer-length integer) bits. Any integer can be represented in signed two's complement representation in ( \(1+\) (integer-length integer)) bits.

Syntax: integer-length integer [Function]
Remarks: The value returned by integer-length is equal to the following:
```

(ceiling (log (if (minusp integer) (- integer) (1+ integer)) 2))

```

Examples: > (integer-length 0 )
0
> (integer-length 1 )
1
> (integer-length -1 )
0
> (integer-length (expt 29 ))
10
> (integer-length (1- (expt 29\()\) ))
9
> (integer-length (- (expt 29)))
9
> (integer-length \((-(1+(\) expt 29\())))\)
10

\section*{integerp}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Purpose: & The predicate integerp is true if its argument is an integer; otherwise it is false. \\
Syntax: & integerp object \\
Examples: & \(>\) (integerp 1) \\
& T Function] \\
& \(>(\) integerp (expt 2 130)) \\
& T (integerp 6/5) \\
& \(>\) \\
& \\
& NIL \\
& \(>\) \\
& NIL \\
&
\end{tabular}

\section*{lcm}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The function lcm returns the le result is a nonnegative integer. & ents. The \\
\hline Syntax: & lcm integer krest more-integers & [Function] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{Examples:} & \(>\) ( \(1 \mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{10)}\) & \\
\hline & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 10 \\
& >(1 \mathrm{~cm} 2530)
\end{aligned}
\] & \\
\hline & 150 & \\
\hline & \[
\begin{aligned}
& >\left(\begin{array}{llll}
(1 c m & -24 & 18 & 10) \\
360
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
\] & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{ldb}

Purpose: The load byte function ldb extracts from its integer argument the bits of the specified byte and returns the result as a nonnegative integer.

Syntax: ldb bytespec integer
[Function]
Remarks: The bytespec argument is a byte specifier.
If the integer argument is a generalized variable that is acceptable to the macro setf, then setf may be used with ldb to modify the specified byte.

Examples: . > (ldb (byte 2 1) 10)
1
> (setq a \({ }^{\prime}(8)\) )
(8)
> (setf (ldb (byte 2 1) (car a)) 1)
1
\(>\) a
(10)

See Also: byte
dpb

\section*{ldb-test}

Purpose: The predicate ldb-test is true if any of the bits of the specified byte from integer are nonzero; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: ldb-test bytespec integer [Function]
Remarks: The bytespec argument is a byte specifier.
Examples: > (ldb-test (byte 4 1) 16)
T
> (ldb-test (byte 3 1) 16)
NIL
> (ldb-test (byte 3 2) 16)
T

\section*{\(\log\)}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The function log returns the logarithm of its number argument in the base base. If no base is specified, \(\mathbf{e}\), the base of the natural logarithms, is used. \\
\hline Syntax: & log number koptional base [Function] \\
\hline Remarks: & If the number argument is negative, log always produces a complex result. \\
\hline Examples: & \[
\begin{aligned}
& >(\log (\exp 3)) \\
& 3.0 \\
& >(\log 10010) \\
& 2.0 \\
& >(\log \# c(01) \# c(0-1)) \\
& \# c(-1.00 .0)
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline See Also: & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \exp \\
& \exp t
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\title{
logand, logandc1, logandc2, logeqv, logior, lognand, lognor, logore1, logorc2, logxor
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The functions logand, logandc1, logandc2, logeqv, logior, lognand, lognor, logorc1, logorc2, and logxor perform bit-wise logical operations on their integer arguments. \\
\hline & The function logand returns the logical and of its integer arguments. If no arguments are given, it returns \(\mathbf{- 1}\). \\
\hline & The function logandc1 returns the logical and of its first argument with the logical complement of its second argument. \\
\hline & The function logandc2 returns the logical and of its second argument with the logical complement of its first argument. \\
\hline & The function logeqv returns the logical equivalence of its integer arguments. If no arguments are given, it returns \(\mathbf{- 1}\). \\
\hline & The function lognand performs the logical and operation on its integer arguments and returns the logical complement of the result. \\
\hline & The function lognor performs the logical inclusive or operation on its integer arguments and returns the logical complement of the result. \\
\hline & The function logior returns the logical inclusive or of its integer arguments. If no arguments are given, it returns 0. \\
\hline & The function logore 1 returns the logical inclusive or of its first argument with the logical complement of its second argument. \\
\hline & The function logorc2 returns the logical inclusive or of its second argument with the logical complement of its first argument. \\
\hline & The function logxor returns the logical exclusive or of its integer arguments. If no arguments are given, it returns 0 . \\
\hline Syntax: & logand krest integers [Function] \\
\hline & logande1 integer1 integer2 [Function] \\
\hline & logandc2 integer1 integer2 [Function] \\
\hline & logeqv \&rest integers [Function] \\
\hline & logior krest integers [Function] \\
\hline & lognand integer1 integer2 [Function] \\
\hline & lognor integer1 integer2 [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{logand, logandc1, logandc2, logeqv, logior, lognand, lognor, ...}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
logorc1 integer1 integer2 & [Function] \\
logorc2 integer1 integer2 & [Function] \\
logxor \&rest integers & [Function]
\end{tabular}

Remarks: Negative integers are treated as if they were in two's complement representation.
Examples: > (logior 124 8)
15
> (logxor 137 15)
10
> (logeqv)
-1
\(>\) (logand 16 31)
16
See Also: \begin{tabular}{l} 
lognot \\
\\
boole
\end{tabular}

\section*{logbitp}

Purpose: The predicate logbitp is used to test the value of a particular bit in an integer. The predicate logbitp is true if the value of the bit in integer whose weight is \(2^{\text {index }}\) is 1 ; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: logbitp index integer [Function]
Remarks: Negative integers are treated as if they were in two's complement representation.
```

Examples: > (logbitp 1 1)
NIL
> (logbitp O 1)
T
> (logbitp 3 10)
T
> (logbitp 1000000000000000000000000000 -1)
T

```

\section*{logcount}

Purpose: The function logcount counts the values of individual bits of integers. If the integer argument is positive, it returns the number of bits that have the value 1.
If integer is negative, it returns the number of bits that have the value 0 in the two's complement representation of the negative value.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: & logcount integer & [Function] \\
Examples: & \(>(\) logcount 0\()\) & \\
& 0 & \\
& \(>(\) logcount -1) & \\
& 0 \\
& \(>(\) logcount 7) & \\
& 3 \\
& \(>(\) logcount -15) & \\
& 3 \\
& \(>(\) logcount (expt 2100\())\) \\
& 1
\end{tabular}

\section*{\(\operatorname{lognot}\)}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Purpose: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The function lognot complements all the bits in its integer argument and returns \\
the result.
\end{tabular} \\
Syntax: & lognot integer \\
Remarks: & Negative integers are treated as if they were in two's complement representation. \\
Examples: & \(>(\operatorname{lognot} 0)\) \\
& -1 \\
& \(>(\operatorname{lognot} 1)\) \\
& -2 \\
& \(>(\operatorname{lognot}-1)\) \\
& 0 \\
& \(>(\operatorname{lognot}(1+(\operatorname{lognot} 1000)))\) \\
& 999
\end{tabular}

\section*{logtest}
```Purpose: The predicate logtest is true if any bit that has the value 1 in integer 1 also hasthe value 1 in integer2 and if integer 1 is not 0 ; otherwise it is false.
```

Syntax: logtest integer1 integer2 [Function]
Remarks: Negative integers are treated as if they were in two's complement representation.
Examples: > (logtest 1 7)

```\(T\)
```

> (logtest 1 2)

```
NIL
> (logtest -2 -1)
T
(logtest 0-1)
NIL
```


## make-random-state



See Also: random

## mask-field

Purpose: The function mask-field performs a mask operation on its integer argument. It returns an integer that agrees with the integer argument on the bits of the specified byte and that contains zero-bits elsewhere.

Syntax: mask-field bytespec integer [Function]
Remarks: The bytespec argument is a byte specifier.
If integer is a generalized variable that is acceptable to the macro setf, then setf may be used with mask-field to modify the specified byte.

Examples: > (mask-field (byte 1 5) -1)
32
$>$ (setq a 15)
15
> (mask-field (byte 2 0) a)
3
$>$
15
> (setf (mask-field (byte 20) a) 1)
1
$>a$
13
See Also: byte
$\max , \min$

Purpose: The function max returns the largest of its numerical arguments.
The function min returns the smallest of its numerical arguments.
Syntax: max number krest more-numbers [Function] min number krest more-numbers [Function]

Remarks: The arguments must be noncomplex numbers.
Examples: > (max 1)
1
$>(\min 1-1.0)$
-1.0
$>(\max 12.05 / 24)$
4

## minusp, plusp

| Purpose: | The predicate minusp is true if its numerical argument is strictly less than zero; otherwise it is false. |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | The predicate plusp is true if its numerical argument is strictly greater than zero; otherwise it is false. |
| Syntax: | minusp number [Function] |
|  | plusp number [Function] |

Remarks: The number argument must be a noncomplex number.
Examples: > (minusp -1)
$T$
> (plusp 0)
NIL
> (plusp least-positive-single-float)
T

## mod, rem

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

The function mod performs the floor operation on its arguments and returns the remainder as its result.

The function rem performs the truncate operation on its arguments and returns the remainder as its result.
Syntax: mod number divisor [Function]

Remarks: Both arguments must be noncomplex numbers.
Examples: > (mod 174$)$
1
> (rem -1 5)
-1
$>(\bmod -15)$
4
See Also: floor truncate

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

Purpose: The constants most-positive-fixnum and most-negative-fixnum define the implementation-dependent limits on the values of fixnums.

The value of most-positive-fixnum is the positive fixnum of the largest magnitude provided by the implementation. The value of most-positive-fixnum in Sun Common Lisp is $\mathbf{2}^{29}-1$.

The value of most-negative-fixnum is the negative fixnum of the largest magnitude provided by the implementation. The value of most-negative-fixnum in Sun Common Lisp is $-2^{29}$.

| Syntax: | most-positive-fixnum | [Constant] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | most-negative-fixnum | [Constant] |

Examples: > most-positive-fixnum 536870911
> most-negative-fixnum -536870912
$>$ (expt 2 29) 536870912

# most-positive-short-float, most-positive-single-float, most-positive-double-float, most-positive-long-float, least-positive-short-float, least-positive-single-float, least-positive-double-float, least-positive-long-float, least-negative-short-float, least-negative-single-float, least-negative-double-float, least-negative-long-float, most-negative-short-float, most-negative-single-float, most-negative-double-float, most-negative-long-float 

Purpose: These constants define the implementation-dependent limits on the values of floating-point numbers.

The constants most-positive-short-float, most-positive-single-float, most-positive-double-float, and most-positive-long-float designate the positive floating-point number of the largest magnitude of the given format.

The constants least-positive-short-float, least-positive-single-float, least-positive-double-float, and least-positive-long-float designate the smallest positive (nonzero) floating-point number of the given format.

The constants least-negative-short-float, least-negative-single-float, least-negative-double-float, and least-negative-long-float designate the negative (nonzero) floating-point number of the smallest magnitude of the given format.

The constants most-negative-short-float, most-negative-single-float, most-negative-double-float, and most-negative-long-float designate the negative floating-point number of the largest magnitude of the given format.

Syntax:

| most-positive-short-float | [Constant] |
| :---: | :---: |
| most-positive-single-float | [Constant] |
| most-positive-double-float | [Constant] |
| most-positive-long-float | [Constant] |
| least-positive-short-float | [Constant] |
| least-positive-single-float | [Constant] |
| least-positive-double-float | [Constant] |
| least-positive-long-float | [Constant] |
| least-negative-short-float | [Constant] |
| least-negative-single-float | [Constant] |

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

| least-negative-double-float | [Constant $]$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| least-negative-long-float | [Constant $]$ |
| most-negative-short-float | $[$ Constant $]$ |
| most-negative-single-float | [Constant $]$ |
| most-negative-double-float | [Constant $]$ |
| most-negative-long-float | [Constant] |

least-negative-double-float
least-negative-long-float
most-negative-short-float
most-negative-single-float
most-negative-double-float most-negative-long-float
[Constant] format.

Examples: > (zerop least-negative-double-float)
NIL
> (zerop (/ least-negative-double-float 2)) T

## numberp

Purpose: The predicate numberp is true if its argument is a number; otherwise it is false.
Syntax: numberp object [Function]
Examples: > (numberp 12)
T
> (numberp (expt 2 130))
T
> (numberp \#c(5/3 7.2))
T
> (numberp nil)
NIL
> (numberp ( cons 12 ))
NIL
numerator, denominator

Purpose: The functions numerator and denominator operate on rational numbers. They reduce the rational number to its canonical form and then return the numerator or denominator respectively.

Syntax: numerator rational
[Function]
denominator rational
[Function]
Remarks: The denominator of a reduced rational number is a positive integer.
Examples: > (numerator 1/2)
1
(denominator 12/36)
3
$>$ (numerator -1)
-1
> (denominator (/ -33))
33
phase

Purpose: The function phase computes the phase of a number. The phase is the angle between the vector representing the complex number and the positive real axis. The result is in radians and is greater than $-\pi$ and less than or equal to $\pi$.

Syntax: phase number
[Function]
Remarks: The phase of a complex number is equivalent to the following:
(atan (imagpart number) (realpart number))
Examples: > (phase 1)
0.0
> (phase -1)
3.1415925
$>$ (phase 0 )
0.0
> (phase \#c(0 1))
1.5707963
pi

Purpose: The constant pi is a long floating-point number that approximates the value of the constant $\pi$.

Syntax: pi
[Constant]
Remarks: In Sun Common Lisp, all floating-point numbers are represented in single-float format.

Examples: > pi
3.1415925
$>($ cos pi$)$
-1.0

## random

Purpose: The function random is used to generate a random number. It returns a number that is of the same type as its number argument and whose value is greater than or equal to 0 and less than number.

An object of type random state may be specified as the state argument. This argument encodes the internal state maintained by the random number generator. If the state argument is not specified, the value of the *random-state* variable is used. The state argument is modified as a side-effect of the call to random.

Syntax: random number koptional state
[Function]
Remarks: The number argument must be a positive integer or a positive floating-point number.

Examples: > ( $<=0$ (random 1000) 1000)
T
> (progn
(setq rstate1 (make-random-state)
rstate2 (make-random-state))
nil)
NIL
> (= (random 1000 rstate1) (random 1000 rstate2)) T

See Also: make-random-state
*random-state*

## *random-state*

Purpose: The value of the *random-state* variable is an object of type random state. It is used to encode the internal state maintained by the random number generator.

Syntax: *random-state* [Variable]
Examples: > (random-state-p *random-state*)
$T$
> (random-state-p (setq snap-shot (make-random-state)))
$T$
> (equalp snap-shot *random-state*)
T
> (random 100) ; while this number is random, the next one will be the same 50 ;because a snapshot of the random state object is used > (equalp snap-shot *random-state*)
NIL
> (random 100 snap-shot)
50
> (equalp snap-shot *random-state*)
T
See Also: random
make-random-state

## random-state-p



## rational, rationalize

Purpose: The functions rational and rationalize convert noncomplex numbers to rational numbers.

If the number argument is a rational number, both rational and rationalize simply return that number.
If the argument is a floating-point number, rational returns a rational number that is exactly equal in value to the floating-point number. The function rationalize returns a rational number that approximates the floating-point number to the accuracy of the underlying floating-point representation.

| Syntax: | rational number | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | rationalize number | [Function] |

Examples: > (rational 0)
0
> (rationalize -11/100)
-11/100
> (rationalize .1)
1/10

## rationalp

Purpose: The predicate rationalp is true if its argument is a rational number; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: rationalp object [Function]
Remarks: Both ratios and integers are rational numbers.

```
Examples: > (rationalp 12)
    T
        > (rationalp 6/5)
        T
        > (rationalp 1.212)
        NIL
```


## realpart, imagpart

| Purpose: | The functions realpart and imagpart return the real and imaginary parts of a <br> complex number respectively. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Syntax: | realpart number <br> imagpart number | [Function] |
| [Function] |  |  |

Remarks: If the number argument is noncomplex, the imaginary part is returned as a zero of the same type as the real part.
Examples: > (realpart \#c(23 41))
23
> (imagpart \#c(23 41.0))
41.0
> (realpart \#c(23 41.0))
23.0
> (imagpart 23.0)
0.0

## scale-float

Purpose: The function scale-float scales its float argument.
It returns the value of (* float (expt (float radix float) integer)), where radix is the radix of the floating-point representation of float.

Syntax: scale-float float integer [Function]
Examples: > (scale-float 1.0 1)
2.0
> (scale-float 10.01 -2)
2.5025
> (scale-float 230 ) 23.0

# short-float-epsilon, single-float-epsilon, double-float-epsilon, long-float-epsilon, short-float-negative-epsilon, single-float-negative-epsilon, double-float-negative-epsilon, long-float-negative-epsilon 



Remarks: In Sun Common Lisp, all floating-point numbers are represented in single-float format.
short-float-epsilon, single-float-epsilon, double-float-epsilon, ...

```
Examples: >(=1.0 (+ 1.0 single-float-epsilon))
    NIL
    \(>(=1.0\) (+ 1.0 (/ single-float-epsilon 2\()\) )
    T
    > (minusp long-float-negative-epsilon)
    NIL
```


## signum

Purpose: The function signum returns a numerical value that indicates whether its argument is negative, zero, or positive.
If the number argument is a rational number, signum returns -1 if number is negative, 0 if it is zero, and 1 if it is positive.
If number is a floating-point number, results equivalent to these are returned in the same floating-point format as number.

If number is a complex zero, the result is the same as the argument. Otherwise if number is any other complex number, the phase of the result is the same as that of the argument, and its magnitude is 1.
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { Syntax: } & \text { signum number } & \text { [Function] } \\ \text { Examples: } & >(\text { signum 99) } & \\ & 1 & \\ & >(\text { signum -99/100) } & \\ & -1 & \\ & >(\text { signum } 0.0) \\ & 0.0 \\ & >(\text { signum \#c }(0 \text { 33) }) \\ & \text { \#C(0.0 1.0) }\end{array}$

## $\sin , \cos , \tan$

Purpose: The functions $\sin , \cos$, and tan compute trigonometric functions. They compute the sine, cosine, and tangent functions respectively.

Syntax: sin radians [Function]
cos radians [Function]
$\boldsymbol{t a n}$ radians [Function]
Remarks: The radians argument may be a complex number.
Examples: > $(\sin 0)$
0.0
$>(\cos \mathrm{pi})$
-1.0
> (tan \#c(0 1))
\#C(0.0 .7615941)

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

Purpose: The functions sinh, cosh, tanh, asinh, acosh, and atanh compute hyperbolic trigonometric functions.

The function sinh computes the hyperbolic sine, cosh the hyberbolic cosine, and tanh the hyperbolic tangent; asinh computes the hyperbolic arc sine, acosh the hyperbolic arc cosine, and atanh the hyperbolic arc tangent.

| Syntax: | sinh number | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | cosh number | [Function] |
|  | tanh number | [Function] |
|  | asinh number | [Function] |
|  | acosh number | [Function] |
|  | atanh number | [Function] |

Remarks: The number argument may be complex.
Examples: > (sinh 0)
0.0
> (cosh (complex 0 pi))
\#C(-1.0 0.0)

## sqrt, isqrt

Purpose: The functions sqrt and isqrt compute square roots.
The function sqrt returns the principal square root of its numerical argument.
The function isqrt is the integer square root function. It returns the greatest integer less than or equal to the principal square root of its integer argument. The integer argument must be a nonnegative integer.

| Syntax: | sqrt number | [Function] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | isqrt integer | [Function] |
| Examples: | > (sqrt 25) |  |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & 5.0 \\ & >\text { (isqrt 25) } \end{aligned}$ |  |
|  | 5 |  |
|  | > (sqrt -1) |  |
|  | \#C(0.0 1.0) |  |
|  | > (sqrt \#c(0 2) ) |  |
|  | \#C(1.0 1.0) |  |

## truncate, round, ftruncate, fround

Purpose: The functions truncate, round, ftruncate, and fround perform type conversion operations on noncomplex numbers.

The functions truncate and round convert their arguments to integers. The function truncate truncates towards zero. It returns the largest integer in magnitude that is less than or equal to its argument in magnitude and that is of the same sign as its argument. The function round rounds to the nearest integer. If its argument lies exactly between two integers, it returns the nearest even integer.

The functions ftruncate and fround produce results identical to those of truncate and round, except that the results are returned in floating-point format.
If the optional argument divisor is given, then the result is mathematically equivalent to dividing number by divisor and then applying the truncate or round operation. The divisor must also be a noncomplex number.

| Syntax: | truncate number koptional divisor | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | round number koptional divisor | [Function] |
|  | ftruncate number koptional divisor | [Function] |
|  | fround number koptional divisor | [Function] |

Remarks: Each of these functions returns the remainder of the result as a second value. If both arguments are of the same type, the remainder is of that type also; otherwise it is a floating-point number.

```
Examples: > (truncate 1)
        1
        O
        > (truncate .5)
        O
        .5
        > (round .5)
        O
        .5
        > (ftruncate -7 2)
        -3.0
        -1.0
        > (fround -7 2)
        -4.0
        1.0
```


## zerop

Purpose: The predicate zerop is true if its numerical argument is equal to zero; otherwise it is false.

| Syntax: | zerop number | [Function] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Examples: | > (zerop 0) |  |
|  | $\stackrel{T}{>}(\text { zerop } 1)$ |  |
|  | NIL |  |
|  | > (zerop -0.0) |  |
|  |  |  |
|  | > (zerop 0/100) |  |
|  |  |  |
|  | > (zerop \#c(0 0.0)) |  |
|  |  |  |

## Chapter 13. Characters

## Chapter 13. Characters

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## About Characters

Characters in Common Lisp are data objects that represent printed symbols or operations for formatting text.

## Character Set

Sun Common Lisp supports an 8-bit ASCII character set in the following manner. The set of characters that corresponds to the values between 0 and 127 inclusive represents the standard 7 -bit ASCII character set. The collating sequence for this set of characters is defined in Figure 13-1. This table uses the standard ASCII character names; the corresponding values are given in octal format. The octal value for a particular character is given by the sum of its column and row numbers. Characters whose values lie between 127 and 255 inclusive are printed in hexadecimal form. For example, \#\cC1 represents the character whose value is 193 .

|  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 9 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 000 | NUL | SOH | STX | ETX | EOT | ENQ | ACK | BEL |
| 010 | BS | HT | NL | VT | NP | CR | SO | SI |
| 020 | DLE | DC1 | DC2 | DC3 | DC4 | NAK | SYN | ETB |
| 030 | CAN | EM | SUB | ESC | FS | GS | RS | US |
| 040 | SP | $!$ | " | \# | \$ | \% | \& | , |
| 050 | ( | ) | * | + | , | - | - | / |
| 060 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 070 | 8 | 9 | : | ; | < | $=$ | > | ? |
| 100 | - | A | B | C | D | E | F | G |
| 110 | H | I | J | K | L | M | N | 0 |
| 120 | P | Q | R | S | T | U | V | W |
| 130 | X | Y | Z | [ | 1 | ] | $\cdots$ | - |
| 140 | - | a | b | c | d | e | f | g |
| 150 | h | i | j | k | 1 | m | n | $\bigcirc$ |
| 160 | P | q | $\boldsymbol{r}$ | 8 | t | u | v | W |
| 170 | x | y | $z$ | \{ | $\mid$ | \} | $\sim$ | DEL |

Figure 13-1. 7-bit ASCII Table

## Character Attributes

Each character has three attributes: code, bits, and font. A character is uniquely defined by its code attribute, bits attribute, and font attribute. All attributes are nonnegative fixnums. In Sun Common Lisp, the font attribute of all characters is 0.

Sun Common Lisp explicitly names four bits of the bits attributes. These are the :control, :meta, :super, and :hyper bits. Their weights are defined by the constants char-control-bit, char-meta-bit, char-super-bit, and char-hyper-bit. The weight of the control bit is 1 ; of the meta bit, 2 ; of the super bit, 4 ; and of the hyper bit, 8 .

## Standard Characters and Printing Characters

Common Lisp defines a standard character set as a subtype of characters called standard characters. The standard characters consist of the newline character and the 95 printing characters. The font and bits attributes of all standard characters are 0.

The following table lists the printing characters according to the collating sequence. The printing characters include the space character. The printing characters are also known as graphic characters.

```
u!"##$% & ( ) * + , - . / 0 1 2 3 4 4 5 6 7 8 9 : ; < = > ?
C A B C D E F F G H I J J K L M N N O P Q R R S T U U V W X X Y Z [\\] - -
```

Figure 13-2. Printing Characters

The alphabetic characters are a subset of the graphic characters. The bits attribute of any alphabetic character is 0 .

## String Characters

String characters are a subtype of characters that can be contained in strings. A string character is any character whose bits and font attributes are 0 . All of the standard characters are thus string characters.

## Categories of Operations

This section groups operations on characters according to functionality.

## Data Type Predicates

```
characterp
```

This predicate determines whether an object is a character.

## Character Attributes

```
char-bit char-hyper-bit
char-bits char-meta-bit
char-bits-limit char-super-bit
char-code char-font
char-code-limit
char-control-bit
char-font-limit
```

These functions and constants provide information on the properties of character objects.

## Predicates on Characters

```
alpha-char-p }\quad\mathrm{ lower-case-p
alpha-char-p }\quadl\begin{array}{ll}{\mathrm{ lower-case-p}}\\{\mathrm{ alphanumericp }}&{\mathrm{ upper-case-p}}
alpha-char-p lower-case-p
both-case-p standard-char-p
digit-char-p string-char-p
graphic-char-p
```

These predicates test properties of characters.

## Character Comparison Operations

```
char= char-equal
char/=
char<
char>
char<=
char>=
char-not-equal
char-lessp
char-greaterp
char-not-greaterp
char-not-lessp
```

These functions compare character objects.

## Character Construction and Conversion Operations

| character | set-char-bit |
| :--- | :--- |
| char-upcase | char-int |
| char-downcase | int-char |
| code-char | char-name |
| digit-char | name-char |
| make-char |  |

These functions are used to create and modify character objects and to convert between different representations for characters.

## alpha-char-p

Purpose: The predicate alpha-char-p is true if its character argument is an alphabetic character; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: alpha-char-p char [Function]
Remarks: The alphabetic characters are a subset of the graphic characters. The bits attribute of any alphabetic character is 0 .

The standard characters $\mathbf{A}$ through $\mathbf{Z}$ and a through $\mathbf{z}$ are alphabetic characters.
Examples: > (alpha-char-p \#\a)
T
> (alpha-char-p \#\5)
NIL
> (alpha-char-p \#\Bell)
NIL

## alphanumericp

Purpose: The predicate alphanumericp is true if its character argument is an alphabetic character or a numeric character; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: alphanumericp char [Function]
Remarks: The alphanumeric characters are a subset of the graphic characters. The bits attribute of any alphanumeric character is 0 .
The standard characters $\mathbf{A}$ through $\mathbf{Z}$, a through $\mathbf{z}$, and $\mathbf{0}$ through 9 are alphanumeric characters.

Examples: > (alphanumericp \#\Z)
T
> (alphanumericp \#\9)
T
> (alphanumericp \#\0)
NIL
> (alphanumericp \#\Bell) NIL

See Also: alpha-char-p
digit-char-p

## char-bit

Purpose: The function char-bit tests the bit whose name is name in the given character object. It returns a non-nil value if the bit is set and nil if the bit is not set.

Syntax: char-bit char name [Function]
Remarks: The function char-bit recognizes the names :control, :meta, :super, and :hyper as names of character bits.

If the character argument is specified in a form that is acceptable to the macro setf, then setf may be used with char-bit to modify the given bit.

Examples: > (char-bit (make-char \#\a 1) :control)
$T$
> (char-bit \#\a :meta)
NIL
> (let ( $($ tmp \# $\backslash \mathrm{a})$ )
(setf (char-bit tmp :hyper) t)
(char-bit tmp :hyper))
T

See Also: set-char-bit

## char-bits

Purpose: The function char-bits returns the bits attribute of its character argument. The result is a nonnegative integer less than the value of the constant char-bits-limit.

Syntax: char-bits char
[Function]
Examples: > (char-bits \#\b)
0
> (char-bits (make-char \#\© 5)) 5
> (char-bits \#\Control-A)
1
See Also:
char-bits-limit

## char-bits-limit

Purpose: The constant char-bits-limit is a nonnegative integer that defines the upper exclusive bound on the value of the result of the function char-bits.
The value of char-bits-limit in Sun Common Lisp is $2^{4}$.
Syntax: char-bits-limit [Constant]
Remarks: The function char-bits returns the bits attribute of a given character.
Examples: > char-bits-limit
16
See Also: char-bits

## char-code

| Purpose: | The function char-code returns the code attribute of its character argument. The result is a nonnegative integer less than the value of the constant char-code-limit. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Syntax: | char-code char | [Function] |
| Examples: | > (char-code \#\Bell) |  |
|  | $\stackrel{7}{>}(\text { char-code \# } \backslash \mathrm{a})$ |  |
|  | 97 |  |
|  | > (char-code \#\Control-a) |  |
|  | 65 |  |
|  | > (char-code \#\Control-\a) |  |
|  | 97 |  |
| See Also: | char-code-limit |  |

## char-code-limit

Purpose: The constant char-code-limit is a nonnegative integer that defines the upper exclusive bound on the value of the result of the function char-code.

The value of char-code-limit in Sun Common Lisp is $2^{8}$.
Syntax: char-code-limit
[Constant]
Remarks: The function char-code returns the code attribute of a given character.
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Examples: } & \begin{array}{l}\text { > char-code-limit } \\ \\ \\ 256\end{array}\end{array}$
See Also: char-code
char-control-bit, char-meta-bit, char-super-bit, char-hyper-bit

| Purpose: | The constants char-control-bit, char-meta-bit, char-super-bit, and char-hyper-bit define the weights of the four named bits attributes. |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | The value of char-control-bit is 1 ; char-meta-bit, 2; char-super-bit, 4; and char-hyper-bit, 8. |
| Syntax: | char-control-bit [Constant] |
|  | char-meta-bit [Constant] |
|  | char-super-bit [Constant] |
|  | char-hyper-bit [Constant] |
| Examples: | > char-control-bit |
|  | 1 |
|  | > char-meta-bit |
|  | 2 |
|  | > char-super-bit |
|  | 4 |
|  | > char-hyper-bit |
|  | 8 |

## char-font

Purpose: | The function char-font returns the font attribute of its character argument. The |
| :--- |
| result is a nonnegative integer less than the value of the constant char-font-limit. |

Syntax: $\quad$ char-font char

Remarks: | In Sun Common Lisp, the font attribute of all characters is 0. |
| :--- |

Examples: $\quad>$ (char-font \# $\backslash$ Control-A)
See Also: char-font-limit

## char-font-limit

Purpose: | The constant char-font-limit is a nonnegative integer that defines the upper |
| :--- |
| exclusive bound on the value of the result of the function char-font. |
| The value of char-font-limit in Sun Common Lisp is 1. |

Syntax: $\quad$ char-font-limit
Remarks: The function char-font returns the font attribute of a given character.
Examples: > char-font-limit
See Also: char-font

## char-int

```
Purpose: The function char-int returns the nonnegative integer that encodes its character argument.
Syntax:
Remarks: If the font and bits attributes of the character are 0 , the results of char-int and char-code are the same.
```


## Examples: > (char-int \#\Nuil)

```
0
> (char-int \#\Control-Null)
256
> (char-int \#\Meta-Null)
512
> (char-int \#\Super-Null)
1024
> (char-int \#\Hyper-Null)
2048
See Also: char-code
int-char
```


## char-name, name-char

Purpose: The functions char-name and name-char provide mappings between characters and character names.

The function char-name returns the name of its character argument as a string. If the character has no name, char-name returns nil.

The function name-char returns the character object whose name is name. If such a character does not exist, then name-char returns nil.

Characters having names may be written as \# \followed by the character name. Character names are not case sensitive. All nongraphic characters whose font and bits attributes are 0 have names.

| Syntax: | char-name char | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | name-char name | [Function] |

Remarks: The function name-char recognizes, and the function char-name returns, the character names in the following table. The ASCII values of the characters are given in octal format.

| Null | 0 | Page | 14 | ETB | 27 |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: |
| SOH | 1 | Return | 15 | CAN | 30 |
| STX | 2 | SO | 16 | EM | 31 |
| ETX | 3 | SI | 17 | SUB | 32 |
| EOT | 4 | DLE | 20 | ESC | 33 |
| ENQ | 5 | DC1 | 21 | FS | 34 |
| ACK | 6 | DC2 | 22 | GS | 35 |
| Bell | 7 | DC3 | 23 | RS | 36 |
| Backspace | 10 | DC4 | 24 | US | 37 |
| Tab | 11 | NAK | 25 | Space | 40 |
| Newline | 12 | SYN | 26 | Rubout | 177 |
| VT | 13 |  |  |  |  |

The function name-char also recognizes the following standard ASCII names, although the longer names above are returned by char-name:

| NUL | 0 | HT | 11 | CR | 15 |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: |
| BEL | 7 | NL | 12 | SP | 40 |
| BS | 10 | NP | 14 | DEL | 177 |

## char-name, name-char

The function name-char also recognizes the following character name as a name for the newline character:

## Linefeed <br> 12

The function name-char also recognizes names of the form $\mathbf{c} x x$, where $x x$ are hexadecimal digits, and returns the character with the given code. The function char-name returns names of this form for characters with codes greater than 127.

The name argument of name-char must be a symbol or a string. The name argument is not case sensitive.

The function name-char is used by the reader to parse characters entered with the \#\ syntax. The function char-name is used by the printer to print characters when *print-escape* is non-nil.

```
Examples: > (char-name #\Cr)
    "Return"
    > (char-name #\a)
    NIL
> (char-name #\Control-Null)
NIL
> (name-char 'linefeed)
#\Newline
> (name-char "A")
NIL
> (name-char "space")
#\Space
```


## char-upcase, char-downcase

Purpose: The functions char-upcase and char-downcase perform case conversions upon characters.

The function char-upcase attempts to convert its character argument to its uppercase equivalent. It returns a character with the same bits and font attributes as its argument. If the code attribute of the result differs from that of the argument, the case conversion has succeeded.

The function char-downcase attempts to convert its character argument to its lowercase equivalent. It returns a character with the same bits and font attributes as its argument. If the code attribute of the result differs from that of the argument, the case conversion has succeeded.

Syntax: char-upcase char [Function]
char-downcase char [Function]
Remarks: These functions perform case conversions only on alphabetic characters. If the bits attribute of char is nonzero, char-upcase and char-downcase have no effect.

Examples: > (char-upcase \#\a)
\# $\backslash$ A
> (char-upcase \#\A)
\#\A
> (char-downcase \#\A)
\#\a
> (char-downcase \#\9) \#\9

See Also: upper-case-p
lower-case-p

# char $=$, char $/=$, char $<, \operatorname{char}<=$, char $>$, char $>=$, char-equal, char-not-equal, char-lessp, char-not-greaterp, char-greaterp, char-not-lessp 

Purpose: These predicates compare character objects. If the characters are standard characters, they are compared according to the ordering given by Figure 13-1.
If characters differ in either their code, bits, or font attributes, they are considered to be different.

If characters agree in their bits and font attributes, they are compared according to the ordering of their code attributes.

The predicate char $=$ is true if the specified characters are all the same; otherwise it is false.

The predicate char/= is true if the specified characters are all different; otherwise it is false.

The predicate char< is true if the specified characters are all in increasing order; otherwise it is false.

The predicate char<= is true if the specified characters are all in nondecreasing order; otherwise it is false.
The predicate char> is true if the specified characters are all in decreasing order; otherwise it is false.

The predicate char $>=$ is true if the specified characters are all in nonincreasing order; otherwise it is false.

The predicates char-equal, char-not-equal, char-lessp, char-not-greaterp, char-greaterp, and char-not-lessp are like char $=$, char/=, char<, char<=, char>, and char $>=$ respectively but ignore differences in case and in bits attributes.

| Syntax: | char $=$ character \&rest $^{\text {more-characters }}$ | [Function] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | char/ = character \&rest more-characters | [Function] |
|  | char< character \&rest more-characters | [Function] |
|  | char> character \&rest more-characters | [Function] |
|  | char< = character \&rest more-characters | [Function] |
|  | char $>=$ character \&rest more-characters | [Function] |
|  | char-equal character \&rest more-characters | [Function] |

char $=$, char $/=$, char $<$, char $<=$, char $>$, char $>=$, char-equal,,.
char-not-equal character krest more-characters
[Function]
char-lessp character \&rest more-characters
char-greaterp character \&rest more-characters
char-not-greaterp character \&rest more-characters
char-not-lessp character \&rest more-characters
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
Examples: > (char= \#\A \#\A) T
> (char= \#\A \#\a)
NIL
> (char>= \#\z \#\x \#\n \#\a \#\a)
T
(char-equal \#\a \#\A \#\a)
T
> (char-greaterp \#\b \#\a \#\A)
NIL

## character

Purpose: The function character coerces its object to be a character. If the coercion is not possible, an error is signaled.

The following objects may be coerced into characters: strings of length 1 , symbols whose print names are of length 1 , and nonnegative integers $n$ for which (int-char $n$ ) is defined.

Syntax:
character object
[Function]
Remarks: Coercing a string of length 1 results in the character contained in that string. Coercing a symbol whose print name is of length 1 results in the character contained in that print name string. Coercing a nonnegative integer for which (int-char $n$ ) is defined results in the character defined by (int-char $n$ ).

Examples: > (character "a") \# $\backslash$ a
$>$ (character 'a)
\# $\backslash$ A
> (character 120)
\#\x
See Also: coerce
int-char

## characterp



## code-char

Purpose: The function code-char creates and returns a character object with the specified code, bits, and font attributes. If it is not possible to create such a character, code-char returns nil.

Syntax: code-char code koptional (bits 0) (font 0) [Function]
Remarks: The code, bits, and font arguments must all be nonnegative integers.
Examples: > (code-char 65)
\# $\backslash$ A
> (code-char 65 15)
\#\Control-Meta-Super-Hyper-A
$>$ (code-char 6501 )
NIL
See Also: make-char

## digit-char

Purpose: The function digit-char creates and returns a character object that represents the value weight in the specified radix and that has the specified font attribute.
If it succeeds, digit-char returns the new character. If it is not possible to create such a character object, digit-char returns nil.
If the font argument is 0 , if radix is an integer greater than or equal to 2 and less than or equal to 36 , and if weight is a nonnegative integer less than radix, then digit-char always succeeds.

Syntax: digit-char weight koptional (radix 10) (font 0) [Function]
Remarks: If more than one such character is possible, one of these is returned consistently; uppercase characters are favored over lowercase characters.

```
Examples: > (digit-char 0)
#\0
> (digit-char 10 11)
#\A
> (digit-char 10 10)
NIL
```


## digit-char-p

Purpose: The predicate digit-char-p tests whether its character argument is a digit of the specified radix. If it is, digit-char-p returns a nonnegative integer (in radix 10) that represents the weight of the character in the specified radix; otherwise it returns nil.

Syntax:
digit-char-p char \&optional (radix 10)
Remarks: The radix argument must be a nonnegative integer.
The standard characters 0 through 9 and $\mathbf{A}$ through $\mathbf{Z}$ (or, equivalently, a through $\mathbf{z})$ can be digit characters. The weights in radix 10 of the standard characters $\mathbf{A}$ through $\mathbf{Z}$ (or a through $\mathbf{z}$ ) are 10 through 35 respectively.

Examples: > (digit-char-p \#\0)
0
> (digit-char-p \#\a 11)
10
> (digit-char-p \#\Z 36)
35
> (digit-char-p \#\D 13)
NIL

## graphic-char-p

Purpose: The predicate graphic-char-p tests whether its character argument is a graphic, or printing, character. It is true if char is a printing character; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: graphic-char-p char
[Function]
Remarks: The graphic characters consist of all of the standard characters except the newline character.
The bits attribute of any graphic character is 0 .
Examples: > (graphic-char-p \#<br>~)
T
(graphic-char-p \#\Space)
$T$
> (graphic-char-p \#\Bell)
NIL

## int-char

Purpose: The function int-char returns the character object that is encoded by the integer argument. If no such character exists, int-char returns nil.

Syntax: int-char integer [Function]
Remarks: For any character object $c$ that is returned by int-char, the value of (char-int $c$ ) is equal to the value of the integer argument.

Examples: > (int-char 65)
\#
> (int-char 97) \# \a

See Also: char-int

## make-char

Purpose: The function make-char creates and returns a character object whose code attribute is the same as that of its character argument and whose bits and font attributes are specified by the bits and font arguments.

If it is not possible to create such a character, make-char returns nil.
Syntax: make-char char koptional (bits 0) (font 0)
[Function]
Remarks: The bits and font arguments must be nonnegative integers.
If both the bits and font arguments are 0 , make-char always succeeds.
Examples: > (make-char \#\a)
\# $\backslash$,
> (make-char \#\A 15)
\#\Control-Meta-Super-Hyper-A
> (make-char \#\a 0 char-font-limit)
NIL
See Also: code-char

## set-char-bit

Purpose: The function set-char-bit is used to set a bit in a character object. It returns a new character object in which the bit with the given name has the specified logical value.

Syntax: set-char-bit char name logical-value
[Function]
Remarks: The function set-char-bit recognizes the names :control, :meta, :super, and :hyper as names of character bits.

```
Examples: > (get-char-bit #\a :control nil)
    #\a
    > (set-char-bit #\0 :control t)
    #\Control-O
```


## standard-char-p

Purpose: The predicate standard-char-p tests whether its character argument is a standard character. It is true if char is a standard character; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: standard-char-p char
[Function]
Remarks: The font and bits attributes of any standard character are 0.
Examples: $\begin{aligned} & >\text { (standard-char-p \#\Space) } \\ & \mathrm{T} \\ & >\text { (standard-char-p \#\\~) } \\ & \mathrm{T} \\ & >\text { (standard-char-p \#\Bell) }\end{aligned}$
NIL

## string-char-p

Purpose: The predicate string-char-p tests whether its character argument is a character that can be an element of a string. It is true if the character is a string character; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: string-char-p char
[Function]
Remarks: The standard characters are a subset of the string characters. The bits and font attributes of any string character are 0 .

```
Examples: > (string-char-p #\~)
    T
    > (string-char-p #\Space)
    T
    > (string-char-p #\Bell)
    T
> (string-char-p (code-char 32 15))
NIL
```


## upper-case-p, lower-case-p, both-case-p

Purpose: The predicates upper-case-p, lower-case-p, and both-case-p test the case of a character.

The predicate upper-case-p is true if its argument is an uppercase character; otherwise it is false.

The predicate lower-case-p is true if its argument is a lowercase character; otherwise it is false.

The predicate both-case-p is true if its argument is an uppercase character and a corresponding lowercase character exists or if its argument is a lowercase character and a corresponding uppercase character exists.

| Syntax: | upper-case-p char | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | lower-case-p char | [Function] |
|  | both-case-p char | [Function] |

Remarks: Any character that is either an uppercase character or a lowercase character is an alphabetic character and therefore a printing character. Its bits attribute is 0 .

The standard characters $\mathbf{A}$ through $\mathbf{Z}$ are uppercase, and a through $\mathbf{z}$ are lowercase.

```
Examples: > (upper-case-p #\A)
    T
    > (upper-case-p #\a)
    NIL
    > (lower-case-p #\Bell)
NIL
> (both-case-p #\a)
T
> (both-case-p #\5)
NIL
```

| See Also: | char-upcase |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | char-downcase |

Chapter 14. Sequences

## Chapter 14. Sequences

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## About Sequences

Sequences are ordered sets of elements and include both lists and vectors (one-dimensional arrays). Common Lisp provides operations for searching, modifying, sorting, merging, mapping, concatenating, and reducing sequences.

The operations presented here apply to all types of sequences. Operations that are specific to lists and to vectors are discussed in the chapters "Lists" and "Arrays" respectively.

## Categories of Operations

This section groups operations on sequences according to functionality.

## Basic Sequence Operations

```
copy-seq make-sequence
elt
    subseq
length
```

These functions create new sequences and perform basic sequence operations.

## Searching Sequences

| count | mismatch |
| :--- | :--- |
| count-if | position |
| count-if-not | position-if |
| find | position-if-not |
| find-if | search |
| find-if-not |  |

These functions search sequences to locate elements that meet some criterion.

## Sorting and Merging Sequences

| merge <br> sort | stable-sort |
| :--- | :--- |

These functions sort and merge sequences.

## Modifying Sequences

| delete | remove-if-not |
| :--- | :--- |
| delete-if | remove-duplicates |
| delete-if-not | replace |
| delete-duplicates | reverse |
| fill | nreverse |
| nsubstitute | substitute |
| nsubstitute-if | substitute-if |
| nsubstitute-if-not | substitute-if-not |
| remove |  |
| remove-if |  |

These functions modify sequences or produce modified copies of their sequence arguments.

## Concatenating, Mapping, and Reducing Sequences

| every | concatenate |
| :--- | :--- |
| some | map |
| notevery | reduce |
| notany |  |

These functions perform concatenation, mapping, and reduction operations on sequences.

## concatenate

Purpose: The function concatenate creates and returns a new sequence that contains copies of the individual elements of all of the sequence arguments in the order in which they occur in the argument list. The new sequence is of type result-type, which must be a subtype of the sequence data type and compatible with the type of the sequence elements.

Syntax: concatenate result-type krest sequences
[Function]
Examples: > (concatenate 'string "all" " " "together" " " "now")
"all together now" > (concatenate 'list)
NIL
> (concatenate 'list "all" "boy")
(\#\a \#\1 \#\1 \#\b \#\o \#\y)
See Also: append

## copy-seq

Purpose: The function copy-seq creates and returns a copy of its sequence argument.
Syntax: copy-seq sequence [Function]

Remarks: The resulting sequence is equalp to the original.

```
Examples: > (setq str "a string")
"a string"
> (equalp str (copy-seq str))
8
> (eql str (copy-seq str))
NIL
```


## count, count-if, count-if-not

Purpose: The functions count, count-if, and count-if-not count either the number of sequence elements that match a particular item or the number of elements that satisfy some test predicate. The count value is returned as a nonnegative integer.
If the :start and :end keyword arguments are specified, only the subsequence they delimit is searched.

Syntax:
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { count item sequence \&key } & & \text { :from-end :test :test-not } & \\ & \text { :start :end :key } & \text { [Function] } \\ \text { count-if test sequence \&key :from-end :start :end :key } & & \text { [Function] } \\ \text { count-if-not test sequence \&key :from-end :start :end :key } & \text { [Function] }\end{array}$
Remarks: The keyword arguments :start and :end take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequence. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the subsequence; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the subsequence. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the sequence.
The function eql is the default that is used by count for matching the item argument against the sequence elements. Either the keyword argument :test or the keyword argument :test-not may be used with count to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a sequence element should be tested. The arguments passed to the test function of count or to the test predicate of count-if or count-if-not are extracted from the sequence elements according to the :key function. If :key is not specified, the elements themselves are used.

The :from-end argument has no effect on the result.

```
Examples: > (count #\a "how many A's are there in here?")
2
> (count-if-not #'oddp '((1) (2) (3) (4)) :key #'car)
2
```


## elt

Purpose: The function elt accesses and returns the sequence element specified by index.
Syntax: elt sequence index
[Function]
Remarks: The index is an offset value from the beginning of the sequence; indexing is zero-origin. The index value must be a nonnegative integer less than the length of the sequence. If the sequence is a vector having a fill pointer, elt observes the length specified by the fill pointer.

The macro setf may be used with elt to destructively replace a sequence element.
Examples: > (setq str "0123456789")
"0123456789"
> (elt str 6)
\#
> (setf (elt str 0) \#<br>\#)
\#
$>\operatorname{str}$
"\#123456789"
See Also: aref
nth

## every, some, notevery, notany

Purpose: The functions every, some, notevery, and notany test sequence elements for satisfaction of a given predicate. These functions operate on as many sequence arguments as the given predicate takes arguments. The predicate is invoked on each successive set of elements, one from each sequence.

The function every returns nil as soon as any invocation of the predicate returns nil. If the end of any sequence is reached, every returns a non-nil value.

The function some returns the first non-nil value that is returned by the invocation of the predicate. If the end of any sequence is reached, some returns nil.
The function notevery returns a non-mil value as soon as any invocation of the predicate returns nil. If the end of any sequence is reached, notevery returns nil.
The function notany returns nil as soon as any invocation of the predicate returns a non-nil value. If the end of any sequence is reached, notany returns a non-nil value.

Syntax: every predicate sequence krest more-sequences
some predicate sequence krest more-sequences
notevery predicate sequence $\dot{\text { drest }}$ more-sequences
notany predicate sequence krest more-sequences
[Function]
Examples: > (every \#'string-char-p "abc")
T

T

NIL

## fill

Purpose: The function fill destructively modifies its sequence argument by replacing each element with the specified item. It returns the modified sequence.

If the :start and :end keyword arguments are specified, only the subsequence they delimit is modified.

Syntax: fill sequence item \&key :start :end
[Function]
Remarks: The item argument must be an object that is compatible with the sequence type.
The keyword arguments :start and :end take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequence. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the subsequence; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the subsequence. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the sequence.

Examples: > (fill '( $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4\end{array}$ 5) '(444))
((444) (444) (444) (444) (444) (444))
> (fill "01234" \#\e :start 3)
"012ee"
See Also: replace

## find, find-if, find-if-not

Purpose: The functions find, find-if, and find-if-not each search a sequence for an element that matches a particular item or an element that satisfies some test predicate. If they succeed, the leftmost such element found is returned; otherwise nil is returned.

If the :start and :end keyword arguments are specified, only the subsequence they delimit is searched.

If the :from-end keyword argument is non-nil, these functions search for the rightmost element that meets the test criterion.

Syntax:

| ```find item sequence &key :from-end :test :test-not :start :end :key``` | [Function] |
| :---: | :---: |
| find-if test sequence \&key :from-end :start :end :key | [Function] |
| find-if-not test sequence kkey :from-end :start :end :key | [Function] |

Remarks: The keyword arguments :start and :end take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequence. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the subsequence; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the subsequence. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the sequence.

The function eql is the default that is used by find for matching the item argument against the sequence elements. Either the keyword argument :test or the keyword argument :test-not may be used with find to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a sequence element should be tested. The arguments passed to the test function of find or to the test predicate of find-if or find-if-not are extracted from the sequence elements according to the :key function. If :key is not specified, the elements themselves are used.

Examples: > (find \#\d "here are some letters that can be looked at" :test \#'char>) \#\Space
> (find-if \#'oddp '(12345) :end 3 :from-end $t$ ) 3

## length

Purpose: The function length returns the length of its sequence argument as an integer value.

If the sequence is a vector having a fill pointer, length returns the value specified by the fill pointer.

Syntax: length sequence
[Function]
Remarks: The function length may loop infinitely on circular lists, unlike list-length.
Examples: > (length "abc")
3
> (setq str (make-array '(3) :element-type 'string-char :initial-contents "abc" :fill-pointer t))
"abc"
> (length str)
3
> (setf (fill-pointer str) 2)
2
> (length str)
2

See Also: list-length

## make-sequence

Purpose: The function make-sequence creates and returns a sequence of the specified type and length.

If the :initial-element argument is specified, all the sequence elements are initialized to its value.

Syntax: make-sequence type size \&key :initial-element [Function]
Remarks: The type argument must specify a subtype of the sequence data type.
The :initial-element argument must be of a type compatible with the type of the sequence.

Examples: > (make-sequence 'list 0)
NIL
> (make-sequence 'string 26 :initial-element \#\.)
"..............................."
See Also: make-array make-list

## map

Purpose: The function map creates and returns a new sequence. The mapping operation involves applying a function to successive sets of arguments in which one argument is obtained from each sequence. The resulting sequence contains the results returned by the function.
The function argument must take as many arguments as there are sequence arguments.
The resulting sequence is the same length as the shortest of the sequence arguments. It is of type result-type, which must be a subtype of the sequence data type and compatible with the types of the sequence elements.

Syntax: map result-type function sequence \&rest more-sequences [Function]
Remarks: The result-type argument may be specified as nil. In this case, the function argument is invoked only for its side effects, and map returns nil.

Examples: > (map 'string \#' (lambda (x y)
(char "O1234567890ABCDEF" (mod (+ x y) 16)))
-(1234)
'(10987))
"AAAA"
> (setq seq '("lower" "UPPER" "" "123"))
("lower" "UPPER" "" "123")
> (map nil \#'nstring-upcase seq)
NIL
> seq
("LOWER" "UPPER" "" "123")
See Also: mapcar

## merge

Purpose: The function merge destructively merges two sequences and returns the resulting sequence. The sequence arguments are merged according to the order determined by the predicate and :key arguments. The resulting sequence is of type result-type, which must be a subtype of the sequence data type and compatible with the types of the sequence elements.

The order of the elements in the result sequence is determined by the predicate argument. The predicate must be a function of two elements. It should return a non-nil value if the element corresponding to its first argument is to precede the element corresponding to the second in the result sequence; otherwise it should return nil.

If the sequences were originally sorted according to the given predicate, the result sequence is sorted in like manner. If not, the result is an interleaving of the two sequences in which the order of the elements of each individual sequence is preserved in the result sequence.

Syntax: merge result-type sequence1 sequence2 predicate \&key :key [Function]
Remarks: The merge operation is stable. That is, if two elements are considered equivalent by the $\bar{p} \bar{r} e d i c a t e$ function, the element from sequence 1 precedes the element from sequence2 in the resulting sequence.
The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a sequence element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the sequence element. If :key is not specified, the element itself is treated as the key.

Examples: > (merge 'list '(1 3 5) ' ( 246 ( 4 '<)
(1 23456 )

## mismatch

Purpose: The function mismatch compares two sequences element by element. If they are of the same length and if each corresponding pair of elements satisfies the test, then mismatch returns nil. Otherwise mismatch returns the offset of the leftmost nonmatching element from the beginning of sequence1.
If one sequence is shorter than the other, but the two otherwise match, the result is the offset from the beginning of sequence1 of the element following the last one tested.

If the :start and :end keyword arguments are specified, only the subsequences they delimit are compared.
If the :from-end keyword argument is non-nil, the effect is as if the two sequences were compared from right to left. If they fail to match, mismatch returns one plus the offset from the beginning of sequence1 of the rightmost position in which the sequences differ.

Syntax: mismatch sequence1 sequence2 kkey :from-end :test :test-not [Function] :key :start1 :start2 :end1 :end2
Remarks: The :start and :end keyword arguments take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequences. The :start arguments mark the beginning positions of the subsequences; the :end arguments mark the positions following the last elements of the subsequences. The start values default to 0 ; the end values default to the length of the sequences.
Whether or not a sequence element matches another sequence element is determined by the functions specified by the :test and :key arguments. If a test argument is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a sequence element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the element. If :key is not specified, the elements themselves are used.

Examples: > (mismatch "abcd" "ABCDE" :test \#'char-equal)
4
> (mismatch '( $\left.\begin{array}{llllll}3 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right) \cdot\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right)$ :from-end $\left.t\right)$
3
> (mismatch '(1 203 ) '( $\left.\begin{array}{lll}2 & 3 & 4\end{array}\right)$ :test-not \#'eq :key \#'oddp)
NIL

## position, position-if, position-if-not

Purpose: The functions position, position-if, and position-if-not each search a sequence for an element that matches a particular item or for an element that satisfies some test predicate. If they succeed, the offset of the leftmost such element from the beginning of the sequence is returned as an integer value; otherwise nil is returned.
If :start and :end keyword arguments are specified, only the subsequence they delimit is searched.

If the :from-end keyword argument is non-nil, these functions search for the rightmost element that meets the test criterion.

In all cases the offset value returned is relative to the entire sequence, not to the subsequence, regardless of the direction of search.

Syntax: position item sequence \&key :from-end :test :test-not [Function]
:start : end :key
position-if test sequence kkey :from-end :start :end :key [Function]
position-if-not test sequence skey :from-end
[Function]
:start :end :key
Remarks: The keyword arguments :start and :end take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequence. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the subsequence; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the subsequence. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the sequence.

The function eql is the default that is used by position for matching the item argument against the sequence elements. Either the keyword argument :test or the keyword argument :test-not may be used with position to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a sequence element should be tested. The arguments passed to the test function of position or to the test predicate of position-if or position-if-not are extracted from the sequence elements according to the :key function. If :key is not specified, the elements themselves are used.

Examples: > (position \#\a "baobab" :from-end $t$ ) 4
(position-if \#'oddp '((1) (2) (3) (4)) :start 1 :key \#'car)
2
> (position 595 '())
NIL

## reduce

Purpose: The function reduce performs a reduction operation on the elements of a sequence. The reduction uses the binary operator specified by function. The resulting value is returned.

If the :start and :end arguments are specified, only the subsequence they delimit is reduced.

The reduction operation is left-associative if the :from-end argument is defaulted or nil; otherwise it is right-associative.

If the :initial-value argument is specified, its value is used as the first operand in the reduction operation.

Syntax:
reduce function sequence kkey :from-end :start
:end :initial-value
Remarks: If there is exactly one element in the subsequence and the :initial-value argument is not specified, that element is returned. If the subsequence is empty and the :initial-value argument is specified, that initial value is returned. In neither of these cases is the reduction function invoked. If the subsequence is empty and :initial-value is not specified, then reduce returns the result of calling function with no arguments.

The keyword arguments :start and :end take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequence. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the subsequence; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the subsequence. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the sequence.

Examples: > (reduce \#'* '(1 $\left.2 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 3 & 4 & 5\end{array}\right)$
120
> (reduce \#'append '((1) (2)) :initial-value '(init))
(I N I T 1 2)

## remove, remove-if, remove-if-not, delete, delete-if, delete-if-not

| Purpose: | The functions remove, remove-if, and remove-if-not return a copy of their sequence argument from which the elements that match a particular item or the elements that satisfy some test predicate have been removed. The elements of the resulting sequence remain in the same order as in the original sequence. |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | If the :start and :end keyword arguments are specified, only the subsequence they delimit is affected. |
|  | If the :count argument is specified, only the leftmost number of elements specifed by :count that satisfy the test condition are removed. |
|  | The :from-end argument has an effect only if :count is specified and :from-end is non-nil. In this case only the rightmost number of elements specified by :count that satisfy the test condition are removed. |
|  | The functions delete, delete-if, and delete-if-not are like remove, remove-if, and remove-if-not respectively, but they may modify their sequence argument. |
| Syntax: |  |
|  | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { remove-if test sequence akey } & \text { :from-end :start } \\ & \text { :end :count :key }\end{array}$ |
|  | remove-if-not test sequence kkey :from-end :start <br> :end :count :key [Function] |
|  | ```delete item sequence kkey :from-end :test :test-not [Function] :start :end :count :key``` |
|  |  |
|  | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { delete-if-not test sequence kkey } & \text { :from-end :start } \\ \text { :end :count :key }\end{array}$ |

Remarks: The result of remove, remove-if, or remove-if-not may share cells with the original sequence if the sequence is a list.
The result of delete, delete-if, or delete-if-not may or may not be eq to the original sequence.

## remove, remove-if, remove-if-not, delete, delete-if, delete-if-not

The keyword arguments :start and :end take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequence. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the subsequence; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the subsequence. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the sequence.

The function eql is the default that is used by remove and delete for matching the item argument against the sequence elements. Either the keyword argument :test or the keyword argument :test-not may be used with remove or delete to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a sequence element should be tested. The arguments passed to the test function of remove and delete or to the test predicate of remove-if, remove-if-not, delete-if, or delete-if-not are extracted from the sequence elements according to the :key function. If :key is not specified, the elements themselves are used.

Examples: > (remove $4^{\prime}$ (1 3459 ))
(1359)
> (setq list '(list of four elements))
(LIST OF FOUR ELEMENTS)
> (setq list2 (copy-seq list))
(LIST OF FOUR ELEMENTS)
> (setq list3 (delete 'four list))
(LIST OF ELEMENTS)
> (equal list list2)
NIL
> (remove-if-not \#'evenp '(123456789) :count 2 :from-end t) (1234568)

# remove-duplicates, delete-duplicates 

Purpose: The function remove-duplicates returns a modified copy of its sequence argument from which any element that duplicates an element occurring later in the sequence has been removed.

If the :from-end argument is non-nil, then any element that duplicates an element occurring earlier in the sequence is removed.
If the :start and :end keyword arguments are specified, only the subsequence they delimit is involved in the operation.

The elements of the resulting sequence remain in the same order as in the original sequence.

The function delete-duplicates is like remove-duplicates, but deleteduplicates may modify its sequence argument.

Syntax:

| remove-duplicates sequence kkey | :from-end :test :test-not  <br>  :start :end :key |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| delete-duplicates sequence \&key | :from-end :test :test-not  <br>  :start :end :key | [Function] |

Remarks: The keyword arguments :start and :end take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequence. The sstart argument marks the beginning position of the subsequence; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the subsequence. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the sequence.

The function eql is the default that is used by remove-duplicates and deleteduplicates for determining whether two sequence elements match. Either the keyword argument :test or the keyword argument :test-not may be used with remove-duplicates or delete-duplicates to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a sequence element should be tested. The arguments passed to the test function of remove-duplicates or delete-duplicates are extracted from the sequence elements according to the :key function. If :key is not specified, the elements themselves are used.

Examples: > (remove-duplicates "aBcDAbCd" :test \#'char-equal :from-end t) "aBcD"
> (delete-duplicates ' ( 012345 6) :key \#'oddp :start 1 :end 6) (0 45 6)

## replace

Purpose: The function replace destructively modifies a sequence by replacing one subsequence with another. The sequence1 argument is modified by replacing the subsequence delimited by the keyword arguments :start1 and :end1 with the subsequence of sequence2 that is delimited by the keyword arguments $\mathbf{: s t a r t 2}$ and :end2. The resulting sequence is returned.

If the subsequences are not of equal length, the length of the shorter subsequence determines the number of elements that are replaced. The remaining elements at the end of the longer subsequence do not take part in the operation.

The elements of sequence 2 must be of a type compatible with sequence1.
Syntax: replace sequence1 sequence2 kkey :start1 :end1 [Function]
:start2 :end2
Remarks: If the two sequences are the same object, the effect of the operation is that of the simultaneous replacement of one subsequence by the other. If, however, the two sequences are not the same but share some substructure, the contents of the resulting sequence are unpredictable.

The :start and :end keyword arguments take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequences. The :start arguments mark the beginning positions of the subsequences; the :end arguments mark the positions following the last elements of the subsequences. The start values default to 0 ; the end values default to the length of the sequences.

```
Examples: > (replace "abcdefghij" "0123456789" :start1 4 :end1 7 :start2 4)
"abcd456hij"
> (setq lst "012345678")
"012345678"
> (replace lst lst :start1 2 :start2 0)
"010123456"
> lst
"010123456"
```

See Also: fill

## reverse, nreverse

Purpose: The functions reverse and nreverse return a sequence in which the order of the elements of the sequence argument is reversed.

The functions reverse and nreverse differ in that reverse creates and returns a new sequence, whereas nreverse may modify its argument.

| Syntax: | reverse sequence | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | nreverse sequence | [Function] |

Remarks: The sequence produced by nreverse may or may not be eq to its argument.

```
Examples: > (setq str "abc")
    "abc"
    > (reverse str)
    "cba"
    > str
    "abc"
    > (nreverse str)
    "cba"
```


## search

Purpose: The function search searches sequence2 for a subsequence that matches sequence1. If the search succeeds, search returns the offset into sequence2 of the first element of the leftmost matching subsequence; otherwise search returns nil.

If the :start and :end keyword arguments are specified, only the subsequences they delimit are involved in the search.
If the :from-end keyword argument is non-nil, the index of the first element of the rightmost such subsequence is returned.

Syntax: search sequence1 sequence2 \&key :from-end :test :test-not [Function] :key :start1 :start2 :end1 :end2

Remarks: The :start and :end keyword arguments take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequences. The :start arguments mark the beginning positions of the subsequences; the :end arguments mark the positions following the last elements of the subsequences. The start values default to 0 ; the end values default to the length of the sequences.

The function eql is the default that is used by search for matching the item argument against the sequence elements. Either the keyword argument :test or the keyword argument :test-not may be used with search to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a sequence element should be tested. The arguments passed to the test function of search are extracted from the sequence elements according to the :key function. If :key is not specified, the elements themselves are used.

Examples: > (search "dog" "it's a dog's life")
7
(search '(0 1) '(2 466135$)$ :key \#'oddp)
2

## sort, stable-sort

Purpose: The functions sort and stable-sort destructively sort their sequence arguments according to the order determined by their predicate and :key arguments and return the new sequence.

The order of the elements in the result sequence is determined by the predicate argument. The predicate argument must be a function of two elements. It should return a non-nil value if the element corresponding to its first argument is to precede the element corresponding to the second in the result sequence; otherwise it should return nil.

The arguments passed to predicate are extracted from the elements according to the :key function. If :key is not specified, the elements themselves are used.

Syntax: sort sequence predicate \&key :key
[Function]
stable-sort sequence predicate kkey :key
[Function]
Remarks: The stable-sort operation is stable. That is, if two elements are considered equivalent by the predicate function, they remain in their original order in the resulting sequence. The sorting operation of sort is not stable; it may, however, be faster than stable-sort.

Examples: > (sort "lkjashd" \#'char-lessp)
"adhjkls"
> (stable-sort ${ }^{\prime}$ (1 234567890 )
\#'(lambda (x y) (and (oddp $x$ ) (evenp y))))
(1 357924680 )

## subseq

Purpose: The function subseq creates and returns a sequence that is a copy of the subsequence of sequence delimited by start and end.

Syntax: subseq sequence start koptional end [Function]
Remarks: The arguments start and end take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequence. The start argument marks the beginning position of the subsequence; the end argument marks the position following the last element of the subsequence. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the sequence.

The macro setf may be used with subseq to destructively replace a subsequence with a new sequence. If the subsequence and the new sequence are not of equal length, the shorter length determines the number of elements that are replaced. The remaining elements at the end of the longer sequence do not take part in the operation.

Examples: > (setq str "012345")
"012345"
> (subseq str 2)
"2345"
> (subseq str 3 5)
"34"
> (setf (subseq str 4) "abc")
"abc"
$>\operatorname{str}$
"0123ab"
> (setf (subseq str 02 ) "A")
"A"
> $\operatorname{str}$
"A123ab"
See Also: replace

## substitute, substitute-if, substitute-it-not, nsubstitute, nsubstitute-if, nsubstitute-if-not

Purpose: The functions substitute, substitute-if, and substitute-if-not return a modified copy of their sequence arguments in which each element that matches a particular item or each element that satisfies some test predicate has been replaced with a new item.

The functions substitute, substitute-if, and substitute-if-not are nondestructive operations. They return a modified copy of their sequence argument.

The functions nsubstitute, nsubstitute-if, and nsubstitute-if-not are like substitute, substitute-if, and substitute-if-not respectively, but they may modify their sequence argument.

Syntax: substitute newitem olditem sequence \&key :from-end :test [Function]
:test-not :start
: end :count : key
substitute-if newitem test sequence \&key :from-end
[Function]
: start : end
:count :key
substitute-if-not newitem test sequence akey :from-end [Function]
:start : end
:count :key
nsubstitute newitem olditem sequence kkey :from-end :test [Function]
:test-not : start
: end :count : key
nsubstitute-if newitem test sequence \&key :from-end
:start : end
: count : key
nsubstitute-if-not newitem test sequence \&key :from-end
[Function]
:start :end
:count :key
Remarks: The result of substitute, substitute-if, or substitute-if-not may share cells with the original sequence if the sequence is a list.

The result of nsubstitute, nsubstitute-if, or nsubstitute-if-not may or may not be eq to the original sequence.

If :count is specified, only the leftmost number of elements specified by :count that satisfy the test condition are replaced.

## substitute, substitute-if, substitute-it-not, nsubstitute, ...

The :from-end argument has an effect only if :count is specified and :from-end is non-nil. In this case only the rightmost number of elements specified by :count that satisfy the test condition are replaced.

The keyword arguments :start and :end take integer values that specify offsets into the original sequence. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the subsequence; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the subsequence. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the sequence.

The function eql is the default that is used by substitute and nsubstitute for matching the item argument against the sequence elements. Either the keyword argument :test or the keyword argument :test-not may be used with substitute or nsubstitute to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a sequence element should be tested. The arguments passed to the test function of substitute and nsubstitute or to the test predicate of substitute-if, substitute-if-not, nsubstitute-if, or nsubstitute-if-not are extracted from the sequence elements according to the :key function. If :key is not specified, the elements themselves are used.

Examples: > (substitute \#\. \#\SPACE "O 24 6")
"0.2.4.6"
> (substitute-if 0 \#'evenp '((1) (2) (3) (4)) :start 2 :key \#'car)
((1) (2) (3) 0)
> (nsubstitute-if "function was here" \#'fboundp '(a car b cdr c)
:count 1 :from-end $t$ )
(A CAR B "function was here" C)
See Also: subst
nsubst

## Chapter 15. Lists

## Chapter 15. Lists

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## About Lists

The list data type is the union of the cons and null data types and therefore includes both true lists and dotted lists.

Lists are sequences of linked elements, called conses (dotted pairs). A cons is an object containing two components, a car and a cdr, which can be any Lisp objects. Conses in a list are linked by their cdr components. The car components become the elements of the list. A true list is terminated by nil, the empty list. A dotted list is not terminated by nil, but by some non-nil data object. The tail of a list is that portion of the list that remains when any number of elements are removed from the front of the list (as by the car operation). The tail of a list is a cons; nil is not considered to be a tail of a list.
An association list is a list whose elements are conses. Each cons is regarded as a pair of associated objects. The car is called the key and the cdr the datum. An association list can be treated as a mapping from keys to data. New entries are always added to the front of the list, and the list is always searched from the front. Thus it is possible to update the mapping without removing items from the list.

In Common Lisp a list of items can be treated as a set. There are functions for set union, intersection, and difference, and also for adding, removing, and searching for items in a list.

## Categories of Operations

This section groups operations on lists according to functionality.

## Data Type Predicates

| atom <br> consp | listp <br> null |
| :--- | :--- |

These predicates test for atoms and lists.

## Operations on Conses

| car | caaddr |
| :--- | :--- |
| cdr | cadaar |
| caar | cadadr |
| cadr | caddar |
| cdar | cadddr |
| cddr | cdaaar |
| caaar | cddadr |
| caadr | cdadar |
| cadar | cdaddr |
| caddr | cddaar |
| cdaar | cddadr |
| cdadr | cdddar |
| cddar | cddddr |
| cdddr | cons |
| caaaar | rplaca |
| caaadr | rplacd |
| caadar |  |

These basic operations on conses access and modify their components and construct new conses.

## Basic List Operations

| append | list |
| :--- | :--- |
| butlast | list* |
| nbutlast | list-length |
| copy-list | list-reverse |
| copy-tree | list-nreverse |
| endp | make-list |
| first | nconc |
| second | nreconc |
| third | nth |
| fourth | nthcdr |
| fifth | pop |
| sixth | push |
| seventh | pushnew |
| eighth | rest |
| ninth | revappend |
| tenth | tailp |
| last | tree-equal |
| ldiff |  |

These operations construct lists, modify lists, access components of lists, and obtain information about various list attributes.

## Mapping Operations

| mapcar | mapl |
| :--- | :--- |
| maplist | mapcan |
| mapc | mapcon |

These functions are used to perform mapping operations on lists.

## Substitution Operations

```
subst
subst-if
subst-if-not
nsubst
nsubst-if
nsubst-if-not
sublis
nsublis
```

These functions allow for the regular substitution of list elements.

## Set Operations

```
adjoin set-difference
intersection nset-difference
nintersection
member
member-if
member-if-not
memq
set-exclusive-or
nset-exclusive-or
subsetp
union
nunion
```

These functions allow lists to be treated as sets. They perform set operations on lists.

## Operations on Association Lists

| acons | copy-alist |
| :--- | :--- |
| assoc | pairlis |
| assoc-if | rassoc |
| assoc-if-not | rassoc-if |
| assq | rassoc-if-not |

These functions manipulate association lists.

## acons

```
Purpose: The function acons is used to add to association lists. It adds the entry
        (key . datum) to the front of the association list specified by the a-list argument
        and returns the result.
Syntax: acons key datum a-list [Function]
Examples: > (setq alist ())
    NIL
    > (acons 1 "one" alist)
    ((1 . "one"))
    > alist
    NIL
    > (setq alist (acons 1 "one" (acons 2 "two" alist)))
    ((1 . "one") (2 . "two"))
    > (assoc 1 alist)
    (1 . "one")
    > (setq alist (acons 1 "uno" alist))
    ((1 . "uno") (1 . "one") (2 . "two"))
    > (assoc 1 alist)
    (1 . "uno")
```

See Also: pairlis

## adjoin

Purpose: The function adjoin tests whether its item argument is the same as an existing element of a list. If the item is not, adjoin adds it to the list and returns the resulting list; otherwise nothing is added and the original list is returned.

Syntax: adjoin item list akey :test :test-not :key [Function]
Remarks: Whether an item is the same as a list element is determined by the functions specified by the keyword arguments. If a test argument is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.
The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of an element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from both the item argument and the list element.

Examples: > (setq slist ())
NIL
> (adjoin 'a slist)
(A)
> slist
NIL
> (setq slist (adjoin '(foo 1) slist))
((FOO 1))
> (adjoin '(foo 1) slist)
((FOO 1) (FOO 1))
> (adjoin '(foo 1) slist :test 'equal) ((FOO 1))
> (adjoin '(bar 1) slist :key \#'cadr)
((FOO 1))
> (adjoin '(bar 1) slist)
((BAR 1) (FOO 1))
See Also: pushnew

## append

[^1]
## assoc, assoc-if, assoc-if-not

Purpose: The functions assoc, assoc-if, and assoc-if-not search association lists. They return the first pair in the association list whose car is the same as a given item or satisfies the test condition or predicate. If no such entry is found, nil is returned.

Syntax:

| assoc item a-list kkey :test :test-not :key | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- |
| assoc-if predicate a-list | [Function] |
| assoc-if-not predicate a-list | [Function] |

Remarks: If nil appears in an association list in place of a pair, it is ignored.
If a test argument for assoc is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.
The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of an element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the car of the association list entry.

```
Examples: > (setq alist '((1 . "one")(2 . "two")(3 . "three")))
    ((1 . "one") (2 . "two") (3 . "three"))
    >(assoc 2 alist)
    (2 . "two")
> (assoc-if #'evenp alist)
    (2 . "two")
> (assoc-if-not #'(lambda(x)(< x 3)) alist)
(3 . "three")
> (setq alist '(("one" . 1)("two" . 2)))
(("one" . 1) ("two" . 2))
> (assoc "one" alist)
NIL
> (assoc "one" alist :test #'equalp)
("one" . 1)
> (assoc "two" alist :key #'(lambda(x)(char x 2)))
NIL
> (assoc #\o alist :key #'(lambda(x)(char x 2)))
("two" . 2)
```

See Also: rassoc
rassoc-if
rassoc-if-not
assq

## assq

Purpose: The function assq searches an association list for the first pair whose car is eq to its object argument. It returns the first such pair that it finds; if no such entry is found, it returns nil.

Syntax: assq object a-list [Function]
Remarks: The function assq passes over any element in the list that is not a dotted pair without producing an error.

The function assq is an extension to Common Lisp.
Examples: > (setq alist '(("one" . 1) (2 . "two") 3 ((4) . "four"))) (("one" . 1) (2 . "two") 3 ((4) . "four"))
> (assq "one" alist)
NIL
$>$ (assq 2 alist)
(2 . "two")
> (assq 3 alist)
NIL
> (assq '(4) alist)
NIL
> (assq nil alist)
NIL
See Also: assoc
assoc-if
assoc-if-not

## atom

Purpose: The predicate atom is true if its argument is not a cons; otherwise it is false.


## butlast, nbutlast

Purpose: The function butlast creates and returns a copy of its list argument from which the last $n$ elements have been omitted. If there are fewer than $n$ elements in the original list, nil is returned. If $n$ is not specified, the last element is omitted from the list.

The function nbutlast is like butlast, but nbutlast may modify its list argument.

| Syntax: | butlast list koptional $n$ | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | nbutlast list \&optional $n$ | [Function] |

Remarks: If nbutlast is given a list argument of fewer than $n$ elements, it returns nil without modifying the argument.

Examples: > (setq lst '(12 3456789 ))
(123456789)
> (butlast lst)
(1 2345678 )
> (butlast lst 5)
(1 234 4)
> (butlast lst (+ 5 5))
NIL
> lst
(123456789)
> (nbutlast lst 3)
(123456)
> lst
(123456)
> (nbutlast lst 99)
NIL
> lst
(123456)
> (butlast'(12.3))
(1)

## car, cdr

Purpose: The function car returns the car of a list. If the list is a cons, car returns the first element of the list. If the list is nil, car returns nil.

The function $c d r$ returns the $c d r$ of a list. If the list is a cons, $c d r$ returns the portion that follows the first element. If the list is nil, $\mathbf{c d r}$ returns nil.

Compositions of up to four car and cdr operations are also defined as functions. The names of these functions consist of $c$, followed by two, three, or four occurrences of a or d, and then $r$. The sequence of a's and d's in the name specify the sequence of car and cdr operations that is performed by the function. The order in which the a's and d's appear is the inverse of the order in which the corresponding operations are performed. For example, the expression (cadddr $x$ ) is the same as ( $\operatorname{car}(\operatorname{cdr}(\operatorname{cdr}(\operatorname{cdr} x)))$ ).

| Syntax: | car list | [Function] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | cdr list | [Function] |
|  | caar list | [Function] |
|  | cadr list | [Function] |
|  | cdar list | [Function] |
|  | cddr list | [Function] |
|  | caaar list | [Function] |
|  | caadr list | [Function] |
|  | cadar list | [Function] |
|  | caddr list | [Function] |
|  | cdaar list | [Function] |
|  | cdadr list | [Function] |
|  | cddar list | [Function] |
|  | cdddr list | [Function] |
|  | caaaar list | [Function] |
|  | caaadr list | [Function] |
|  | caadar list | [Function] |
|  | caaddr list | [Function] |
|  | cadaar list | [Function] |


| cadadr list | [Function] |
| :---: | :---: |
| caddar list | [Function] |
| cadddr list | [Function] |
| cdaaar list | [Function] |
| cdaadr list | [Function] |
| cdadar list | [Function] |
| cdaddr list | [Function] |
| cddaar list | [Function] |
| cddadr list | [Function] |
| cdddar list | [Function] |
| cddddr list | [Function] |

Remarks: The macro setf may be used with any of these functions to change an element of a list.

Examples: > (car nil)
NIL
$>(c d r \cdot(1.2))$
2
$>(c d r \quad$ ( 12 2)
(2)
> (cadr '(1 2))
2
See Also: rplaca
rplacd

## cons

Purpose: The function cons creates and returns a new cons cell whose car is object1 and whose cdr is object2.
The function cons is designed for use in constructing lists.
Syntax: cons object1 object2
[Function]
Examples: > (cons 1 2)
(1.2)
$>($ cons 1 nil)
(1)
$>($ cons nil 2)
(NIL . 2)
> (cons nil nil)
(NIL)
> (cons 1 (cons 2 (cons 3 (cons 4 nil))))
(1 23 4)
$>($ cons 'a '(bcce))
(ABCDE)
See Also: list

## consp

Purpose: The predicate consp is true if its argument is a cons; otherwise it is false.

| Syntax: | consp object |
| :--- | :--- |
| Examples: | $>$ (consp nil) |
|  | NIL |
|  | $>$ (consp (cons 1 2)) |

See Also: listp

## copy-alist

Purpose: | The function copy-alist is used to copy association lists. It returns a copy of its |
| :--- |
| list argument. |

Syntax: copy-alist list
[Function]

Remarks: The top level of the list structure is copied, and new copies are made of each list element that is a cons. The rest of the list structure is shared.

```
Examples: > (setq alist '((1 . "one") (2 . "two")))
((1 . "one") (2 . "two"))
> (setq clist (copy-list alist))
((1 . "one") (2 . "two"))
> (setq calist (copy-alist alist))
((1 . "one") (2 . "two"))
> (setf (cdr (assoc 2 calist)) "deux")
"deux"
> calist
((1 . "one") (2 . "deux"))
> alist
((1 . "one") (2 . "two"))
> (setí (cd̀r (assoc i clist)) "uno")
"uno"
> clist
((1 . "uno") (2 . "two"))
> alist
((1 . "uno") (2 . "two"))
```

See Also: copy-list

## copy-list

Purpose: The function copy-list returns a copy of its list argument. The copy is equal to the list argument, but not eq.

Syntax: copy-list list
[Function]
Remarks: Only the top level of the list structure is copied; the rest of the list structure is shared.

Examples: > (setq lst '(1 (2 3)))
(1 (2 3))
> (setq slst lst)
(1 (2 3))
> (setq clst (copy-list lst))
(1 (2 3))
> (eq slst lst)
T
> (eq clst lst)
NIL
> (equal clst lst)
T
> (rplaca lst "one")
("one" (2 3))
> slst
("one" (2 3))
$>$ clst
(1 (2 3))
> (setf (caadr lst) "two")
"two"
$>$ lst
("one" ("two" 3))
> slst
("one" ("two" 3))
$>$ clst
(1 ("two" 3))
See Also: copy-alist
copy-seq
copy-tree

## copy-tree

```
Purpose: The function copy-tree is used to copy trees of conses.
If the argument of copy-tree is not a cons, it is returned. If it is a cons, copy-tree returns a new cons whose car and cdr consist of the result of calling copy-tree on the car and cdr of the argument cons respectively. The recursion stops only when an object that is not a cons is reached.
```

```
Syntax: copy-tree object
```

Syntax: copy-tree object
[Function]
[Function]
Examples: > (setq lst '((1 . "one") (2 . (a b c))))
Examples: > (setq lst '((1 . "one") (2 . (a b c))))
((1 . "one") (2 A B C))
((1 . "one") (2 A B C))
> (setq slst lst
> (setq slst lst
clst (copy-list lst)
clst (copy-list lst)
calst (copy-alist lst)
calst (copy-alist lst)
ctlst (copy-tree lst))
ctlst (copy-tree lst))
((1 . "one") (2 A B C))
((1 . "one") (2 A B C))
> (eq ctlst lst)
> (eq ctlst lst)
NIL
NIL
> (eql ctlst lst)
> (eql ctlst lst)
NIL
NIL
> (equal ctlst lst)
> (equal ctlst lst)
T
T
> (setf (cadadr lst) "a"
> (setf (cadadr lst) "a"
(caadr lst) "two"
(caadr lst) "two"
(car lst) "1 . one")
(car lst) "1 . one")
"1 . one"
"1 . one"
> lst
> lst
("1 . one" ("two" "a" B C))
("1 . one" ("two" "a" B C))
> slst
> slst
("1 . one" ("two" "a" B C))
("1 . one" ("two" "a" B C))
> clst
> clst
((1 . "one") ("two" "a" B C))
((1 . "one") ("two" "a" B C))
> calst
> calst
((1 . "one") (2 "a" B C))
((1 . "one") (2 "a" B C))
> ctlst
> ctlst
((1 . "one") (2 A B C))

```
        ((1 . "one") (2 A B C))
```


## endp

Purpose: The predicate endp tests for the end of a list. The predicate endp is true if its argument is nil; it is false if the argument is a cons.
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { Syntax: } & \text { endp list } & \text { [Function] } \\ \text { Examples: } & >(\text { endp nil) } & \\ & \text { T } \\ & >\left(\text { endp }{ }^{\prime}\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2\end{array}\right)\right. & \\ & & \\ & \text { NIL }^{\prime}\left(\text { endp }\left(\text { cddr }^{\prime}\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2\end{array}\right)\right)\right. & \\ & \text { T }\end{array}$
first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth


Remarks: These functions were designed for use in list operations for stylistic reasons.
Examples: > (setq lst '(123 (456) ((V)) vi 789 10))
(123 (456) ((V)) VI 789 10)
> (first lst)
1
> (tenth lst)
10
$>$ (fifth lst)
( $(\mathrm{V})$ )
> (second (fourth lst))
5
> (sixth '(1 2 3) )
NIL
> (setf (fourth lst) "four")
"four"
> lst
(123 "four" ((V)) vi 789 10)
See Also: car
nth

## intersection, nintersection

Purpose: The functions intersection and nintersection take two lists and return a list that contains every element that occurs in both of the list arguments.

The result list of intersection may share cells with one of the list arguments. The function nintersection may modify its list arguments.

Syntax: intersection list1 list2 kkey :test :test-not :key
nintersection list1 list2 \&key :test :test-not :key
[Function]
Remarks: If one of the lists contains duplicate elements, there may be duplication in the result.

Whether a list element is the same as another list element is determined by the functions specified by the keyword arguments. If a test argument is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a list element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the list element.

Examples:

```
> (setq lst1 '(1 1 2 3 4 a b c "A" "B" "C" "d")
    lst2 '(1 4 5 b c d "a" "B" "c" "D"))
(145 B C D "a" "B" "c" "D")
> (intersection lst1 lst2)
(C B 4 1 1)
> (intersection lst1 lst2 :test 'equal)
("B" C B 4 1 1)
> (intersection lsti lst2 :test #'equalp)
("d" "C" "B" "A" C B 4 1 1)
> (nintersection lst1 lst2)
(1 1 4 B C)
> lsti
(1 1 4 B C)
> lst2
(1 4 5 B C D "a" "B" "c" "D")
```


## last

Purpose: The function last returns the last cons of its list argument. If the list is empty, it returns nil.

Syntax: last list
[Function]
Examples: > (last nil)
NIL
> (last '(12ll)
(3)
> (last ${ }^{\prime}\left(\begin{array}{l}12.3\end{array}\right)$ (2.3)

## ldiff

| Purpose: | The function ldiff tests whether its sublist argument forms a tail of the given list. If ldiff succeeds, it returns a new list that is a copy of the portion of the original list that precedes the sublist. If the sublist is nil or is not a tail of the original list, ldiff returns a copy of the original list. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Syntax: | ldiff list sublist [Function] |
| Examples: | ```\(>\left(\operatorname{setq} x{ }^{\prime}(a b c d e)\right)\) (ABCDE) \(>(\operatorname{setq} y(c d d r x))\) (C D E) \(>\left(\operatorname{setq} z^{\prime}(c \mathrm{~d} e)\right)\) (C D E) \(>(\operatorname{ldiff} \mathrm{x} \times\) ) NIL \(>\) (ldiff \(x \mathrm{y}\) ) (A B) \(>(\operatorname{ldiff} \mathrm{x}\) z) (ABCDE) \(>(e q y z)\) NIL \(>(\) eq \(x(1 d i f f \times z)\) NIL``` |
| See Also: | tailp |

## list, list*

Purpose: The function list creates and returns a list containing the specified objects.
The function list* is like list except that its last argument becomes the cdr of the last cons in the resulting list. If list* is called with exactly one argument, it returns that argument, not a cons.

Syntax:

| list \&rest objects | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- |
| list* object \&rest more-objects | [Function] |

Examples: > (list 1)
(1)
> (list* 1 )
1
$>($ setq a 1$)$
1
> (list a 2)
(1 2)
> '(a 2)
(A 2)
> (list 'a 2)
(A 2)
> (list* a 2)
(1.2)
> (list)
NIL
> (setq a $\quad\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2\end{array}\right)$
(1 2)
> (eq a (list* a))
T
See Also: cons

## list-length

Purpose: The function list-length returns the length of its list argument as an integer value. If the list is circular, list-length returns nil.

Syntax: list-length list [Function]
Examples: > (list-length '(12 2 3) )
3
> (list-length nil)
0
> (setq lst '(12))
(12)
> (list-length (rplacd lst lst))
NIL
See Also: length

## list-reverse, list-nreverse

Purpose: The function list-reverse returns a true list consisting of the elements of the original list in reverse order (but omitting the last cdr, which is nil for true lists). The function list-nreverse is like list-reverse but modifies its argument.

| Syntax: | list-reverse list | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | list-nreverse list | [Function] |

Remarks: The functions list-reverse and list-nreverse are extensions to Common Lisp.
Examples: > (setq lst '(12 2 ) )
(1 23 )
> (list-reverse lst)
(3 2 1)
> lst
(123)
> (list-nreverse lst)
(3 2 1)
> lst
(1)
> (list-reverse '(12.3)) (2 1)

See Also: reverse

## listp

Purpose: The predicate listp is true if its argument is a cons or the empty list, (); otherwise it is false.

Syntax: listp object [Function]
Examples: > (listp nil)
$T$
> (listp (cons 1 2))
T
> (listp (make-array 6))
NIL
> (listp $t$ ) NIL

See Also: consp

## make-list

```
Purpose: The function make-list creates and returns a list consisting of size elements. If the :initial-element argument is specified, each of the elements of the new list is initialized to its value; otherwise the elements are nil.
Syntax: make-list size kkey :initial-element
Examples: > (make-list 4)
(NIL NIL NIL NIL)
> (make-list 2 :initial-element '(123)) ( \(\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2\end{array}\right.\) 3) ( 123 ) )
\(>\) (make-list 0\()\)
NIL
> (make-list 0 :initial-element 'foo)
NIL
```


## mapcar, maplist, mapc, mapl, mapcan, mapcon

Purpose: The functions mapcar, maplist, mapc, mapl, mapcan, and mapcon are used to map over lists.
The mapping operation involves applying a function to successive sets of arguments in which one argument is obtained from each list.

The function argument must take as many arguments as there are list arguments. The resulting list is the same length as the shortest of the list arguments. It contains the results returned by the function.

The mapping functions differ in how they obtain their arguments and present their results.

The function mapcar applies its function argument to successive elements of the list arguments. The function is applied to the first element of each list, then to the second, and so on. A list consisting of the results of applying the function is returned as the result of mapcar.

The function mapc is like mapcar except that the results of applying the function are not returned. The function is applied for its side effects only. The function mapc returns its first list argument as its result.
The function maplist is like mapcar except that the function argument is applied to successive sublists of the list arguments. First, the function is applied to the lists themselves, then to the cdr of each list, then to the cddr of each list, and so on. A list consisting of the results of applying the function is returned as the result of maplist.

The function mapl is like maplist except that the results of applying the function are not returned. The function is applied for its side effects only. The function maplist returns its first list argument as its result.

The functions mapcan and mapcon are like mapcar and maplist respectively, except that the results of applying the function are combined into a list by the use of nconc rather than list.

| Syntax: | mapcar function list \&rest more-lists | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | mapc function list \&rest more-lists | [Function] |
|  | maplist function list \&rest more-lists | $[$ Function $]$ |
|  | mapl function list \&rest more-lists | [Function] |
|  | mapcan function list \&rest more-lists | [Function] |
|  | mapcon function list \&rest more-lists | [Function] |

mapcar, maplist, mapc, mapl, mapcan, mapcon

Remarks: The function argument must be a function acceptable to apply. It cannot be a macro or a special form.

Examples: > (mapcar \#' car '((1 a) (2 b) (3 c)))
(1 2 3)
> (maplist \#'append '( $\left.\begin{array}{llll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4\end{array}\right) \cdot\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2\end{array}\right) \cdot\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right)$
((123412123)(234223))
$>$ (setq foo nil)
NIL
> (mapc \#' (lambda (krest $x$ ) (setq foo (append foo $x$ )))
' ( $\left.\begin{array}{llll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4\end{array}\right)$
'(a b c de)
'( $x y_{0} z$ ))
(1 23 4)
$>$ foo
(1 AX2 B Y 3 C )
$>$ (setq foo nil)
NIL
> (mapl \#' (lambda (x) (push x foo)) '(1 23 4))
(1 234 )
$>$ foo
((4) (3 4) (2 3 4) (1 $2 \mathrm{O}_{4}$ 4))
> (mapcan \#' (lambda ( $x$ y) (if (null x) nil (list $x$ y)))

- (nil nil nil de)
'(123456))
(D 4 E 5)
> (mapcon \#'list '(1 $2 \begin{array}{ll}1 & 3\end{array}$ 4))

See Also: map
apply
nconc


## member, member-if, member-if-not

Purpose: The functions member, member-if, and member-if-not each search a list for a particular item or for a top-level element that satisfies some test condition or predicate. If they succeed, the tail of the list beginning with this element is returned; otherwise nil is returned.

Syntax: member item list \&key :test :test-not :key

Remarks: If a test argument for member is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a list element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the list element.

Examples: >(member $2^{\prime}\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2\end{array}\right)$ )
(2 3)
> (member $4^{\prime}\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right)$ )
NIL
> (member 2 '((1 . 2) (3 . 4)) :test-not \#'= :key \#'cdr)
((3 . 4))
> (member-if \#'listp '(a b nil c d))
(NIL C D)
> (member-if-not \#'zerop
'(3 69 11 . 12)
:key \#'(lambda (x) (mod x 3)))
(11 . 12)
See Also: find
position
memq

## memq

Purpose: The function memq searches a list for the first top-level element that is eq to a given object. If it succeeds, it returns the tail of the list starting with that element. If no such element is found, it returns nil.

Syntax: memq object list
[Function]
Remarks: The function memq is an extension to Common Lisp.
Examples: > (memq 1 '(a 1 "b"))
(1 "b")
> (memq 'a '(a 1 "b")
(A 1 "b")
> (memq "b" '(a 1 "b"))
NIL
> (memq 2 '(1 2 . 3) )
(2.3)
> (memq 3 ' (1 2 . 3) )
NIL
See Also: member
member-if
member-if-not

## nconc

Purpose: The function nconc returns a list that is the concatenation of its list arguments. The list arguments are modified rather than copied.

Syntax: nconc \&rest lists [Function]
Remarks: The function nconc is designed to be more efficient than append since no new cons cells need to be allocated.

Examples: > (setq lst1' $\left(\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right)$
lst2 '( a b c))
(A B C)
> (nconc lst1 lst2)
(123ABC)
> lst1
(123ABC)
$>$ lst2
(A B C)
$>$ (nconc)
NIL
See Also: append

## nreconc

Purpose: The function nreconc reverses the order of the elements in its first list argument and appends the second list argument to the modified list. The resulting list is returned.

Syntax: $\quad$ nreconc list1 list2
Remarks: The list1 argument is modified.
The function nreconc is designed to be more efficient than revappend since no new cons cells need to be allocated.

Examples: > (setq lst1' ( $\left.\begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right)$
1st2 '(a b c))
(A B C)
> (nreconc lst1 lst2)
(3 21 A B C)
> lst1
( 1 ABC )
> lst2
(A B C)
$>$ (nrecone $\cdot(1$. 2) nil)
(1)

See Also: revappend

## nth

Purpose: The function nth returns the $n$th element of its list argument. The initial element of the list is considered to be the zeroth element. If the list has no such element, nth returns nil.

Syntax: $\quad$ nth $\boldsymbol{n}$ list
[Function]
Remarks: The argument $n$ must be a nonnegative integer.
The macro setf may be used with nth to change an element of a list. In this case, $n$ must be less than the length of the list.

Examples: > (nth 4 '( $\left.\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4\end{array}\right)$ )
4
> (nth 5 ' ( $\left.01 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right)$ )
NIL
$>($ nth 0 nil)
NIL
> (setq lst $\cdot\left(\begin{array}{lll}0 & 1 & 2\end{array}\right)$ )
(0 $12 \begin{aligned} & \text { ( }\end{aligned}$
> (setf (nth 2 lst) "two")
"two"
$>$ lst
( 01 "two" 3)
See Also: elt

## nthcdr


null

Purpose: The predicate null is true if its argument is the empty list, which is represented by () or nil; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: null object [Function]
Remarks: The result of applying null to an object is the same as that of using not. The function null is intended to be used in testing for an empty list, whereas not is intended to be used in inverting a logical value.

Examples: > (null ())
$T$
$>$ (null t)
NIL
> (null 1)
NIL
See Also: not

## pairlis

Purpose: The function pairlis takes the two lists, keys and data, and creates an association list by pairing the corresponding elements of each. If the a-list argument is specified, the new pairs of elements are added to the front of the given association list.

Syntax: pairlis keys data \&optional a-list
[Function]
Remarks: The keys and data lists must be the same length.

```
Examples: > (setq keys '(1 2 3 3)
            data '("one" "two" "three")
            alist '((4 . "four")))
((4 . "four"))
> (pairlis keys data)
((1 . "one") (2 . "two") (3 . "three"))
> (pairlis keys data alist)
((1 . "one") (2 . "two") (3 . "three") (4 . "four"))
> alist
((4 . "four"))
```

See Also: acons

## pop

Purpose: The macro pop takes the list that is stored in place and returns the car of this listas its result. The cdr of the list is stored in place.Syntax: pop place [Macro]
Remarks: The place argument must be a generalized variable acceptable to the macro setf.
Examples: ..... > (setq llst '((1 $2 \boldsymbol{2} 34)$ ))((1) 234 ))
> (pop (car llst))
1
> 11st
((2 3 4) )
See Also: push

## push

Purpose: | The macro push takes the list that is stored in place, conses the item argument |
| :--- |
| onto the front of it, stores the resulting list in place, and returns this new list as its |
| result. |

Syntax: $\quad$ push item place [Macro]

## pushnew

Purpose: The macro pushnew tests whether its item argument is the same as any existing element of the list stored in place. If the item is not, the new item is consed onto the front of the list, and the new list is stored in place and returned. If such an element is found in the list, pushnew returns the original list.
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Syntax: } & \text { pushnew item place kkey :test :test-not :key } \\ \text { [Macro] }\end{array}$
Remarks: The place argument must be a generalized variable acceptable to the macro setf. The item argument can be any object.

Whether an item is the same as a list element is determined by the functions specified by the keyword arguments. If a test argument is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of an element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from both the item argument and the list element.

```
Examples: > (setq lst '((1) (1 2) (1 2 3)))
    ((1) (1 2) (1 2 3))
> (pushnew '(2) lst)
((2) (1) (1 2) (1 2 3))
> (pushnew '(1) lst)
((1) (2) (1) (1 2) (1 2 3))
> (pushnew '(1) lst :test 'equal)
((1) (2) (1) (1 2) (1 2 3))
> (pushnew '(1) lst :key #'car)
((1) (2) (1) (1 2) (1 2 3))
```

See Also: push
adjoin

## rassoc, rassoc-if, rassoc-if-not

Purpose: The functions rassoc, rassoc-if, and rassoc-if-not search association lists. They return the first pair whose cdr is the same as a given item or satisfies the test condition or predicate. If no such pair is found, nil is returned.

Syntax: rassoc item a-list \&key :test :test-not :key [Function]
rassoc-if predicate a-list [Function]
rassoc-if-not predicate a-list [Function]
Remarks: If nil appears in an association list in place of a pair, it is ignored.
If a test argument for rassoc is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of an element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the cdr of the association list entry.

Examples: > (setq alist '((1 . "one") (2 . "two") (3 . 3))) ((1 . "one") (2 . "two") (3 . 3))
> (rassoc 3 alist)
(3 . 3)
> (rassoc "two" alist)
NIL
> (rassoc "two" alist :test 'equal)
(2 . "two")
> (rassoc 1 alist :key \#'(lambda (x) (if (numberp $x$ ) (/ x 3)))) (3 . 3) > (rassoc-if \#'stringp alist)
(1 . "one")
> (rassoc-if-not \#'vectorp alist)
(3 . 3)
See Also: assoc
assoc-if
assoc-if-not

## rest

Purpose: The function rest is identical to cdr. It returns the cdr of a list. If the list is a cons, rest returns the portion that follows the first element. If the list is nil, rest returns nil.
Syntax: rest list [Function]
Remarks: The function rest was designed for use in list operations for stylistic reasons.Examples: > (rest '(12))
(2)
> (rest •(1.2))
2
> (rest '(1))
NIL
$>($ setq cns $\quad$ (1 . 2) )
(1 . 2)
> (setf (rest cns) "two")
"two"
$>$ cns
(1 . "two")
See Also: ..... cdr

## revappend

Purpose: The function revappend makes a copy of its first list argument; in this copy the order of elements is reversed. It appends its second list argument to that copy and returns the resulting list.

Syntax:
revappend list1 list2
[Function]
Examples: > (setq lst1 ':(12ll $\left.1 \begin{array}{ll}1 & 2\end{array}\right)$
( $\mathrm{A} \boldsymbol{B} \mathrm{C}$ )
> (revappend lst1 lst2)
(3 21 ABC)
> 1sti
(123)
$>1$ lst2
( $\mathrm{A} B \mathrm{C}$ )
> (revappend $\cdot(1.2)^{\prime}(\mathrm{a}$ b c) )
( 1 A B C)
$>$ (revappend '(123)'(a . b)) (3 21 A . B)
$>$ (revappend nil '( $a \quad b \quad c)$ ) (ABC)

See Also: nreconc

## rplaca, rplacd

Purpose: The function rplaca replaces the car of its cons argument with the specified object and returns the modified cons.

The function rplacd replaces the cdr of its cons argument with the specified object and returns the modified cons.

```
Syntax: rplaca cons object [Function]
    rplacd cons object [Function]
Examples: > (setq lst '(a b c))
    (A B C)
    > (rplaca lst "A")
    ("A" B C)
    > lst
    ("A" B C)
    >(rplacd'(1 2 3 . 4) lst)
    (1 "A" B C)
    >(rplaca '(1 . 2) lst)
    (("A" B C) . 2)
```


## set-difference, nset-difference

Purpose: The functions set-difference and nset-difference take two lists and return a list that contains every element that occurs in the first list argument but not in the second.

The resulting list of set-difference may share cells with one of the list arguments. The function nset-difference may modify its list arguments.

| Syntax: | set-difference list1 list2 \&key :test :test-not :key | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | nset-difference list1 list2 \&key :test :test-not :key | [Function] |

Remarks: Whether a list element is the same as another list element is determined by the functions specified by the keyword arguments. If a test argument is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.
The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a list element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the list element.

```
Examples: > (setq lst1 '("A" "b" "C" "d")
            lst2 '("a" "B" "C" "d"))
("a" "B" "C" "d")
> (set-difference lst1 lst2)
("d" "C" "b" "A")
> (set-difference lst1 lst2 :test 'equal)
("b" "A")
> (set-difference lst1 lst2 :test #'equalp)
NIL
> (nset-difference lst1 lst2 :test #'string=)
("A" "b")
```


## set-exclusive-or, nset-exclusive-or

Purpose: The functions set-exclusive-or and nset-exclusive-or take two lists and return a list that contains every element that occurs in exactly one of the list arguments.

The result list of set-exclusive-or may share cells with one of the list arguments. The function nset-exclusive-or may modify its list arguments.

Syntax:

```
set-exclusive-or list1 list2 \&key :test :test-not :key
[Function]
nset-exclusive-or list1 list2 akey :test :test-not :key
[Function]
```

Remarks: Whether a list element is the same as another list element is determined by the functions specified by the keyword arguments. If a test argument is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a list element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the list element.

```
Examples: > (setq lst1 '(1 "a" "b")
    lst2 '(1 "A" "b"))
(1 "A" "b")
> (set-exclusive-or lst1 lst2)
("b" "A" "b" "a")
> (set-exclusive-or lst1 lst2 :test #'equal)
("A" "a")
> (set-exclusive-or lst1 lst2 :test 'equalp)
NIL
> (nset-exclusive-or lst1 lst2)
("a" "b" "A" "b")
```


## sublis, nsublis

Purpose: | The function sublis performs substitution operations on trees. It searches a tree |
| :--- |
| for subtrees or leaves that occur as keys in the association list argument a-list. If |
| the function succeeds, a new copy of the tree is returned in which each occurrence |
| of such a subtree or leaf is replaced by the object with which it is associated. If no |
| changes are made, the original tree is returned. The original tree argument is left |
| unchanged, but the result tree may share cells with it. |

The function nsublis is like sublis, but nsublis modifies its tree argument.
Syntax:
sublis a-list tree \&key :test :test-not :key
[Function]
nsublis a-list tree \&key :test :test-not :key

Remarks: If a test argument is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of an element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the tree element.

(1 (12) ((1 2 3)) (((1 $\left.\left.\left.2 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 4\end{array}\right)\right)\right)$
> (sublis '((3 . "three")) tree1)
(1 (12) ((1 2 "three")) (((1 2 "three" 4))))
> (sublis '((t . "string"))
(sublis •((1 . "") (4 . 44)) tree1)
:key \#'stringp)
("string" ("string" 2) (("string" 2 3)) ((("string" 2344$))$ ) > tree1
(1 (12) ((123)) (((1234))))
> (nsublis '((t . 'foo))
tree1
: key \#' (lambda (x) (or (atom x) (< (list-length x) 3))))
((QUOTE FOO) (QUOTE FOO) QUOTE FOO)

## subsetp

Purpose: The predicate subsetp is true if every element of the first list is the same as some element of the second list; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: subsetp list1 list2 \&key :test :test-not :key [Function]
Remarks: Whether a list element is the same as another list element is determined by the functions specified by the keyword arguments. If a test argument is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.
The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a list element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the element.

```
Examples: > (setq cosmos '(1 "a" (1 2)))
    (1 "a" (1 2))
    > (subsetp '(1) cosmos)
    T
    > (subsetp '((1 2)) cosmos)
    NIL
    > (subsetp '((1 2)) cosmos :test 'equal)
    T
    > (subsetp '(1 "A") cosmos :test #'equalp)
    T
    > (subsetp '((1) (2)) '((1) (2)))
NIL
> (subsetp '((1) (2)) '((1) (2)) :key #'car)
T
```


## subst, subst-if, subst-if-not, nsubst, nsubst-if, nsubst-if-not

Purpose: The functions subst, subst-if, and subst-if-not perform substitution operations upon trees. Each searches a tree for occurrences of a particular old item or of an element or subexpression that satisfies some test condition or predicate. If the functions succeed, a new copy of the tree is returned in which each occurrence of such an element is replaced by the new element or subexpression. If no changes are made, the original tree may be returned. The original tree argument is left unchanged, but the result tree may share cells with it.

The functions nsubst, nsubst-if, and nsubst-if-not are like subst, subst-if, and subst-if-not respectively, except that the original tree is modified and returned as the function result.

| Syntax: | subst new old tree tkey :test :test-not :key | [Function] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | subst-if new test tree \&key :key | [Function] |
|  | subst-if-not new test tree zkey :key | [Function] |
|  | nsubst new old tree \&key :test :test-not :key | [Function] |
|  | nsubst-if new test tree skey :key | [Function] |
|  | nsubst-if-not new test tree \&key :key | [Function] |

Remarks: If a test argument for subst or nsubst is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of an element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the tree element.

Examples: > (setq tree1 '(1 (1 2) (1 2 3) (1 $2 \boldsymbol{2} 3$ 4) ))
(1 (1 2) (1 2 3) (1 $\left.2 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 3\end{array}\right)$ )
> (subst "two" 2 tree1)
(1 (1 "two") (1 "two" 3) (1 "two" 3 4))
> (subst "five" 5 tree1)
(1 (1 2) (1 2 3 3 ) ( $\left.1 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right)$ )
> (eq tree1 (subst "five" 5 tree1))
T
> (subst-if 5 \#'listp treel)
5
> (subst-if-not '(x) \#'consp tree1)
( $(X)((X)(X) \quad X)((X)(X)(X) X)(X)(X)(X)(X) X) X)$

```
> treel
(1 (1 2) (1 2 3) (1 2 3 4))
> (nsubst 'x 3 tree1 :key #'(lambda(y) (and (listp y) (third y))))
(1 (1 2) X X)
> tree1
(1 (1 2) X X)
```

See Also: substitute
nsubstitute

## tailp

Purpose: The predicate tailp tests whether its sublist argument forms a tail of the given list. If it does, tailp returns true; otherwise it returns false.

```
Syntax: tailp sublist list [Function]
Examples: > (tailp '(2 3) '(\begin{array}{lll}{1}&{2}&{3}\end{array})
        NIL
        >(tailp (cdr '(1 2 3 3))'(1 2 3))
        NIL
        >(setq lst '(1 2 3))
        (12 3)
        >(setq tlst (cdr lst))
        (2 3)
        > (tailp tlst lst)
        T
        >(tailp nil '(1 2 3))
        NIL
See Also: ldiff
```


## tree-equal

Purpose: The predicate tree-equal tests whether two trees are of the same shape and have the same leaves. It returns t if object1 and object2 are both atoms and satisfy the test condition, or if they are both conses and the car of object1 is tree-equal to the car of object2 and the cdr of object1 is tree-equal to the cdr of object2. Otherwise tree-equal returns false.

Syntax: tree-equal object1 object2 \&key :test :test-not [Function]
Remarks: If a test argument is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.

Examples: > (setq tree1 '(1 (1 2)) tree2 '(1 (1 2))) (1 (12)) > (tree-equal tree1 tree2) $T$ > (eql tree1 tree2) NIL

```
> (tree-equal tree1 tree2 :test 'eq)
```

T

See Also: equal

## union, nunion

Purpose: The functions union and nunion take two lists and return a list that contains every element that occurs in either of the list arguments.

The result list of union may share cells with one of the argument lists. The function nunion may modify its argument lists.

Syntax: union list1 list2 kkey :test :test-not :key [Function]
nunion list1 list2 akey :test :test-not :key [Function]
Remarks: If there is an element that is duplicated by the two lists, only one instance of it will appear in the result. If, however, one of the lists itself contains duplicate elements, there may be duplication in the result.

Whether a list element is the same as another list element is determined by the functions specified by the keyword arguments. If a test argument is not specified, eql is used. Either the keyword :test or the keyword :test-not may be used to specify a test function other than eql.

The keyword :key may be used to specify that a part of a list element should be tested. Its argument should be a function of one argument that extracts the part to be tested from the element.

Examples: > (setq lst1 '(1 2 (1 2) "a" "b")
lst2 ${ }^{\prime}\left(\begin{array}{c}2 \\ 3\end{array} \mathbf{2}_{2} 3\right)$ "B" "C"))
(2 3 (2 3) "B" "C")
> (union lst1 lst2)
("b" "a" (1 2) 123 (2 3) "B" "C")
$>$ (union lst1 lst2 :test 'equalp)
("a" (1 2) 123 (2 3) "B" "C")
$>$ (nunion lst1 lst2)
(1 (1 2) "a" "b" 23 (2 3) "B" "C")

## Chapter 16. Arrays

## Chapter 16. Arrays

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## About Arrays

Arrays are structured objects whose components can be directly accessed by means of index values.

An array can have many dimensions. The number of dimensions of an array is termed its rank. It is possible for an array to have zero dimensions. In this case it consists of one element. The total number of elements that can be contained in an array is otherwise given by the product of its dimensions. If the length of any dimension is 0 , the array has no elements. The elements of a multidimensional array are stored in row-major order.
An array is indexed by a sequence of integers called subscripts. Each index value corresponds to a dimension of the array; the length of the sequence must equal the number of dimensions of the array. Array indexing is zero-origin; all index values must be nonnegative.

Arrays may be general or specialized. A general array can have elements that are members of any Common Lisp data type. A specialized array is an array whose elements must all be members of a particular data type.

Arrays can share their contents with other arrays. An array that is defined to share elements with an existing array is called a displaced array. It is said to be displaced to the existing array.

Arrays can also be created whose size and shape may be adjusted dynamically. Such arrays are called adjustable arrays.

Sun Common Lisp implements arrays by using several different primitive data types. In particular, simple vectors such as single-bit, 2 -bit, 4 -bit, 8 -bit, 16 -bit, 32 -bit, and single-float vectors are directly implemented using primitive data types.

## Vectors

A vector is a one-dimensional array. Since the vector data type is a subtype of the sequence data type, a vector is also a sequence. A general vector can have elements that are members of any Common Lisp data type. A specialized vector is a vector whose elements must all be members of a particular data type. Strings and bit vectors are important types of specialized vectors. Strings are vectors whose elements are of the string character data type. Bit vectors are one-dimensional arrays whose elements are of the bit data type.

## Fill Pointers

A one-dimensional array can have a fill pointer. A fill pointer is an index into a vector. It is a nonnegative integer whose value is less than or equal to the number of elements that the vector can contain. The elements below the fill pointer are considered to be active. If the fill pointer value is 0 , the vector contains no active elements. The fill pointer may be used to fill in the elements of the vector incrementally and thus to vary the length of the active portion of the vector. Generally, vector functions observe fill pointers and only operate on the active portion of a vector.

A simple array is an array that is not displaced to another array, has no fill pointer, and whose size cannot be dynamically adjusted.

A simple vector is a vector that is not displaced to another array, has no fill pointer, and whose size cannot be dynamically adjusted.

## Categories of Operations

This section groups operations on arrays according to functionality.

## Data Type Predicates

arrayp
bit-vector-p
simple-bit-vector-p
simple-vector-p
vectorp

These predicates determine whether an object is a type of array.

## Array Creation and Modification

```
adjust-array
vector
make-array
```

These functions create arrays and modify the shape and size of arrays.

## Array Access

aref
sbit
bit
svref

These functions access the elements of arrays.

## Array Predicates

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { adjustable-array-p } \quad \text { array-in-bounds-p } \\
& \text { array-has-fill-pointer-p }
\end{aligned}
$$

These predicates test properties of arrays.

## Array Attributes

```
array-dimension
array-dimension-limit
array-dimensions
array-element-type
array-rank
array-rank-limit
array-row-major-index
array-total-size
array-total-size-limit
```

These constructs provide information about existing arrays and about system limitations on arrays that may be created.

## Manipulating Fill Pointers

```
fill-pointer vector-push
vector-pop vector-push-extend
```

These functions use fill pointers to access arrays.

## Logical Operations on Bit Arrays

| bit-and | bit-nor |
| :--- | :--- |
| bit-andc1 | bit-not |
| bit-andc2 | bit-orc1 |
| bit-eqv | bit-orc2 |
| bit-ior | bit-xor |
| bit-nand |  |

These functions operate on bit arrays.

## adjust-array

Purpose: The function adjust-array may be used to change the dimensions or contents of an array. The resulting array is of the same type and rank as the original array.

The original array may be modified and returned, or a new array may be created and the original array displaced to it.

The array argument must be an adjustable array.
The new-dimensions argument is a list of nonnegative integers that specify the size of each dimension of the array. The length of the dimensions list implicitly specifies the rank of the array and must equal the rank of the original array. The size of each dimension must be smaller than the constant array-dimension-limit, and the total number of elements that the array can contain (as given by the product of all dimensions) must be less than the constant array-total-size-limit.

The function adjust-array may be used with a number of keyword arguments. The use of the optional keyword arguments is discussed below.

Syntax:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { adjust-array array new-dimensions \&key } & \text { :element-type } \\
& \text { :initial-element } \\
& \text { :initial-contents } \\
& \text { :fill-pointer } \\
& \text { :displaced-to } \\
& \text { :displaced-index-offset }
\end{aligned}
$$

[Function]

Remarks: The :element-type keyword argument is used to specify the type of the elements of the array. Its value is a type specifier. If the :element-type argument is specified, it must be a type that is compatible with the :element-type specification of the original array. If the new array is a displaced array, the :element-type argument must be compatible with the :element-type specification of the array that the new array shares elements with.

The :initial-element keyword argument may be used to initialize each new element of the new array. Only those elements of the new array that are not within the bounds of the old array are initialized; the other elements retain their former values. If the :initial-element option is not specified, elements of the new array that are not within the bounds of the old array are undefined. The value of the :initial-element argument must agree with the type specified by the :element-type argument if the latter is given or with the original array if not. The :initial-element argument may not be specified if either the :initial-contents or :displaced-to argument is given.

The :initial-contents keyword argument is used to initialize each element of the new array individually. Its value is a list of nested sequences. The depth of nesting must equal the rank of the array. The top-level sequences correspond to the first dimension of the array, the second-level to the second dimension, and so on. The lowest-level sequence elements correspond to the array elements themselves. They must be of a type compatible with the :element-type argument. The :initial-contents argument may not be specified if either the :initial-element or the :displaced-to argument is given.
The :fill-pointer keyword argument may be specified only if the original array has a fill pointer. It is used to reset the fill pointer. If the argument value is $t$, the fill pointer is set to the length of the array. Otherwise the argument value must be a nonnegative integer that is no larger than the length of the array.

The :displaced-to keyword argument is used to create a displaced array. The new array shares its contents with the array that is given as the argument to the :displaced-to option. If the :displaced-to argument is defaulted or nil, the new array is not a displaced array. The :initial-elements and :initial-contents options must not be specified if the :displaced-to argument is given. The new array may not contain more elements than the array it is displaced to. The :displaced-index-offset option is generally used in conjunction with the :displaced-to option.
The :displaced-index-offset keyword argument is used to specify the offset of the new array from the beginning of the array that it is displaced to. The value of the argument must be a nonnegative integer; if it is not specified, it defaults to 0 . The :displaced-index-offset argument may be used only if the :displaced-to argument is specified. The size of the new array plus the offset value may not exceed the size of the array that it is displaced to.
Although the original array may be a displaced array, the resulting array is not a displaced array unless the :displaced-to argument is specified.

Examples: > (adjustable-array-p
(setq ada
(adjust-array (make-array '(2 3)
:adjustable t
:initial-contents '((abc) (12 3)))
-(4 6))))

```
T
> (array-dimensions ada)
(4 6)
> (aref ada 1 1)
2
```

See Also: adjustable-array-p
make-array
array-dimension-limit
array-total-size-limit

## adjustable-array-p

| Purpose: | The predicate adjustable-array-p is true if otherwise it is false. | justable; |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Syntax: | adjustable-array-p array | [Function] |
| Examples: | $\begin{aligned} & >\text { (make-array } 5^{\text {(adjustable-array-p }} \\ & \end{aligned}$ |  |
|  | ```:element-type 'string-char :adjustable t :fill-pointer 3))``` |  |
|  | T |  |
|  | > (adjustable-array-p (make-array 4)) NIL |  |

## aref

Purpose: The function aref accesses and returns the array element specified by the given subscripts.

Syntax: aref array \&rest subscripts [Function]
Remarks: The number of subscripts given must correspond to the rank of the array. Each subscript must be in bounds for its dimension.

The function aref ignores fill pointers when accessing elements.
The macro setf may be used with aref to destructively replace an array element.
Examples: > (aref (setq ta (make-array 4)) 3)
NIL
> (setf (aref ta 3) 'alozab)
alozab
> (aref ta 3)
ALOZAB
> (aref (make-array '(2 4)
:element-type '(unsigned-byte 2)
:initial-contents '((0 1223$\left.)\left(\begin{array}{llll}3 & 2 & 1 & 0\end{array}\right)\right)$
12)

1
See Also: bit
char
elt
svref

## array-dimension

Purpose: The function array-dimension returns the size of the axis-number dimension of the given array.

Syntax: array-dimension array axis-number [Function]
Remarks: The axis-number argument must be a nonnegative integer less than the rank of the array. Axis numbering is zero-origin.

The function array-dimension ignores fill pointers and returns the actual size of the given dimension.

Examples: > (array-dimension (make-array 4) 0)
4
> (array-dimension (make-array '(2 3) ) 1)
3
See Also: length

## array-dimension-limit

Purpose: The constant array-dimension-limit is an integer that defines the upper exclusive bound on each dimension of an array.

The value of array-dimension-limit in Sun Common Lisp is $2^{\mathbf{2 4}} \mathbf{- 1}$.
Syntax: array-dimension-limit
[Constant]
Examples: > array-dimension-limit
16777215

## array-dimensions

Purpose: The function array-dimensions returns a list whose elements are the dimensions of the given array.

Syntax: array-dimensions array [Function]
Examples: > (array-dimensions (make-array 4))
(4)
> (array-dimensions (make-array '(2 3)))
(2 3)

## array-element-type

Purpose: The function array-element-type returns a type specifier for the set of elements that the given array can contain.

Syntax: array-element-type array [Function]
Remarks: The value of the type specifier may be a supertype of the type requested by the user when the array was created.

Sun Common Lisp implements arrays by using several different primitive data types. In particular, simple vectors such as single-bit, 2 -bit, 4 -bit, 8 -bit, 16 -bit, 32-bit, and single-float vectors are directly implemented using primitive data types.

Examples: > (array-element-type (make-array 4))
$T$
> (array-element-type (make-array 12 :element-type '(unsigned-byte 8))) (UNSIGNED-BYTE 8)

```
> (array-element-type (make-array 12 :element-type '(unsigned-byte 5)))
``` (UNSIGNED-BYTE 8)

See Also: make-array

\section*{array-has-fill-pointer-p}

Purpose: The predicate array-has-fill-pointer-p is true if its array argument has a fill pointer; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: array-has-fill-pointer-p array [Function]
Remarks: Only one-dimensional arrays can have fill pointers.
Examples: > (array-has-fill-pointer-p (make-array 4)) NIL
> (array-has-fill-pointer-p (make-array 8
:fill-pointer 2
:initial-element 'bazola))
T

\section*{array-in-bounds-p}
```

Purpose: The predicate array-in-bounds-p checks whether the subscripts are all legal for the given array. It returns true if all are in bounds; otherwise it returns false.
Syntax: array-in-bounds-p array \&rest subscripts [Function]
Remarks: The number of subscripts given must equal the rank of the array.
The predicate array-in-bounds-p ignores fill pointers.
Examples: > (array-in-bounds-p
(setq foo (make-array '(7 11)
:element-type 'string-char))
00)
T
> (array-in-bounds-p foo 6 10)
T
> (array-in-bounds-p foo 0 -1)
NIL
> (array-in-bounds-p foo 0 11)
NIL
> (array-in-bounds-p foo 7 0)
NIL

```

\section*{array-rank}

Purpose: The function array-rank returns the number of dimensions of the given array as a nonnegative integer.

Syntax: array-rank array [Function]
Examples: > (array-rank (make-array nil))
0
> (array-rank (make-array 4))
1
> (array-rank (make-array '(2 3)))
2

\section*{array-rank-limit}

Purpose: The constant array-rank-limit is an integer that defines the upper exclusive bound on the rank of an array.
The value of array-rank-limit in Sun Common Lisp is \(2^{8}\).
Syntax: array-rank-limit [Constant]
Examples: > array-rank-limit 256
array-row-major-index

Purpose: The function array-row-major-index computes the position according to the row-major ordering of the array for the element that is specified by the subscript arguments. The result is a nonnegative integer value that indicates the offset of the element from the beginning of the array.

Syntax: array-row-major-index array krest subscripts
[Function]
Remarks: The function array-row-major-index ignores fill pointers.
The number of subscripts given must correspond to the rank of the array. Each subscript must be in bounds for its dimension.

Examples: > (array-row-major-index (setq foo (make-array ' (4 7) :element-type '(unsigned-byte 8)))
12)

9
> (array-row-major-index (make-array '(2 3 4)
:element-type '(unsigned-byte 8)
:displaced-to foo
:displaced-index-offset 4)
02 1)
9

\section*{array-total-size}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The function array-total-size returns the number of elements that can be contained in the given array. The result is the product of the dimensions of the array. \\
\hline Syntax: & array-total-size array [Function] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{Remarks:} & The function array-total-size ignores fill pointers. \\
\hline & The size of a zero-dimensional array is 1. \\
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{Examples:} & > (array-total-size (make-array nil)) \\
\hline & > (array-total-size (make-array 4)) \\
\hline & \\
\hline & > (array-total-size (make-array '(2 3))) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
array-total-size-limit

Purpose: The constant array-total-size-limit is an integer that defines the upper exclusive bound on the number of elements that any array can contain.
The value of array-total-size-limit in Sun Common Lisp is \(\mathbf{2 0 4}^{\mathbf{2 4}} \mathbf{1}\).
Syntax: array-total-size-limit
[Constant]
Examples: > array-total-size-limit 16777215

\section*{arrayp}

Purpose: The predicate arrayp is true if its argument is an array; otherwise it is false.
Syntax: arrayp object

Examples: > (arrayp (make-array '(2 3 4) :adjustable t))
T
> (arrayp (make-array 6))
T
> (arrayp 12)
NIL

\section*{bit, sbit}

Purpose: The functions bit and sbit access elements of bit arrays.
The function bit accesses and returns the bit array element specified by the list of subscripts.
The function sbit is identical to bit but requires an array argument that is a simple bit array.

Syntax: bit bit-array \&rest subscripts
[Function]
sbit simple-bit-array \&rest subscripts
Remarks: The function bit ignores fill pointers when accessing elements.
The number of subscripts given must correspond to the rank of the array. Each subscript must be in bounds for its dimension.
The functions bit and sbit are like aref except that they require their array arguments to be a bit array and a simple bit array respectively. The function sbit is coded in-line by the compiler; it may be significantly faster than bit.
The macro setf may be used with bit or sbit to destructively replace a bit array element.

Examples: > (bit (setq ba (make-array 8 :element-type 'bit :initial-element 1))
3)

1
> (setf (bit ba 3) 0)
0
> (bit ba 3)
0
> (sbit ba 5)
1
> (setf (sbit ba 5) 1)
1
> (sbit ba 5)
1

See Also: aref

\title{
bit-and, bit-andc1, bit-andc2, bit-eqv, bit-ior, bit-orc1, bit-orc2, bit-nand, bit-nor, bit-xor
}

\author{
Purpose:
}

The functions bit-and, bit-andc1, bit-andc2, bit-eqv, bit-ior, bit-orc1, bit-orc2, bit-nand, bit-nor, and bit-xor perform bit-wise logical operations on bit arrays and return the resulting array.

If the result-bit-array argument is specified, the contents of that array are replaced with the result; if it is \(\mathbf{t}\), the contents of bit-array1 are replaced with the result; if it is nil or unspecified, a new array is created.

The function bit-and returns the logical and of its bit array arguments.
The function bit-andc1 returns the logical and of its first argument with the logical complement of its second argument.

The function bit-andc 2 returns the logical and of its second argument with the logical complement of its first argument.

The function bit-eqv returns the logical equivalence of its bit array arguments.
The function bit-ior returns the logical inclusive or of its bit array arguments.
The function bit-nand performs the logical and operation on its bit array arguments and returns the logical complement of the result.

The function bit-nor performs the logical inclusive or operation on its bit array arguments and returns the logical complement of the result.

The function bit-orc1 returns the logical inclusive or of its first argument with the logical complement of its second argument.

The function bit-orc2 returns the logical inclusive or of its second argument with the logical complement of its first argument.

The function bit-xor returns the logical exclusive or of its bit array arguments.

Syntax: bit-and bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
[Function]
bit-andc1 bit-array1 bit-array2 toptional result-bit-array
bit-andc2 bit-array1 bit-array2 toptional result-bit-array
bit-eqv bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-ior bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-nand bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-nor bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-and, bit-andc1, bit-andc2, bit-eqv, bit-ior, bit-orc1, ...
bit-orc1 bit-array1 bit-array2 zoptional result-bit-array [Function]
bit-orc2 bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array [Function]
bit-xor bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array [Function]

Remarks: The array arguments must all be of the same rank and dimensions. The result is a bit array of the same rank and dimensions as the arguments.
```

Examples: > (setq *print-array* t)
T
> (bit-and (setq ba \#*11101010) \#*01101011)
\#*01101010
> (setq rba (bit-andc2 ba \#*00110011 t))
\#*11001000
> (eq rba ba)
T

```

See Also: bit-not

\section*{bit-not}

Purpose: The function bit-not inverts the bits in its bit-array argument and returns the resulting array.
If the result-bit-array argument is specified, the contents of that array are replaced with the result; if it is \(t\), the contents of bit-array are replaced with the result; if it is nil or unspecified, a new array is created.

Syntax: bit-not bit-array koptional result-bit-array [Function]
Remarks: The resulting array is identical in rank and dimensions to the original array.
Examples: > (setq *print-array* \(t\) )
T
> (bit-not (setq ba \#*11101010))
\#*00010101
> (setq rba (bit-not ba
(setq tba (make-array 8
:element-type 'bit))))
\#*00010101
> (equal rba tba)
T

\section*{bit-vector-p}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The predicate bit-vector-p is true if its argument false. & rwise it is \\
\hline Syntax: & bit-vector-p object & [Function] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{6}{*}{Examples:} & > (bit-vector-p (make-array 6 & \\
\hline & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { :element-type 'bit } \\
& \text { :fill-pointer t)) }
\end{aligned}
\] & \\
\hline & T & \\
\hline & > (bit-vector-p \#*) & \\
\hline & T & \\
\hline & > (bit-vector-p (make-array 6)) NIL & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{fill-pointer}
Purpose: \begin{tabular}{l} 
The function fill-pointer returns the fill pointer of the specified vector. The vector \\
argument must be a vector with a fill pointer.
\end{tabular}
Syntax: \(\quad\) fill-pointer vector
[Function]

Remarks: The macro setf may be used with fill-pointer to modify the fill pointer of a vector. The new fill pointer value must be a nonnegative integer less than or equal to the length of the vector.
```

Examples: > (fill-pointer
(setq fa (make-array 8
:fill-pointer 2
:initial-element 'bazola)))
2
> (setf (fill-pointer fa) 0)
O
(fill-pointer fa)
O

```

\section*{make-array}

Purpose: The function make-array creates and returns a new array.
The dimensions argument is a list of nonnegative integers that specify the size of each of the dimensions of the array. The length of the dimensions list implicitly specifies the rank of the array. The total number of dimensions of the array must be less than the constant array-rank-limit. The size of each dimension must be smaller than the constant array-dimension-limit, and the total number of elements that the array can contain (as given by the product of all dimensions) must be less than the constant array-total-size-limit.

If the dimensions argument is nil, a zero-dimensional array is created.
If a one-dimensional array is to be created, the dimensions argument may be given as a single integer rather than as a list.
The function make-array may be used with a number of keyword arguments. The use of the optional keyword arguments is discussed below.

Syntax:
\begin{tabular}{rlr} 
make-array dimensions \&key & :element-type \\
& :initial-element \\
& :initial-contents \\
& \(:\) adjustable \\
& :fill-pointer \\
& :displaced-to \\
& \(:\) displaced-index-offset
\end{tabular}

Remarks: The :element-type keyword argument is used to specify the type of the elements of the new array. Its value is a type specifier. The array that is created is of the most appropriate implementation type that can contain elements of this type. Sun Common Lisp implements arrays by using several different primitive data types. In particular, simple vectors such as single-bit, 2 -bit, 4 -bit, 8 -bit, 16 -bit, 32 -bit, and single-float vectors are directly implemented using primitive data types. The :element-type argument defaults to \(t\), the most general type.

The :initial-element keyword argument may be used to specify the initial value of all elements of the new array. This value must be of the type specified by the :element-type argument if the latter is given. If the :initial-element argument is not specified, the initial contents of the array elements are undefined. The :initial-element argument may not be specified if either the :initial-contents or the :displaced-to argument is given.

The :initial-contents keyword argument is used to initialize each element of the new array individually. Its value is a list of nested sequences. The depth of nesting must equal the rank of the array. The top-level sequences correspond to the first dimension of the array, the second-level to the second dimension, and so on. The lowest-level sequence elements correspond to the array elements themselves. They must be of a type compatible with the :element-type argument. The :initial-contents argument may not be specified if either the :initial-element or the :displaced-to argument is given.

The :adjustable keyword argument is used to specify that the size of the array may be adjusted dynamically. If this argument is specified and is non-nil, the array that is created is adjustable.

The :fill-pointer keyword argument is used to specify that the array is to have a fill pointer. Only one-dimensional arrays may have fill pointers. The fill pointer is initialized to the value of the :fill-pointer argument. If the argument value is \(t\), the fill pointer is set to the length of the array. Otherwise it must be a nonnegative integer that is no larger than the length of the array. If the fill pointer argument is defaulted or nil, the array will not have a fill pointer.
The :displaced-to keyword argument is used to create a displaced array. The new array shares its contents with the array that is given as the argument to the :displaced-to option. If the :element-type option is also specified, it must be the same as that of the array that the new array shares elements with. If the :displaced-to argument is defaulted or nil, the new array is not a displaced array. The :initial-elements or :initial-contents option must not be specified if the :displaced-to argument is given. The new array may not contain more elements than the array it is displaced to. The :displaced-index-offset option is generally used in conjunction with the :displaced-to option.

The :displaced-index-offset keyword argument is used to specify the offset of the new array from the beginning of the array that it is displaced to. The value of the argument must be a nonnegative integer; if it is not specified, it defaults to 0 . The :displaced-index-offset argument may be used only if the :displaced-to argument is specified. The size of the new array plus the offset value may not exceed the size of the array that it is displaced to.

If the :adjustable, :fill-pointer, and :displaced-to arguments are all defaulted or nil, a simple array is created.

\section*{make-array}
```

Examples: > (setq *print-array* t)
T
> (make-array nil)
\#OA NIL
> (make-array 4)
\#(NIL NIL NIL NIL)
> (make-array '(2 4)
:element-type '(unsigned-byte 2)
:initial-contents '((0 1 2 3) (3 2 1 0)))
\#2A((0 1 2 3) (3 2 1 0))
> (make-array 6
:element-type 'string-char
:initial-element \#\a
:fill-pointer 3)
"aaa"

```
See Also: array-dimension-limit
array-rank-limit
array-total-size-limit
simple-bit-vector-p

Purpose: The predicate simple-bit-vector-p is true if its argument is a simple bit vector; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: simple-bit-vector-p object [Function]
Examples: > (simple-bit-vector-p (make-array 6)) NIL
> (simple-bit-vector-p \#*)
T

\section*{simple-vector-p}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The predicate simple-vector-p is true if its argument is a simple general vector; otherwise it is false. \\
\hline Syntax: & simple-vector-p object [Function] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{6}{*}{Examples:} & > (simple-vector-p (make-array 6)) \\
\hline & \(\overline{\text { T }}\) \\
\hline & > (simple-vector-p "aaaaaa") \\
\hline & NIL \\
\hline & > (simple-vector-p (make-array 6 :fill-pointer t)) \\
\hline & NIL \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{svref}

Purpose: The function svref accesses a simple vector and returns the element specified by its index argument.

Syntax: svref simple-vector index
[Function]
Remarks: The index value must be in bounds for the vector.
The function svref is like aref except that it requires its array argument to be a simple vector. The function svref is coded in-line by the compiler; it may be significantly faster than aref.
The macro setf may be used with svref to destructively replace an element of a simple vector.

Examples: > (setq *print-array* t)
\(T\)
> (simple-vector-p (setq \(\mathbf{v}\) (vector 12 'bazola)))
T
\(>\) (svref vo)
1
> (svref v 2)
BAZOLA
> (setf (svref v 1) 'newcomer)
NEWCOMER
> v
\#(1 NEWCOMER BAZOLA)
See Also: aref
sbit
schar
vector

\section*{vector}

Purpose: The function vector creates and returns a simple general vector whose size corresponds to the number of object arguments. It is initialized to contain the objects specified by the arguments.

Syntax: vector \&rest objects [Function]
Examples: > (arrayp (setq v (vector 12 'bazola))) T
> (vectorp \(v\) )
T
> (simple-vector-p v)
\(T\)
> (length v)
3
See Also: make-array

\section*{vector-pop}
Purpose: The function vector-pop is used to retrieve elements from vectors having fillpointers. The fill pointer is decremented by 1 , and the vector element indicated bythe new fill pointer is returned as the result.
Syntax: vector-pop vector [Function]
Remarks: The initial value of the fill pointer must be positive.
The vector argument must specify a vector that has a fill pointer.
Examples: > (vector-push (setq frob (list 'frob))
(setq fa (make-array 8
:fill-pointer 2
:initial-element 'bazola)))
2
(fill-pointer fa)
3
> (eq (vector-pop fa) frob)
\(T\)
(vector-pop fa)
BAZOLA
> (fill-pointer fa)
1
See Also: vector-push

\section*{vector-push, vector-push-extend}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{Purpose:} & The functions vector-push and vector-push-extend are used to store elements in vectors having fill pointers. \\
\hline & The function vector-push attempts to store the new-element argument in the vector location indicated by the fill pointer and then to increment the fill pointer. If it succeeds, the original value of the fill pointer is returned as the result. If the fill pointer is already too large, vector-push returns nil and does not modify the vector. \\
\hline & The function vector-push-extend is like vector-push except that the vector is extended when the fill pointer becomes too large. Its vector argument must be an adjustable vector. \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{Syntax:} & vector-push new-element vector [Function] \\
\hline & vector-push-extend new-element vector koptional extension [Function] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{Remarks:} & The extension argument of vector-push-extend may be used to specify the minimum number of elements by which the array should be extended. It must be a positive integer. \\
\hline & The vector argument must specify a vector that has a fill pointer. The new element may be any object that is compatible with the type of the vector. \\
\hline \multirow[t]{12}{*}{Examples:} & \begin{tabular}{l}
> (vector-push (setq frob (list 'frob)) \\
(setq fa (make-array 8
\end{tabular} \\
\hline & :initial-element 'bazola))) \\
\hline & 2 \\
\hline & > (fill-pointer fa) \\
\hline & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{3 (eq (aref fa 2) frob)} \\
\hline & \\
\hline & \\
\hline & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{} \\
\hline & \\
\hline & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { :element-type 'string-char } \\
& \text { :adjustable } t \\
& \text { :fill-pointer } 3 \text { ))) }
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline & 3 \\
\hline & > (fill-pointer aa) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

> (vector-push-extend \#\Y aa 4)
4
> (array-total-size aa)
5
> (vector-push-extend \#\Z aa 4)
5
> (array-total-size aa)
9

```

See Also:
adjustable-array-p
vector-pop

\section*{vectorp}

Purpose: The predicate vectorp is true if its argument is a vector; otherwise it is false.
```

Syntax: vectorp object
[Function]
Examples: > (vectorp "aaaaa")
T
(vectorp (make-array 6 :fill-pointer t))
T
> (vectorp (make-array '(2 3 4)))
NIL

```

\section*{Chapter 17. Strings}

\section*{Chapter 17. Strings}
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\section*{About Strings}

A string is a vector whose elements must be of the string character data type. The string type is identical to the type (vector string-char).
Like other vectors and arrays, strings may have fill pointers. A fill pointer is an index into a string. It is a nonnegative integer whose value is less than or equal to the number of elements that the string can contain. The elements below the fill pointer are considered to be active. If the fill pointer value is 0 , the string contains no active elements. The fill pointer may be used to fill in the elements of the string incrementally and thus to vary the length of the active portion of the string. Generally, string functions observe fill pointers and only operate on the active portion of a string.

A simple string is a simple array. In particular, it has no fill pointer. Simple strings use less storage than general strings. Operations on simple strings tend to be faster than those on general strings.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

This section groups operations on strings according to functionality.

\section*{Data Type Predicates}
```

stringp simple-string-p

```

These predicates determine whether an object is a string.

\section*{String Access}
char \(\operatorname{schar}\)

These functions access a single string element.

\section*{String Comparison}
```

string=
string<
string<=
string>
string>=
string/=

```
```

string-equal

```
string-equal
string-lessp
string-lessp
string-not-greaterp
string-not-greaterp
string-greaterp
string-greaterp
string-not-lessp
string-not-lessp
string-not-equal
```

string-not-equal

```

These functions perform lexicographic comparisons on strings. Both case-sensitive and case-insensitive forms of each operation are provided.

\section*{String Construction}
\begin{tabular}{|l|}
\hline make-string \\
string \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These functions create new strings.

\section*{String Manipulation}
```

string-trim
string-left-trim
string-capitalize
nstring-upcase
string-right-trim
nstring-downcase
string-upcase
nstring-capitalize
string-downcase

```

These functions modify strings.

\section*{char, schar}

Purpose: The function char accesses and returns as a character object the string element specified by index. The index value must be a nonnegative integer that is less than the length of the string.

The function schar is identical to char but requires a string argument that is a simple string.
Syntax: char string index [Function]
schar simple-string index
Remarks: The function char ignores fill pointers when accessing elements.
The index is an offset value from the beginning of the string; indexing is zero-origin.
The macro setf may be used with char or schar to destructively replace a string element.

Examples: > (setq simp-str "abcdef")
"abcdef"
> (setq un-simp-str (make-array '(6)
:element-type 'string-char
:fill-pointer 0
:displaced-to simp-str))
""
> (schar simp-str 2)
\#\c
> (char un-simp-str 2)
\# \(\backslash\) c
> (setf (schar simp-str 2) \#\C)
\#\C
> simp-str
"abCdef"
See Also: aref
elt

\section*{make-string}

Purpose: The function make-string creates and returns a string of length size.
If the :initial-element argument is specified, all string elements are initialized to its value.

Syntax: make-string size kkey :initial-element
Remarks: The resulting string is a simple string.
Examples: > (make-string 10 :initial-element \#\5)
"5555555555"
> (length (make-string 10))
10

\section*{simple-string-p}

Purpose: The predicate simple-string-p is true if its argument is a simple string; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: simple-string-p object [Function]
Examples: > (simple-string-p "aaaaa")
T
> (simple-string-p (make-array 6
:element-type 'string-char :fill-pointer t))
NIL

\section*{string}Purpose: The function string converts symbol and single-character arguments to strings.If the argument of string is a string, it is returned; if it is a symbol, the printname of the symbol is returned as a string; if it is a string character, a one-elementstring containing that character is returned. If the argument is of any other type,string signals an error.
Syntax: string \(\boldsymbol{x}\) [Function]
Examples: > (string "already a string")"already a string"
> (string 'foo)
"F00"
> (string \#\c)
"c"

\section*{See Also: coerce}
```

string-char-p

```

\title{
string \(<\), string \(<=\), string \(>\), string \(>=\), string \(/=\), string-lessp, string-not-greaterp, string-greaterp, string-not-lessp, string-not-equal
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & These functions perform lexicographic comparisons upon their string arguments. The comparison operations may be restricted to substrings of these strings by specifying the :start and :end keyword arguments. \\
\hline & The functions string<, string<=, string>, string>=, and string/= check to see if the first of these substrings is less than, less than or equal to, greater than, greater than or equal to, or not equal to the second respectively. If so, they return the first character position at which the two substrings differ as an integer offset from the beginning of string1. If the two substrings are identical, nil is returned. \\
\hline & The functions string-lessp, string-not-greaterp, string-greaterp, string-not-lessp, and string-not-equal are identical to string<, string<=, string>, string \(>=\), and string/ \(=\) respectively but ignore differences in case. \\
\hline Syntax: & string< string1 string2 kkey :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 [Function] \\
\hline & string< = string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 \(\quad\) [Function] \\
\hline & string> string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 [Function] \\
\hline & string \(>=\) string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 \(\quad\) [Function] \\
\hline & string/= string1 string2 kkey :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 [Function] \\
\hline & string-lessp string1 string2 \&key : start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 [Function] \\
\hline & string-not-greaterp string1 string2 [Function] \\
\hline & \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 : end2 \\
\hline & string-greaterp string1 string2 kkey : start1 : end1 :start2 :end2 [Function] \\
\hline & string-not-lessp string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 [Function] \\
\hline & string-not-equal string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Remarks: The :start and :end keyword arguments take integer values that specify offsets into the original strings. The :start arguments mark the beginning positions of the substrings; the :end arguments mark the positions following the last elements of the substrings. The start values default to 0 ; the end values default to the lengths of the strings.

The string1 and string2 arguments may be either symbols or strings. If a symbol is specified, the symbol's print name is used.
string \(<\), string \(<=\), string \(>\), string \(>=\), string \(/=\), string-lessp, \(\ldots\)
Examples: > (string< "aaaa" "aaab")
3
> (string>= "aaaaa" "aaaa")
4
> (string-lessp "012AAAA789" "01aaab6" :start1 3 :end1 7 :start2 2 :end2 6)

6
> (string-not-equal "AAAA" "aaaA")
NIL
See Also: string=
string-equal

\section*{string \(=\), string-equal}

Purpose: The functions string= and string-equal perform comparisons upon strings. The comparison operations may be restricted to substrings of these strings by specifying the :start and :end keyword arguments.

The function string \(=\) is true if the substrings are of the same length and contain identical characters in corresponding positions; it is false if any of these conditions does not hold.

The function string-equal is identical to string \(=\) except that differences in case are ignored.

Syntax: string= string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 [Function]
string-equal string1 string2 kkey :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 [Function]
Remarks: The :start and :end keyword arguments take integer values that specify offsets into the original strings. The :start arguments mark the beginning positions of the substrings; the :end arguments mark the positions following the last elements of the substrings. The start values default to 0 ; the end values default to the lengths of the strings.

The string1 and string2 arguments may be either symbols or strings. If a symbol is specified, the symbol's print name is used.

Examples: > (string= "abcd" "01234abcd9012" :start2 5 :end2 9)
4
> (string= "Abcd" "abcd")
NIL
> (string-equal "Abcde" "abcdE")
5

\section*{string-trim, string-left-trim, string-right-trim}

Purpose: The function string-trim returns a copy of its string argument from which the largest prefix and suffix containing only characters from character-bag have been removed. The argument character-bag can be any sequence containing characters.

If no characters can be trimmed, a copy of the original string or the original string itself is returned.

The functions string-left-trim and string-right-trim are identical to stringtrim except that characters are removed from only the left or right ends of the string respectively.

Syntax: string-trim character-bag string
[Function]
string-left-trim character-bag string
[Function]
string-right-trim character-bag string
Remarks: The string argument may be either a symbol or a string. If a symbol is specified, the symbol's print name is used.

Examples: > (string-trim "abc" "abcaakaaakabcaaa")
"kaaak"
> (string-right-trim " (*)" " ( *three (silly) words* ) ")
" ( *three (silly) words"
> (string-left-trim "abc" "labcabcabc")
"labcabcabc"

\title{
string-upcase, string-downcase, string-capitalize, nstring-upcase, nstring-downcase, nstring-capitalize
}

\footnotetext{
Purpose: The function string-upcase returns a copy of its string argument in which all lowercase characters have been converted to the corresponding uppercase characters. The case conversion operation may be restricted to a substring of the string by specifying the :start and :end keyword arguments.

The function string-downcase is like string-upcase except that all uppercase characters are replaced by the corresponding lowercase characters.

The function string-capitalize returns a copy of its string argument in which the first character of every word is uppercase, if possible, and all others are lowercase. A word is considered to be any consecutive subsequence of alphanumeric characters delimited by nonalphanumeric characters or the end of the string.

The functions nstring-upcase, nstring-downcase, and nstring-capitalize are identical to string-upcase, string-downcase, and string-capitalize respectively except that they modify the string argument.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: & string-upcase string \&key :start : end & [Function] \\
& string-downcase string \&key :start : end & [Function] \\
& string-capitalize string \&key :start :end & [Function] \\
& nstring-upcase string \&key : start :end & [Function] \\
& nstring-downcase string \&key :start :end & [Function] \\
& nstring-capitalize string \&key :start :end & [Function]
\end{tabular}

Remarks: The :start and :end keyword arguments take integer values that specify offsets into the original strings. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the substring; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the substring. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the string.

The string argument of the functions string-upcase, string-downcase, and string-capitalize may be either a symbol or a string. If a symbol is specified, the symbol's print name is used.
}

\title{
string-upcase, string-downcase, string-capitalize, ...
}
```

Examples: > (string-upcase "abcde")
"ABCDE"
> (setq str "0123ABCD890a")
"0123ABCD890a"
> (nstring-downcase str :start 5 :end 7)
"0123AbcD890a"
> str
"0123AbcD890a"
> (string-capitalize "fOo 13c arthur;bar don't")
"Foo 13c Arthur;Bar Don'T"
See Also: char-upcase
char-downcase

```

\section*{stringp}

Purpose: The predicate stringp is true if its argument is a string; otherwise it is false.


\section*{Chapter 18. Hash Tables}

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\section*{About Hash Tables}

Hash tables are Common Lisp objects that provide mappings between other objects. Each hash table entry is a pair of associated objects, a key and a value. Hash table functions use keys to look up their associated values. Both keys and values can be any Lisp objects. Hash table keys are unique: at most one value can be associated with a key at a given time.

The size of a hash table corresponds to the maximum number of entries that it can hold. Although entries may be added and deleted, this size remains fixed until the capacity of the hash table is exceeded, at which time the hash table is automatically extended and reorganized.
Hash tables are designed so that a value associated with a key may be found quickly in situations where there is a large number of entries. This is their advantage over property lists and association lists.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

This section groups operations on hash tables according to functionality.

\section*{Data Type Predicates}

\section*{hash-table-p}

This predicate determines whether an object is a hash table.

\section*{Hash Table Functions}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
clrhash & make-hash-table \\
gethash & maphash \\
hash-table-count & remhash
\end{tabular}

These functions create and manipulate hash tables.

\section*{Hash Functions}
sxhash

This function is designed to allow the user to implement conveniently more complex hashed data structures than are provided by the hash table facility.

\section*{clrhash}

Purpose: The function clrhash removes all entries from its hash-table argument and returns the empty hash table as its result.

Syntax: clrhash hash-table [Function]
Examples: > (setq h (make-hash-table))
\#<Hash-Table 3BB92B>
> (dotimes (i 100) (setf (gethash i h) i))
NIL
> (hash-table-count h)
100
> (hash-table-count (clrhash h))
0
> (hash-table-count h)
0

\section*{gethash}

Purpose: The function gethash finds the hash table entry that is associated with a given key and returns its value. If such an entry does not exist, gethash returns default if this value has been specified, or nil if not. The function gethash also returns a second value; this value is true if the entry was found and false otherwise.

Syntax: gethash key hash-table 女optional default [Function]
Remarks: The macro setf may be used with gethash to add entries to the table. If an entry with the same key already exists, that entry is replaced.
```

Examples: > (setq h (make-hash-table))
\#<Hash-Table 3BB153>
> (setf (gethash 1 h) "one")
"one"
> (setf (gethash 'nil h "ignored default") nil)
NIL
>(gethash 1 h)
"one"
T
> (gethash 'nil h "default")
NIL
T
> (gethash 2 h)
NIL
NIL
> (gethash 2 h "default")
"default"
NIL

```

\section*{hash-table-count}
```

Purpose: The function hash-table-count returns the number of entries in a given hash table. If the hash table has just been created or newly cleared, the entry count is 0 .
Syntax: hash-table-count hash-table
Examples: > (setq h (make-hash-table))
\#<Hash-Table 3BF7DB>
> (hash-table-count h)
O
> (setf (gethash 57 h) "57")
"57"
> (hash-table-count h)
1
> (dotimes (i 100) (getf (gethash i h) i))
NIL
> (hash-table-count h)
100

```

\section*{hash-table-p}


\section*{make-hash-table}

Purpose: The function make-hash-table creates and returns a new hash table.
Syntax: make-hash-table akey :test [Function]
:size
:rehash-size
:rehash-threshold
Remarks: The meanings of the keyword arguments are as follows:
The :test argument specifies the predicate to be used in comparing keys. The argument value must be one of the following if given: \#'eq, \#'eql, \#'equal, eq, eql, or equal. If a value is not specified, eql is used.

Hash tables that use eq or eql may use actual addresses to compute the associated hash values. These types of hash tables may need to be rehashed after a garbage collection.

The :size argument specifies the initial size of the hash table in terms of the number of possible entries. This value is a hint to the system: the hash table that is created may actually be larger. The :size argument must be a positive fixnum.
The :rehash-size argument specifies how much the hash table should be extended when it becomes full. This value can be a positive integer or a floating-point number greater than 1. If :rehash-size is specified as an integer, the table will be extended by that number of entries. If it is a floating-point value, the hash table will grow by that factor each time it is extended.
The :rehash-threshold argument specifies how full the hash table may become before it is extended. This value may be a positive integer less than :rehash-size or a floating-point value greater than 0.0 and less than or equal to 1.0 . If an integer value is specified, this value will be scaled appropriately when the table is extended.

The :size, :rehash-size, and :rehash-threshold arguments have implementationdependent default values.

\section*{make-hash-table}
```

Examples: > (setq h (make-hash-table))
\#<Hash-Table 3C420B>
> (setf (gethash "one" h) 1)
1
> (gethash "one" h)
NIL
NIL
> (setq h (make-hash-table :test 'equal))
\#<Hash-Table 3C542B>
> (setf (gethash "one" h) 1)
1
> (gethash "one" h)
1
T
> (make-hash-table :size 100 :rehash-size 50 :rehash-threshold 75)
\#<Hash-Table 3BDF4B>
> (make-hash-table :rehash-size 1.5 :rehash-threshold 0.7)
\#<Hash-Table 3BE283>

```

\section*{maphash}
```

Purpose: The function maphash calls its function argument on each entry of a given hash table.
The function argument must be a function of two arguments. These arguments should correspond to the key and the value of the hash table entry respectively. The function maphash returns nil as its result.
Syntax:
maphash function hash-table
Remarks: Adding or deleting hash table entries while a maphash operation is in progress may cause unpredictable results.
Examples: > (setq h (make-hash-table))
\#<Hash-Table 3BE59B>
> (dotimes (i 10) (setf (gethash i h) i))
NIL
> (let ((sum-of-squares 0$)$ )
(maphash \#' (lambda (key val)
(incf sum-of-squares (* val val)))
h)
sum-of-squares)
285
> (hash-table-count h)
10
> (maphash \#' (lambda (key val)
(when (oddp val) (remhash key h)))
h)
NIL
> (hash-table-count h)
5

```

\section*{remhash}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The function remhash removes the hash table entry with a given key if such an entry exists. It returns true if such an entry was found, and false if not. \\
\hline Syntax: & remhash key hash-table [Function] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{12}{*}{Examples:} & > (setq h (make-hash-table)) \\
\hline & \#<Hash-Table 3BE59B> \\
\hline & ```
> (setf (gethash 100 h) "C")
"C"
``` \\
\hline & \[
\begin{aligned}
& >(\text { gethash } 100 \mathrm{~h}) \\
& \text { "C" }
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline & T \\
\hline & > (remhash 100 h ) \\
\hline & T \\
\hline & > (gethash 100 h ) \\
\hline & NIL \\
\hline & NIL \\
\hline & > (remhash 100 h ) \\
\hline & NIL \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{sxhash}

Purpose: The function sxhash computes a nonnegative fixnum from its object argument. This result is intended for use as a hash value.

Syntax: sxhash object [Function]
Remarks: The function sxhash is designed to allow the user to implement conveniently more complex hashed data structures than are provided by the make-hash-table construct.
If two objects are the same (equal), sxhash returns the same hash value for both.
Examples: > (= (sxhash (list 'list "ab")) (sxhash (list 'list "ab"))) T

\section*{Chapter 19. Structures}

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\section*{About Structures}

Common Lisp allows the user to create named record structures with a fixed number of named components called slots. These structures are, in effect, user-defined data types. All are created with the defstruct macro. When these data types are defined, constructs to manipulate them are normally automatically defined as well. These constructs include type predicates and access, constructor, and copier functions.

The representation of structures may be explicitly controlled. The user may specify how a structure is to be implemented and how slots are to be allocated.

Structures can be either named or unnamed. From any instance of a named structure, the user can obtain the structure name for the type.
The simple use of defstruct is discussed first; a description of all the defstruct features and options follows.
```

defstruct name-and-options [documentation] {slot-description}*
name-and-options::= structure-name |(structure-name {option}*)
structure-name::= symbol
option::= :conc-name | (:conc-name symbol)| (:conc-name nil)|
:constructor| (:constructor symbol)|(:constructor nil)|
(:constructor symbol boa-arglist)|
:copier | (:copier symbol)| (:copier nil)|
:predicate | (:predicate symbol)|(:predicate nil)|
(:include existing-defstruct-name {slot-description}*)|
(:print-function function)|
(:type {list | vector | (vector type)})|
:named |
(:initial-offset non-negative-integer)
boa-arglist::= ({symbol}*
[\&optional {var |(var [initform] )}*]
[krest var]
[kaux {var | (var [initform])}*])
slot-description::= slot-name |(slot-name [initform {slot-option}*])
slot-option::= :type type | :read-only flag

```

Figure 19-1. Syntax for Defstruct

\section*{Defining Structures}

The macro defstruct is used to define a structure. Its complete syntax is shown in Figure 19-1.

The structure-name argument of defstruct is a symbol. It becomes the name of the new type.

The components of the structure, or slots, are specified by slot descriptions.
The slot-name is a symbol. All the other slot-description arguments are optional. Of these, the initform argument is the most important. The initform argument is a form that specifies a default value for the slot. It is evaluated when a new instance of the structure is created and no slot value has been given. The other slot options are discussed later in this chapter.

If an initform value and other options are not specified, the slot-name argument may be given by itself (not in a list).

A documentation string may be attached to the structure name by specifying the optional documentation argument; the documentation type for this string is structure.

\section*{Automatically Defined Functions}

In the simple case where no defstruct options have been specified, the following functions are automatically defined to operate on instances of the new structure.

A predicate with the name structure-name-p is defined to test membership in the structure type. The predicate (structure-name-p object) is true if an object is of this type; otherwise it is false. The function typep may also be used with the name of the new type to test whether an object belongs to the type. Such a function call has the form (typep object 'structure-name).

Access functions are defined to access the components of the structure. For each slot name, there is a corresponding access function with the name structure-name-slot-name. This function accesses the contents of that slot. Each access function takes one argument, which is an instance of the structure type. The macro setf may be used with any of these access functions to alter the slot contents.

A constructor function with the name make-structure-name is defined. This function creates and returns new instances of the structure type.

A copier function with the name copy-structure-name is defined. The copier function takes an object of the structure type and creates a new object of the same type that is a copy of the first. The copier function creates a new structure with the same component entries as the original. Corresponding components of the two structure instances are eql.

The predicate, access function, constructor function, and copier function names are all defined in whatever package is current at the time the defstruct macro is processed.

\section*{Constructing New Instances of the Structure}

After a new structure type has been defined, instances of that type normally can be created by using the constructor function for the type.
A call to a constructor function is of the following form:
(constructor-function-name
slot-keyword-1 form1
slot-keyword-2 form-2
...)
The arguments to the constructor function are all keyword arguments. Each slot keyword argument must be a keyword whose name corresponds to the name of a structure slot.
For each slot keyword, the associated form is evaluated, and the slot is initialized to its value. If a slot is not initialized in this way, it is initialized by evaluating the initform argument in the slot description. The initform argument is evaluated at the time the new structure instance is created, but in the lexical environment of the defstruct form in which it was defined. If no such initialization form was specified, the contents of the slot are undefined.

\section*{Defstruct Slot Options}

The following keyword options are available for use in the slot descriptions. No part of these options is evaluated. For a slot option to be specified, the default value for the slot needs to have been defined by use of the initform argument in the slot description.
- The :read-only option controls whether the contents of the slot may be modified. If :read-only is specified with a non-nil argument, setf will not accept the access function for the slot, and the slot will always contain the default value. If :read-only is specified with a nil argument, the option has no effect.
- The :type option specifies the type of the slot contents. The argument to :type must be a type specifier. If the :type option is specified, the slot contents must be of the given type.

\section*{Defstruct Options}

The following keyword options are available for use with defstruct. No part of these options is evaluated.
- The :conc-name option controls the naming of the access functions. When :concname is defaulted, components of the structure are accessed individually by functions whose names consist of the structure name, a hyphen, and then the name of the component. A symbol or string argument may be provided for use as an alternate prefix for the access function name. This prefix is added to each of the component names to form the names of the access functions. If a hyphen is to separate the component name, it must be included as part of the prefix given to :conc-name. If :conc-name is specified as nil, the names of the access functions are the same as those of the components. The names of the access functions are entered into the package that is current at the time the defstruct macro is processed.
- The :constructor option controls the naming of the constructor function. If this option is defaulted, the constructor name is make- followed by the structure name. The name of the constructor function is entered into the package that is current at the time the defstruct macro is processed. A symbol argument may be provided that specifies a different name for the constructor function. If the option is specified as nil, no constructor function is defined.

It is also possible to define a constructor function that uses positional rather than keyword arguments. This is done by specifying the :constructor option as (:constructor name arglist), where arglist describes the arguments to the constructor function. A constructor of this form is known as a BOA constructor, because it operates by order of arguments.
In the simplest case, the elements of arglist are the slot names themselves (not keywords) in the order in which they are to occur as arguments. The keywords \&optional, \&rest, and \&aux may also be used in arglist. Any \&optional and \&aux arguments for which no initialization forms have been specified in arglist are not set to nil as they would be in a lambda list. The initial value of any \&optional argument for which no initialization form is specified in arglist is taken from the initform argument given for the slot description. The initial value of any \&aux argument for which no initialization form is specified in arglist is undefined.

The :constructor option may be used more than once. It is thus possible to define several different constructor functions for a given structure.
- The :copier option controls the naming of the copier function. If this option is defaulted, the name of the copier function is copy-followed by the structure name. The name of the copier function is entered into the package that is current at the time the defstruct form is processed. A symbol argument may be provided that specifies a different name for the copier function. If nil is specified, no copier function is defined.
- The :include option allows for creating a new structure that is an extension of an existing structure type by including the slots of the old structure. Both the access functions of the included structure and the access functions of the new structure may be applied to the included slots of the new structure.
The :include option requires an argument that is the name of an existing structure. No more than one :include option may be specified in a defstruct form.
If the :type option is specified for the new structure, the included structure must have been declared with the same type. If the :type option is not specified for the new structure, then it must not have been specified for the included structure. If the :type option is not specified, the structure name of the new structure becomes a data type name that is recognized by typep. In addition, the new type will be a subtype of the included structure.

If it is desirable to override the default values or the slot options for the slots corresponding to those of the included structure, this can be done by specifying slot descriptions with the :include option. Each such slot description must bear the slot name or slot keyword of some slot of the included structure. If such a slot description has an accompanying initform argument, it overrides the initialization form of the included structure. If no initform argument is specified, the initial value of the slot is undefined in the new structure. A slot that is writable in the included structure may be made read-only in the new structure. A read-only slot of the included structure may not, however, be made writable. A type may be specified for a slot if and only if it is the same as, or a subtype of, the type specified in the included structure.
- The :initial-offset option is used in conjunction with the :type option. The argument to :initial-offset must be a nonnegative integer. It specifies that a certain number of slots in the representation of the structure are to be skipped before allocating the component slots.
If the :named option is also specified, the slots skipped occur after the slot used by the :named option. If the :include option is also specified, the number of slots required by the included structure are skipped; then those specified by the :initial-offset argument are skipped. The following slots are then allocated to the including structure.
- The :named option specifies that the structure is named. If the :type option is not specified, the structure is always named; the structure name is part of the data type system and is therefore recognized by typep. In this case, the function type-of, when applied to an instance of this structure, returns the structure name.

If the :type option is specified, the structure is not named unless the :named option is given. If the :named option is given, the first slot in the representation of the structure contains the structure name, so it will be possible to obtain the structure name from an instance of the structure. The structure name, however, will not be part of the data type system. It will not be recognized by typep, and type-of will return the type specifier for the structure.

If the :type option is specified and the structure is not named, the structure name is not part of the data type system. It will not be recognized by typep, and type-of will return the type specifier for the structure.
- The :predicate option controls the naming of the type predicate. If the argument is defaulted, the predicate name is formed by adding the suffix -p to the name of the structure. The predicate name is entered into the package that is current at the time the defstruct macro is processed. Note that a predicate function can only be defined if the structure is named. If the argument to :predicate is specified as nil, no predicate function is defined. If the :type option is specified but the :named option is not, :predicate must be either unspecified or nil, and no predicate is defined.
- The :print-function option controls the printing of the structure. The argument to the print function is a function of three arguments that may be used with the function special form. The arguments correspond to the structure to be printed, the stream to which output is to be sent, and an integer indicating the current print level depth. The print function is expected to observe the values of the printer control variables. The :print-function option may only be specified if the :type option is not.

Pretty-printing is not possible with a user-defined print function that calls the Common Lisp functions write, prin1, print, pprint, princ, write-to-string, prin1-to-string, or princ-to-string. These functions write the printed representation of Lisp objects to an output stream. Pretty-printing is possible with a user-defined print function that calls such Common Lisp functions as write-char or write-string.

If neither the :print-function option nor the :type option is specified, the structure will be printed using the \#S syntax. The *print-structure* variable of Sun Common Lisp provides the ability to print structures in a terse format rather than in the standard \#S notation. If *print-structure* is set to nil, all structures are printed in this terse format. Structures printed in the terse format cannot be read back in by the Lisp reader.
- The :type option controls the representation of the structure. If this option is specified, the structure name will not be a type specifier recognized by typep. Components of the structure are stored in successive elements of the representation in the order of their specification in the defstruct form. The argument to :type must be one of the following:
- If the argument to :type is specified as vector, the structure is represented as a simple general vector, and components are stored as successive vector elements. If the :named option is specified, the first component of the structure occurs as the second vector element (at offset 1 from the start of the vector); otherwise it is the first.
- If the argument to :type is specified as (vector element-type), the structure is represented as a vector, and components are stored as successive vector elements. If the :named option is specified, the first component of the structure occurs as the second vector element (at offset 1 from the start of the vector); otherwise it is the first. All components must be of a type compatible with element-type. The :named option may be specified only if a symbol may be stored in a vector of this type.
- If the argument to :type is specified as list, the structure is represented as a list. If the :named option is specified, the first component of the structure occurs as the second element of the list; otherwise it is the first element.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

The defstruct macro is used to define a structure.

\section*{defstruct}

\section*{defstruct}

Purpose: The defstruct macro allows the user to create and manipulate structured data types with named components. The name of the new data type is returned as a result.

Syntax: defstruct name-and-options [documentation] \{slot-description\}* \({ }^{*}\) [Macro]
Remarks: See the discussion on the use of the defstruct macro in the section "About Structures." The complete syntax for defstruct is shown in Figure 19-1.
```

Examples: ;;;
;;; Example 1
;;; define town structure type
;;; area, watertowers, firetrucks, population, elevation are its components
;;;
> (defstruct town
area
watertowers
(firetrucks 1 :type fixnum) ;an initialized attribute
population
(elevation 5128 :read-only t)) ;an attribute that can't
;be changed
TOWN
> (setq town1 (make-town :area 0 :watertowers 0))
;create a town instance
\#S(TOWN AREA O WATERTOWERS O FIRETRUCKS 1 POPULATION NIL ELEVATION 5128)
> (town-p town1) ;town's predicate recognizes
;the new instance
T
> (town-area town1) ;new town's area is as
;specified by make-town
O
> (town-elevation town1) ;new town's elevation has
;initial value
5128
> (setf (town-population town1) 99) ;setf recognizes access
;function
99
>(town-population town1)
99

```
```

> (setq town2 (copy-town town1)) ;copier function makes
;a copy of town1
\#S(TOWN AREA O WATERTOWERS O FIRETRUCKS 1 POPULATION 99 ELEVATION 5128)
> (= (town-population town1) (town-population town2))
T
> (setq town3 (make-town :area 0 :watertowers 3 :elevation 1200))
\#S(TOWN AREA O WATERTOWERS 3 FIRETRUCKS 1 POPULATION NIL ELEVATION 1200)
; since elevation is a
;read-only slot, its
;value can be set only
;when the structure is
;created
;;;
;;; Example 2
;;; define clown structure type
;;; this structure uses a nonstandard access prefix
;;;
> (defstruct (clown (:conc-name bozo-))
(nose-color 'red)
frizzy-hair-p polkadots)
CLOWN
> (setq funny-clown (make-clown))
\#S(CLOWN NOSE-COLOR RED FRIZZY-HAIR-P NIL POLKADOTS NIL)
> (bozo-nose-color funny-clown) ;use nonstandard accessor
;name
RED
> (defstruct (clown (:constructor make-up-clown) ;redefine using other
(:copier clone-clown)
;customizing keywords
(:predicate is-a-bozo-p))
nose-color frizzy-hair-p polkadots)
CLOWN
> (fboundp 'make-up-clown) ;custom constructor now
;exists
T
;;;
;;; Example 3
;;; define a vehicle structure type
;;; then define a truck structure type that includes
;;; the vehicle structure
;;;
> (defstruct vehicle name year (diesel t :read-only t))
VEHICLE
> (defstruct (truck (:include vehicle (year 79)))
load-limit
(axles 6))
TRUCK

```
```

>(setq x (make-truck :name 'mac :diesel t :load-limit 17))
\#S(TRUCK NAME MAC YEAR }79\mathrm{ DIESEL T LOAD-LIMIT 17 AXLES 6)
> (vehicle-name x) ;vehicle accessors work
;on trucks
MAC
> (vehicle-year x) ;default taken from :include
;clause
79
> (defstruct (pickup (:include truck)) ;pickup type includes truck
camper long-bed four-wheel-drive)
PICKUP
> (setq x (make-pickup :name 'king :long-bed t))
\#S(PICKUP NAME KING YEAR 79 DIESEL T LOAD-LIMIT NIL AXLES 6 CAMPER NIL
LONG-BED T FOUR-WHEEL-DRIVE NIL)
> (pickup-year x) ;:include default inherited
79
;;;
; ; : Example 4
;;; use of BOA constructors
;:;
> (defstruct (dfs-boa ;BOA constructors
(:constructor make-dfs-boa (a b c))
(:constructor create-dfs-boa
(a \&optional b (c 'cc) <rest d \&aux e (f 'ff))))
a b c def)
DFS-BOA
> (setq x (make-dfs-boa 1 2 3))
\#S(DFS-BOA A 1 B 2 C 3 D NIL E NIL F NIL)
> (dfs-boa-a x)
1
> (setq x (create-dfs-boa 1 2)) ;a and b set, c and f defaulted
\#S(DFS-BOA A 1 B 2 C CC D NIL E NIL F FF)
> (dfs-boa-b x)
2
> (eq (dfs-boa-c x) 'cc)
T
>(setq x (create-dfs-boa 1 2 3 4 5 6)) ;a,b, and c set, and the rest
;are collected into d
\#S(DFS-BOA A 1 B 2 C 3 D (4 5 6) E NIL F FF)
> (dfs-boa-d x)
(4 5 6)

```

Chapter 20. Streams

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\section*{About Streams}

Streams are Common Lisp objects from which data can be read and to which data can be sent. The operations that can be performed on a stream depend on what type of stream it is. A stream may be input-only, output-only, or bidirectional. It may be a character stream or a binary stream.
There are several stream-value variables that are used by default by many Common Lisp system functions. These are known as standard streams. The variables *standardinput*, *standard-output*, *debug-io*, *error-io*, *query-io*, *terminal-io*, and *trace-output* specify standard streams. A synonym stream associates a symbol with a stream. Any operation performed on the synonym stream is performed on the stream to which this symbol is bound. The streams *standard-input*, *standard-output*, *debug-io*, *error-io*, *query-io*, and *trace-output* are all initially synonym streams of *terminal-io*.

The use of streams is closely connected to the file system. Streams may also be created through the file system constructs for opening files.

The interaction between streams and the file system is discussed in the chapter "File System Interface." The chapter "Input/Output" discusses the use of streams in the context of the input/output system.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

This section groups operations on streams according to functionality.

\section*{Data Type Predicates}
```

streamp

```

This predicate determines whether an object is a stream.

\section*{Standard Streams}
```

*debug-io* *standard-output*
*error-output* *terminal-io*
*query-io* *trace-output*
*standard-input*

```

These variables specify standard streams.

\section*{Stream Predicates}
input-stream-p output-stream-p

These predicates test properties of streams.

\section*{Creating New Streams}
```

make-broadcast-stream
make-concatenated-stream
make-echo-stream
make-string-input-stream
make-string-output-stream make-synonym-stream make-two-way-stream make-string-input-stream

```

These functions create new streams. File system constructs for opening files may also be used to create streams.

\section*{General Operations on Streams}
```

close stream-element-type

```

These functions provide operations that are common to all streams. More specific stream operations are also provided by the file system and the input/output system.

\section*{Operations on Stream Data}
```

get-output-stream-string with-open-stream
with-input-from-string
with-output-to-string

```

These functions provide operations on stream data.

\section*{close}

Purpose: The function close closes its stream argument. Closing a stream means that it may no longer be used in input or output operations.

Syntax: close stream kkey :abort [Function]
Remarks: Even if a stream is closed, it is still possible to perform query operations upon it.
An abnormal termination of the use of the stream may be indicated by specifying a non-nil value for the :abort argument. In this case the system tries to undo any side effects that resulted from the creation of the stream.

Examples: > (setq s (make-broadcast-stream)) \#<Stream COMPOSITE-STREAM 101DB3BB>
> (close s)
NIL
> (output-stream-p s)
T

See Also: open

\section*{*debug-io*}

Purpose: The value of the variable *debug-io* is a bidirectional stream that is to be used for interactive debugging.

Syntax: *debug-io*
[Variable]
Remarks: Frequently *debug-io* is bound to the same stream as *query-io*.
Care should be exercised when redirecting *debug-io*, since it is the stream used for handling errors.

\section*{*error-output*}

Purpose: The value of the variable *error-output* is an output stream that is to be used for error messages.

Syntax: *error-output* [Variable]
Remarks: Frequently *error-output* is bound to the same stream as *standard-output*.
```

Examples: > (with-output-to-string(out)
(let ((*error-output* out))
(warn "this string is sent to *error-output*")))
";;; Warning: this string is sent to *error-output*
"

```

\section*{get-output-stream-string}

Purpose: The function get-output-stream-string operates on a stream produced by make-string-output-stream. It returns a string containing all the characters sent to that stream since the last time get-output-stream-string was called on it. The string output stream is reset after each call.

Syntax:
get-output-stream-string string-output-stream
[Function]
Examples: > (setq a-stream (make-string-output-stream)
a-string "abcdefghijklm")
"abcdefghijklm"
> (write-string a-string a-stream)
"abcdefghijklm"
> (get-output-stream-string a-stream)
"abcdefghijklm"
> (get-output-stream-string a-stream)
""

See Also: make-string-output-stream

\section*{input-stream-p}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The predicate input-stream-p is true if its input operations; otherwise it is false. & sed for \\
\hline Syntax: & input-stream-p stream & [Function] \\
\hline Examples: & ```
> (input-stream-p *standard-input*)
T
> (input-stream-p (make-broadcast-stream))
NIL
``` & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{make-broadcast-stream}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & \begin{tabular}{l}
The function make-broadcast-stream creates and returns an output stream. \\
Any output that is sent to this stream is sent to all of the argument streams. The result that is returned by performing any operation on new broadcast stream is the result returned by performing it on the last of the argument streams.
\end{tabular} \\
\hline Syntax: & make-broadcast-stream \&rest streams [Function] \\
\hline Remarks: & Only those operations that may be performed on all of the argument streams may be performed on the broadcast stream. \\
\hline & If no argument streams are specified, all output is discarded. \\
\hline \multirow[t]{8}{*}{Examples:} & ```
> (setq a-stream (make-string-output-stream)
        b-stream (make-string-output-stream))
``` \\
\hline & \#<Stream STRING-STREAM 101DC8B3> \\
\hline & ```
> (format (make-broadcast-stream a-stream b-stream)
    "this will go to both streams")
``` \\
\hline & NIL \\
\hline & > (get-output-stream-string a-stream) \\
\hline & "this will go to both streams" \\
\hline & > (get-output-stream-string b-stream) \\
\hline & "this will go to both streams" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{make-concatenated-stream}

Purpose: The function make-concatenated-stream creates and returns an input stream. Input is taken from each argument stream in turn until an end-of-file is reached on that stream.

Syntax: make-concatenated-stream krest streams [Function]
Remarks: If no argument streams are specified, the result is an empty stream. Any attempt to read input from such a stream results in an end-of-file condition.

Examples: > (read (make-concatenated-stream
(make-string-input-stream "1")
(make-string-input-stream "2")))
12

\section*{make-echo-stream}

Purpose: The function make-echo-stream creates and returns a bidirectional stream. This stream takes its input from input-stream and sends its output to output-stream. Any input that is taken from input-stream is echoed to output-stream.


\section*{make-string-input-stream}

Purpose: The function make-string-input-stream creates and returns an input stream. This stream supplies the characters in the string argument in the order in which they occur in the string. The characters supplied may be restricted to those contained in a substring of the string argument by specifying the start and end arguments.

Syntax: make-string-input-stream string \&optional start end [Function]
Remarks: The start and end arguments take integer values that specify offsets into the original strings. The start argument marks the beginning position of the substring; the end argument marks the position following the last element of the substring. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the string.

Examples: > (read (make-string-input-stream "prefixtargetsuffix" 6 12)) target

See Also: with-input-from-string

\section*{make-string-output-stream}

Purpose: The function make-string-output-stream creates and returns an output stream. This stream accumulates the output sent to it for use by the function get-output-stream-string.

The optional string argument may be used to specify a string from which the output stream is to be built. If the optional string is supplied, it must be a string with a fill pointer. The output is directed to the point indicated by the fill pointer, which is increased incrementally.

Syntax: make-string-output-stream \&optional string
[Function]
Remarks: The optional string argument is an extension to Common Lisp.
Examples: > (setq s (make-string-output-stream))
\#<Stream STRING-STREAM 101DCA43>
> (formats "output \(1 \%\) ")
NIL
> (format s "output \(2 \%\) ")
NIL
> (get-output-stream-string s)
"output 1 output 2
"
See Also: get-output-stream-string with-output-to-string

\section*{make-synonym-stream}

Purpose: The function make-synonym-stream creates and returns a synonym stream. Any operations performed on this stream are performed on the stream that is currently the value of the variable named by symbol.

Syntax: make-synonym-stream symbol
[Function]
Remarks: If the variable symbol is rebound, any stream operations are performed on the stream to which it is rebound.
```

Examples: > (setq a-stream (make-string-input-stream "a-stream") ;implemented
b-stream (make-string-input-stream "b-stream")) ;internally as
\#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101DDOOB> ;buffered streams
> (setq s-stream (make-synonym-stream 'c-stream))
\#<Stream SYNONYM-%STREAM 101DD1FB>
> (setq c-stream a-stream)
\#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101DCE73>
> (read s-stream)
A-STREAM
> (setq c-stream b-stream)
\#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101DDOOB>
> (read s-stream)
B-STREAM

```

\section*{make-two-way-stream}

Purpose: The function make-two-way-stream creates and returns a bidirectional stream that takes its input from input-stream and sends its output to output-stream.

Syntax: make-two-way-stream input-stream output-stream [Function]
Examples: > (with-output-to-string (out)
(with-input-from-string (in "input...")
(let ((two (make-two-way-stream in out)))
(format two "output...")
(setq what-is-read (read two)))))
"output..."
> what-is-read INPUT...

\section*{output-stream-p}

Purpose: The predicate output-stream-p is true if its stream argument may be used for output operations; otherwise it is false.
```

Syntax: output-stream-p stream [Function]
Examples: > (output-stream-p *terminal-io*)
T
> (output-stream-p (make-concatenated-stream))
NIL

```

\section*{*query-io*}

Purpose: The value of the variable *query-io* is a bidirectional stream that is to be used to ask the user questions and to receive his answers.

Syntax: *query-io* [Variable]

\section*{See Also: y-or-n-p \\ yes-or-no-p}

\section*{*standard-input*}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Purpose: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The value of the variable *standard-input* is a stream that is to be used for \\
input. Many system functions use this stream as a default for input operations.
\end{tabular} \\
Syntax: & *standard-input* \\
[Variable] \\
Examples: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
(with-input-from-string (*standard-input* " \(1001 ")\) \\
\\
\\
\\
\\
(+990 (read)))
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}

\section*{*standard-output*}

Purpose: The value of the variable *standard-output* is a stream that is to be used for output. Many system functions use this stream as a default for output operations.
```

Syntax: *standard-output* [Variable]
Examples: > (progn (setq out (with-output-to-string (*standard-output*)
(print "print and format t send things to")
(format t "*standard-output* now going to a string")))
(values))
> out
"
\"print and format t send things to\" *standard-output* now going to a
string"

```
stream-element-type
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The function stream-element-type returns a type s kinds of objects that may be read from or sent to the & ates the \\
\hline Syntax: & stream-element-type stream & [Function] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{10}{*}{Examples:} & > (stream-element-type *debug-io*) & \\
\hline & STRING-CHAR & \\
\hline & > (stream-element-type (make-concatenated-stream)) & \\
\hline & & \\
\hline & > (setq s (open "tempfile.temp" & \\
\hline & :element-type 'bit & \\
\hline & :if-does-not-exist :create)) & \\
\hline & \#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101DD62B> & \\
\hline & > (stream-element-type s) & \\
\hline & (INTEGER 0 1) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{streamp}

Purpose: The predicate streamp is true if its argument is a stream; otherwise it is false.
\begin{tabular}{llc} 
Syntax: & streamp object & [Function] \\
Examples: & \(>\) (streamp *terminal-io*) & \\
& (INTERACTION-STREAM) & \\
& \(>\) (streamp 1) \\
& NIL
\end{tabular}

\section*{*terminal-io*}

Purpose: The value of the variable *terminal-io* is a bidirectional stream that is normally connected to the keyboard and display of the user's terminal.

Syntax: *terminal-io* [Variable]
Remarks: The streams *standard-input*,*standard-output*, *debug-io*, *errorio*, *query-io*, and *trace-output* are all initialiy synonym streams of *terminal-io*.

Examples: > (progn (setq out (with-output-to-string (*terminal-io*)
(format \(t\) "you won't see")
(print "any of this")
(warn "until you")
(format *standard-output* "evaluate the string")
(format *query-io* " named out")))
(values))
> out
"you won't see
\"any of this\"
;;; Warning: until you
evaluate the string named out"
*trace-output*


\section*{with-input-from-string}

Purpose: The with-input-from-string macro provides a construct that creates a character input stream, performs a series of operations on it, returns a value, and then closes the stream.

The string argument is evaluated first, and the variable var is bound to a character input stream that supplies characters from the resulting string. The form arguments are executed in order. The results of evaluating the last form are returned as the value of executing the with-input-from-string macro. The stream is automatically closed on exit from with-input-from-string.

Syntax: with-input-from-string (var string \{keyword value \(\}^{*}\) ) [Macro]
\(\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
Remarks: The :index, :start, and :end keyword arguments may be used with with-input-from-string.
The :index argument must specify a generalized variable acceptable to the macro setf. If the with-input-from-string macro terminates normally, this location is updated to contain the index value that indicates the first character not read in the string.

If the :start and :end keyword arguments are specified, only the substring they delimit is involved in the operation. The :start and :end keyword arguments take integer values that specify offsets into the original string. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the string; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the string. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the string.

Examples:
```

> (with-input-from-string (s "XXX1 2 3 4xxx"
:index ind
:start 3 :end 10)
(+ (read s) (read s) (read s)))
6
> ind
9

```

See Also: make-string-input-stream
with-open-stream

Purpose: The with-open-stream macro provides a construct that takes a stream, performs a series of operations on it, returns a value, and then closes the stream.

The stream argument is evaluated, and the variable var is bound to the resulting stream. The form arguments are executed in order. The results of evaluating the last form are returned as the result of executing the with-open-stream macro. The stream is automatically closed on exit from with-open-stream, even if the exit is abnormal.

Syntax: with-open-stream (var stream) \(\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\left\{\right.\) form \(^{*}{ }^{*} \quad\) [Macro]
Examples: > (with-open-stream (s (make-string-input-stream "1 23 4")) (+ (read s) (read s) (read s)))
6
See Also: close

\section*{with-output-to-string}

Purpose: The with-output-to-string macro provides a construct that creates a character output stream, performs a series of operations that may send results to this stream, and then closes the stream.

The variable var is bound to a character output stream, and the output to this stream is saved in a string. The optional string argument may be used to specify a string from which the output stream is to be built. If the string argument is specified, it must be a string with a fill pointer. The stream output is then directed to the point indicated by the fill pointer, which is increased incrementally.

The form arguments are executed in order.
If no string argument is specified, with-output-to-string returns a string containing all of the accumulated stream output.

If a string argument was provided, with-output-to-string returns as its value the results of evaluating the last form argument.
The stream is automatically closed on exit from the with-output-to-string macro.

Syntax: with-output-to-string (var [string]) \{declaration \(\}^{*}\left\{\right.\) form \(^{*} \quad\) [Macro]
Remarks: If the specified string is adjustable, the appending of characters occurs as if vector-push-extend were used; if it is not adjustable, the effect is the same as if vector-push were used.

Examples: > (setq fstr (make-array ' 0 ) :element-type 'string-char
:fill-pointer 0
:adjustable t))
""
> (with-output-to-string (s fstr)
(format s "here's some output")
(input-stream-p s))
NIL
> fstr
"here's some output"
See Also: make-string-output-stream
vector-push
vector-push-extend

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\section*{About Input/Output}

All input/output ( \(\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{O}\) ) in Common Lisp is performed with streams. Although binary input and output streams are available, most \(I / O\) is done with character streams.
The principal I/O operations read and write the printed representations of arbitrary Lisp objects. The format function performs complex formatting of output data.
This chapter presents the operations and constructs for I/O and tables of standard character syntax types, standard constituent character attributes, and standard \# dispatching macro character syntax. It also includes a complete description and summary of the use of the format facility.

\section*{The Printed Representation of Common Lisp Objects}

Common Lisp provides a printed representation for all objects. Such a representation is a text sequence that identifies the object. An object may have more than one printed representation: an integer, for instance, may have a different representation for each possible numeric base.

Output functions such as write transmit the characters of an object's printed representation to an output stream, and input functions such as read receive characters from an input stream and build the object that is specified by the printed representation.
Each Common Lisp data type has its own printed representation. Within most printed representations, variations are specified by the values of certain global variables. These variables are *print-escape*, *print-radix*, *print-base*, *print-circle*, *print-pretty*, *print-level*, *print-length*, *print-case*, *print-gensym*, *print-array*, and *print-structure*.
Some of these variations cause abbreviated representations to be printed. Hence, not all printed representations can be read back in. The reading of printed representations is discussed in the section "Reading the Representations of Lisp Objects."

The printed representations of certain objects may be very obvious (those of integers, for instance), but even those objects that have no obvious printed forms have printed representations in Common Lisp. For more complex data types, such as arrays or structures, the number-sign character (\#) begins a special printed representation in which the character following the \# indicates the data type and the following characters describe the specific object.
The printed representations for the different data types are described below. If an object has a specific data type that is a subtype of a more general data type, the object is printed as the more specific type.

\section*{Integers}

An integer is printed as a sequence of digits in the base specified by the variable *printbase*. If the integer is negative, the sequence of digits is preceded by a minus sign. If the variable *print-radix* is non-nil, a radix indicator is also printed. For the decimal base, the radix indicator is a decimal point following the number. For other bases, the radix indicator is one of the following forms preceding the number: \#o (octal), \#x (hexadecimal), \#b (binary), or \#nr (other base \(n\), which is printed in decimal).

\section*{Ratios}

Ratios are always printed in lowest reduced form, as the numerator, a slash (/), and then the denominator. No spaces are included. In a negative ratio, the numerator is preceded by a minus sign. The numerator and denominator are printed in the base specified by *print-base*. In addition, if *print-radix* is non-nil, the ratio begins with a radix indicator. The radix indicator is one of the following: \#10r (decimal), \#o (octal), \#x (hexadecimal), \#b (binary), or \#nr (other base \(n\), which is printed in decimal). Note that ratios are never printed with the decimal radix indicator used for integers, which is a trailing decimal point.

\section*{Floating-Point Numbers}

Floating-point numbers are printed as one or more digits on each side of a decimal point, sometimes followed by an exponent. If the number is negative, it is preceded by a minus sign.
If the magnitude of a floating-point number is zero or is greater than or equal to \(10^{-3}\) and less than \(10^{7}\), it is printed as the integer part (one to seven digits), a decimal point, and then the fractional part (one to three digits).
Nonzero magnitudes less than \(10^{-3}\) and greater than or equal to \(10^{7}\) are printed as numbers between 1 (inclusive) and 10 (exclusive) times a power of ten. One digit is printed, then a decimal point, a fractional part of one or more digits, the exponent marker E , and finally the power of ten as a decimal integer.

\section*{Complex Numbers}

A complex number is printed as \#C( \(r i)\), where \(r\) is the printed representation of the number's real part and \(i\) is the printed representation of the number's imaginary part.

\section*{Characters}

If *print-escape* is non-nil, a character is printed as \# \(\backslash\) followed by the character, if it is a printing character, or by the name of the character, if not. If *print-escape* is nil, a character is printed as itself.

\section*{Symbols}

If *print-escape* is non-nil, a symbol is printed as its print name along with any character quoting or name qualification necessary to identify the symbol uniquely. This may include backslashes ( \()\) ), vertical bars (I), a colon (:) (for keywords), a package name and one or two colons (:), or a leading \#: (for uninterned symbols). The use of these quoting and qualifying characters when *print-escape* is non-nil is described in the paragraphs that follow.
If the print name could be interpreted as a potential number, backslashes or vertical bars are included to prevent such an interpretation. In this determination, it is assumed that the text would be read back in with *read-base* set to the value that *print-base* has at the time of printing.

If the symbol is in the keyword package, it is printed with a leading colon. If the symbol is not accessible in the current package, it is printed with a leading package name and one or two colons, however many are needed to identify the symbol.
A leading \#: is printed if the symbol is uninterned.
A symbol is printed as just its print name if *print-escape* is nil.
In either of the cases described, lowercase letters in the print name are always printed in lowercase, but the case in which uppercase letters are printed is controlled by the global variable *print-case*. The possible values for *print-case* are :upcase, :downcase, and :capitalize.

\section*{Lists}

A true list is printed as follows: first a left parenthesis, then the elements of the list in order, and finally a right parenthesis. The list elements are separated by white space (space, tab, carriage-return, or newline characters).

A dotted list is printed as follows: first a left parenthesis, then the car of the list, a dot, the cdr of the list, and finally a right parenthesis. The dot is separated from the car and the cdr of the list by white space.

Conses are printed with list notation rather than dot notation whenever possible. The global variables *print-level* and *print-length* can be used to limit the depth of printing and the number of consecutive items printed at a single level.

\section*{Arrays}

If *print-array* is non-nil, an array is printed with the \#nA(...) syntax. In this case, the output starts with \#nA, where \(n\) is the number of dimensions of the array, and then the contents of the array are printed in row-major order with parentheses indicating the structure of the array. The length of the top-level list printed is the size of the first dimension, and the lengths of the subsequent deeper levels are the sizes of the second dimension, the third dimension, and so on.

If the array has elements that are either bits or string characters, the deepest level printed may take the form of a bit vector or string.

The global variables *print-level* and *print-length* can be used to limit the depth of printing and the number of consecutive items printed at a single level.

If *print-array* is nil, an array is printed with the \#<...> syntax, which identifies the array without listing the values of its elements.

\section*{Vectors}

If *print-array* is non-nil, a vector is printed as \#( and ) enclosing the elements of the vector, which are separated by white space. For a vector with a fill pointer, only those elements before the fill pointer are printed. The global variables *print-level* and *print-length* can be used to limit the depth of printing and the number of consecutive items printed at a single level.

If *print-array* is nil, a vector is printed with the \#<...> syntax, which identifies the vector without listing the values of its elements.

\section*{Bit Vectors}

If *print-array * is non-nil, a printed bit vector consists of \#*, followed by the bits in the bit vector. For a bit vector with a fill pointer, only those bits before the fill pointer are printed.

If *print-array* is nil, a bit vector is printed with the \#<...> syntax, which identifies the bit vector without listing the values of its bits.

\section*{Strings}

If *print-escape* is non-nil, the string is preceded and followed by a double quote ("). Any double-quote or single escape character in the string is preceded by a backslash ( \(\backslash\) ).

If *print-escape* is nil, a string is printed as just the sequence of characters that it contains.

A string with a fill pointer is printed only up to the fill pointer.

\section*{Structures}

The user can completely control the format in which a structure is printed by using the defstruct option :print-function to specify a function to be called when the structure is to be printed. If this option is not used, a default printing function is supplied that prints the structure as \#S(name slot1 value1 slot2 value2 ...), where name is the name of the structure, slotj is the name of one of the structure's slots, and valuej is the corresponding value. The global variables *print-level* and *print-length* can be used to limit the depth of printing and the number of consecutive items printed at a single level.

If the global variable *print-structure* is nil, the default printing function prints a structure with the \#<...> syntax, which identifies the structure without listing the values of its elements. The variable *print-structure* is an extension to Common Lisp.

\section*{Pathnames}

A printed pathname consists of \#P followed immediately by the pathname enclosed in double quotes.

\section*{Random States}

An object of type random state is printed as a structure with the \#S syntax. The global variables *print-level* and *print-length* can be used to limit the depth of printing and the number of consecutive items printed at a single level.

\section*{Other Data Types}

Data types that do not have a syntax in which they can be printed and subsequently read back in are printed with the \#<. . .> syntax. The \#<...> syntax describes the data type and may give some indication of the particular instance (such as a memory address where it appears). The \#<...> syntax does not allow the object to be read back in. An object that is a hash table, a readtable, a package, a stream, or a function is printed with the \#<...> syntax.

\section*{Reading the Representations of Common Lisp Objects}

The reader is the part of the Common Lisp system that reads characters in, interprets them as the printed representations of individual objects, and constructs and returns those objects. An object may be made up of various parts, such as numbers, symbol names, form indicators like parentheses, and other special characters. The object is constructed from the input text by interpreting each character according to its syntax type.

\section*{Character Syntax Types and Readtables}

The syntax type of a character determines how that character is interpreted by the reader. For instance, it indicates whether the character can appear in a symbol name or whether it can appear in a number. Every character has at any given time exactly one syntax type.

It is possible to change a single character's syntax type or the entire collection of syntax types for all characters. The association between characters and syntax types is maintained in a data object known as a readtable. The user can create several readtables and switch between them as needed to alter the input syntax. Common Lisp defines a standard syntax for the interpretation of characters. This syntax is embodied in the readtable that is current when Common Lisp is started up. This standard syntax is discussed below.
The possible character syntax types are constituent, whitespace, macro, single escape, multiple escape, and illegal. Figure 21-1 lists the default syntax type of each character.
- Constituent characters are those characters used in tokens. A token is a number or a symbol name. Examples of constituent characters are letters and digits.
A constituent character has one or more attributes that define how the character can be interpreted by the reader. These are alphabetic, digit, package marker, plus sign, minus sign, dot, decimal point, ratio marker, floating-point exponent marker, and illegal. Figure 21-2 shows the standard attributes for constituent characters. Any character with the alphadigit attribute in that figure is considered a digit if *read-base* is greater than that character's digit value; otherwise the character is alphabetic. Alphabetic constituents are those characters that can appear in a symbol name. Note that any character quoted with a preceding single escape character is treated as an alphabetic constituent, regardless of its normal syntax. In particular, constituent characters with the illegal attribute must be quoted in order to appear in a token.
Normally, lowercase letters in symbol names are converted to their uppercase equivalents when the name is read. This conversion can be inhibited by the use of single or multiple escape characters, as explained below.
- Whitespace characters are used to separate tokens. The space and newline characters are examples of whitespace characters.
- A macro character triggers special parsing of subsequent input characters. When a macro character is encountered by the reader, the special function assigned to that macro character is called. This function generally parses one specially formatted object from the input stream and returns the constructed object. The macro character function may also return no values to indicate that the characters scanned by the function are being ignored (as in the case of a comment). Examples of macro characters in the standard Common Lisp syntax are the backquote and single quote characters • and ' and the parenthesis characters ( and ).

A macro character is either terminating or nonterminating. The difference between terminating and nonterminating macro characters lies in what happens when such characters occur in the middle of a token. In such a location, the function associated with the nonterminating macro character is not called, and the nonterminating macro character does not terminate the token's name; it becomes part of the name as if the macro character were really a constituent character. A terminating macro character, however, terminates any token, and the macro character's function is called no matter where the character appears. The only nonterminating macro character in the standard syntax is the number-sign character \#.
Macro characters are discussed in greater detail in the section "Standard Macro Characters."
- A single escape character is used to quote the next character so that it is treated as a constituent character of alphabetic attribute no matter what the character is or which attributes it has. Furthermore, the normal conversion of lowercase letters to uppercase letters in symbol names is prevented for the quoted character. Thus, a single escape character can be used to include any character in a symbol name. In the standard Common Lisp syntax, the backslash character \is a single escape character.
- A pair of multiple escape characters is used to quote an enclosed sequence of characters, including possible macro and whitespace characters, so that they are treated as constituent characters of alphabetic attribute with letter case preserved. Any single and multiple escape characters that are to appear in the sequence must be quoted with a single escape character. Note that a symbol name is not delimited by the multiple escape character; the symbol name can continue past a multiple escape character. In the standard Common Lisp syntax, the vertical bar character \(\mid\) is a multiple escape character. Thus, the symbol parsed from \(\mathrm{a}|\mathrm{B}| \mathrm{c}\) is the same as that parsed from \(A B C\) or abc or \(|A B C|\), but it is not the same as that parsed from \(|a b c|\).
- If an illegal character is encountered while a Lisp object is being read, an error is signaled. However, if an illegal character is quoted with a preceding single escape character, it is treated as an alphabetic constituent instead.

\section*{Table of Standard Character Syntax Types}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline character & syntax type & character & syntax type \\
\hline Backspace & constituent & 0-9 & constituent \\
\hline Tab & whitespace & : & constituent \\
\hline Newline & whitespace & ; & terminating macro \\
\hline Linefeed & whitespace & \(<\) & constituent \\
\hline Page & whitespace & \(=\) & constituent \\
\hline Return & whitespace & > & constituent \\
\hline Space & whitespace & ? & constituent* \\
\hline 1 & constituent* & @ & constituent \\
\hline " & terminating macro & A-Z & constituent \\
\hline \# & nonterminating macro & & constituent* \\
\hline \$ & constituent & 1 & single escape \\
\hline \% & constituent & , & constituent* \\
\hline \& & constituent & - & constituent \\
\hline , & terminating macro & - & constituent \\
\hline ( & terminating macro & & terminating macro \\
\hline ) & terminating macro & a-z & constituent \\
\hline * & constituent & \{ & constituent* \\
\hline + & constituent & 1 & multiple escape \\
\hline , & terminating macro & \} & constituent* \\
\hline - & constituent & - & constituent \\
\hline & constituent & Rubout & constituent \\
\hline / & constituent & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Figure 21-1. Standard Character Syntax Types}
* The characters !, ?, [, ], \{, and \} are constituents by default but are reserved for the user. They will never be used in the names of functions and variables defined by Common Lisp.

\section*{Table of Standard Constituent Character Attributes}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline constituent character & attributes & constituent character & attributes \\
\hline Backspace & illegal & \{ & alphabetic \\
\hline Tab & illegal* & \(\}\) & alphabetic \\
\hline Newline & illegal* & + & alphabetic, plus sign \\
\hline Linefeed & illegal* & - & alphabetic, minus sign \\
\hline Page & illegal* & & alphabetic, dot, decimal point \\
\hline Return & illegal* & / & alphabetic, ratio marker \\
\hline Space & illegal* & A, a & alphadigit \\
\hline ! & alphabetic & B, b & alphadigit \\
\hline " & alphabetic* & C, c & alphadigit \\
\hline \# & alphabetic* & D, d & alphadigit, double-float exponent marker \\
\hline \$ & alphabetic & E, e & alphadigit, float exponent marker \\
\hline \% & alphabetic & F, f & alphadigit, single-float exponent marker \\
\hline \& & alphabetic & G, g & alphadigit \\
\hline , & alphabetic* & H, h & alphadigit \\
\hline ( & alphabetic* & I, i & alphadigit \\
\hline ) & alphabetic* & J, j & alphadigit \\
\hline * & alphabetic & K, k & alphadigit \\
\hline & alphabetic* & L, I & alphadigit, long-float exponent marker \\
\hline 0-9 & alphadigit & M, m & alphadigit \\
\hline : & package marker & N, n & alphadigit \\
\hline ; & alphabetic* & O, o & alphadigit \\
\hline < & alphabetic & P, p & alphadigit \\
\hline = & alphabetic & Q, \(\mathbf{q}\) & alphadigit \\
\hline > & alphabetic & R, r & alphadigit \\
\hline ? & alphabetic & S, s & alphadigit, short-float exponent marker \\
\hline @ & alphabetic & T, t & alphadigit \\
\hline [ & alphabetic & U, u & alphadigit \\
\hline 1 & alphabetic* & V, v & alphadigit \\
\hline ] & alphabetic & W, w & alphadigit \\
\hline - & alphabetic & \(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{x}\) & alphadigit \\
\hline - & alphabetic & Y, y & alphadigit \\
\hline ‘ & alphabetic* & Z, z & alphadigit \\
\hline 1 & alphabetic* & Rubout & illegal \\
\hline - & alphabetic & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 21-2. Standard Constituent Character Attributes
* Characters marked by asterisks are not constituent characters in the standard syntax; these attributes apply to them only if their syntax types are changed to constituent.

\section*{Standard Macro Characters}

The standard Common Lisp syntax defines several macro characters. When a macro character is encountered, the macro character function associated with it is called. That function normally reads some number of characters from the input and returns a value representing the object read. The standard macro characters are discussed below.

\section*{- ( (Left parenthesis)}

A left parenthesis ( () marks the beginning of a list or a dotted pair. Objects are read (recursively) until a right parenthesis is encountered at the same level as the left parenthesis, and a list of the objects read is returned. Whitespace characters can be used freely or omitted before and after the left and right parentheses.
A dot may appear by itself after some element in the list, in which case there must be precisely one element and a right parenthesis following the dot. The final element is the cdr of the last pair in the list.
- ) (Right parenthesis)

A right parenthesis ()) ends a list or a dotted pair. A right parenthesis can occur only as part of some particular syntactic construct that uses a left parenthesis. In any other context, a right parenthesis is handled according to the setting of the global variable *ignore-extra-right-parens*.
- (Single quote)

A single quote (') is used to quote a Lisp object so that it can be manipulated as a constant. The construct 'form has the same meaning as (quote form).
- ; (Semicolon)

A semicolon (;) begins a comment, which continues through the next newline character. A comment terminates any token currently being read but is otherwise ignored.

\section*{- " (Double quote)}

A double quote (") begins a simple string. All input characters that lie between the first double-quote character and a second double quote are included in the string. If a single escape character is encountered, however, the single escape character is discarded, the character following it is included in the string (no matter what that character is), and the string continues.
- (Backquote)

A backquote (') quotes all of a form except parts directly preceded by commas. A backquote causes an object to be created from the form following the backquote. Any subform that follows a comma is evaluated, and its value takes the place of the subform in the object. The backquote construct is read as the object that results when all such evaluations have been done. This result may or may not share any list structure with the template itself. If there are no commas in the form following a backquote, the
result is the same as if the backquote had been a single quote ('). In nested backquote constructs, the innermost backquote construct is processed first.

Within a backquote construct, if a comma is immediately followed by an at-sign (, e), the following subform is evaluated and must produce a list. The individual items in the list are inserted in the object in place of the subform. Thus, one subform in the original template can be replaced by any number of items, depending on the length of the list resulting from the evaluation of the subform.
If a comma is followed by a dot (. .), the following subform is evaluated and inserted in the object. The .. construct is the same as the , construct except that the list resulting from the evaluation of the subform may be modified.

In a backquote construct, a comma can occur inside any subform that produces a cons or a simple vector. In particular, a comma can appear inside \#( or \#' forms but cannot appear inside \#A or \#S forms. A comma can also appear immediately after a backquote, provided that the comma is not followed by an at-sign or a dot. The combinations , e and . . cannot appear immediately after a backquote or immediately after the dot in a dotted pair.

The following example shows the use of the comma by itself and the .e and .. combinations:
\(>\left(\right.\) setf \(a^{\prime}\left(\begin{array}{rl}\mathrm{s}\end{array}\right)\)
(R S)
\(>\) '(1 a 2 , a 3 , ea 4 , (cdra) 5 , \(0(c d r a) 6,(c d r a))\) (1 A 2 (R S) 3 RS 4 (S) 5 S 6 S)
- , (Comma)

A comma (,) causes a form within a template to be evaluated. A comma can occur only within a template quoted by backquote, as described above.
- \# (Number-sign)

The number-sign character (\#) is a dispatching macro character. The effect of a dispatching macro character is determined by the dispatch-controlling character following it. The next section describes the standard syntax for the \# dispatching macro character.

\section*{Dispatching Macro Characters}

A dispatching macro character is a special type of macro character. Such a character dispatches to one of many possible functions, depending on the next character read. Thus, certain two-character sequences can trigger the invocation of specific functions.

The only dispatching macro character in the standard Common Lisp syntax is the number-sign character \#. In the standard syntax, the dispatching macro character \# is nonterminating. That is, whenever the character \# occurs in the middle of a token, it is taken as a constituent character rather than as a macro character and does not terminate the token.

Forms beginning with \# are used for reading in objects of particular data types. The character following the \# generally specifies the data type; that character is followed by text that specifies the value, using a data-type dependent syntax. For instance, the form \#C(2 3) represents a complex number with a real part of 2 and an imaginary part of 3. In certain cases, an unsigned decimal integer may be used between the \# and the type-specifying character. The dispatch function called for a particular dispatching macro character sequence is given three arguments: the input stream, the dispatch-controlling character, and the intervening integer. If no integer is specified, the third argument is nil.
The standard \# dispatching macro character syntax is explained below and is summarized in Figure 21-3. In constructs where the second character is a letter, the case of the letter is not significant. Although Common Lisp may be extended to include additional \# constructs, the constructs beginning with \#!, \#?, \#[, \#], \#\{, and \#\} will never be defined in the standard syntax; they are reserved for the user.

\section*{- \# (Character object)}

A character object is represented either by \# \(\backslash x\), where \(x\) is the character, or by \#\name, where name is the name of the character. The names recognized after \#\ are the same as the character names recognized by the function name-char. When \#\ is followed by a single character rather than a name, that single character must be followed by a character that is not a constituent character.

Although any character can follow \#\\, the use of a name after \#\is generally preferred for representing nonprinting characters in programs. If a single character follows \# \(\backslash\), uppercase and lowercase are distinguished and are used to represent the corresponding uppercase and lowercase letters. In a character's name, however, case is not significant.
Bits attributes can be included in characters represented with the \# \(\backslash\) syntax. The character or its name is preceded by one or more bit names or initials, each followed by a hyphen. For example, \#\Control-Hyper-Space and \#\c-h-space represent the same character. When bits attributes are specified and the single-character form is used, the character itself must be quoted if it is not an alphabetic constituent in the current
readtable or if it represents a lowercase letter, for instance, \#\Meta-\a. The names of bits attributes that can be used with the \#\ syntax are Control, Meta, Hyper, and Super.
- \#' (Function object)

The input sequence \#'function represents the form (function function), where function is the printed representation of any Common Lisp object.
- \#( (Simple vector)

A simple vector is represented by enclosing its elements in order between \# ( and ). An explicit length for the vector can be specified as an unsigned decimal integer between the \# and the (. If an explicit length is specified, no more than that number of objects may be enclosed. If fewer objects are enclosed than is specified by an explicit length, at least one object must be enclosed; in this case, the last enclosed object is used as the value of each of the remaining elements of the vector.
- \#* (Bit vector)

A simple bit vector is represented by \#* followed by the bit vector's binary digits (each is either a 0 or a 1). An explicit length for the vector can be specified as an unsigned decimal integer between the \# and the \(*\). If an explicit length is specified, no more than that number of bits may be present. If there are fewer bits present than specified by an explicit length, at least one bit value must be specified, and the last bit value specified is used as the value of each of the remaining elements of the vector.
- \#: (Uninterned symbol)

An uninterned symbol is represented by \#: followed by a symbol name containing no embedded colons. A new uninterned symbol is created each time this syntax is encountered.
- \#. (Read-time evaluation)

The construct \#.form represents the object that is obtained by evaluating the form form. The computation of the intended object is done at read-time. This construct is useful for representing an object that has no other convenient printed representation.
- \#, (Load-time evaluation)

The construct \#, form represents the object that is obtained by evaluating the form form. The computation of the intended object is done at read-time unless it is the compiler that is doing the reading. When the compiler sees this construct, it arranges for the form to be evaluated at load-time.

In interpreted code, \#. and \#, are treated the same, but in compiled code, \#. causes form to be evaluated at compile-time and \#, causes form to be evaluated at load-time.
- \#B (Binary rational)

The construct \#Brational represents a rational number expressed in binary (base 2).
- \#0 (Octal rational)

The construct \#Orational represents a rational number expressed in octal (base 8).
- \#X (Hexadecimal rational)

The construct \#Xrational represents a rational number expressed in hexadecimal (base 16).
- \#nR (Radix rational)

The construct \#nRrational represents a rational number expressed in base \(n\), where \(n\) must be between 2 and 36 inclusive.
- \#C (Complex number)

The construct \#C \((r i)\) represents a complex number whose real part is \(r\) and whose imaginary part is \(i\).
- \#nA (Array)

The construct \#nAobject creates an \(n\)-dimensional array whose initial contents are specified by object.
- \#S (Structure)

The construct \#S(name slot1 value1 slot2 value2 . . .) represents a structure. Here, name must be the name of a defined structure that has a constructor function. The constructor function is called with the specified slot values, and the result returned by the constructor function is the result returned when the \#S construct is read. It is not necessary to start each slot name with a colon.
- \(\# n=\) (Object label)

The construct \(\# n=o b j e c t\) is read as object, but it also labels that object with the unsigned decimal integer \(n\). The subsequent use of the construct \#n\# with the same value of \(n\) represents this identical object. The label applies within the expression being read by the outermost call to read and must be unique within that expression.
- \#n\# (Label reference)

The construct \#n\# represents the object with the label \(n\) in the current expression. The label must have been defined by an earlier use of \(\# n=\) in the same expression. The \#n\# syntax is used in representing a construct that has a shared or circular element.
- \#+ (Read-time conditional)

The construct \#+feature form causes the form form to be read only if feature specifies a true condition. If feature specifies a false condition, form is read with the global variable *read-suppress* bound to a non-nil value. This results in the form being skipped over.

The construct feature must be the printed representation of either a symbol or a list. If it is a symbol, it specifies a true condition if and only if that symbol is an element of the list that is the value of the global variable *features*. If feature is a list, it must be composed of the logical operators and, or, and not applied to other feature expressions; in this case, a true condition is specified if the logical combination is true.

The \#+ construct can be used in conjunction with the *features* list to select the portions of a program that are to be read or compiled.
- \#- (Read-time negative conditional)

The construct \#-feature form has the same effect as \#+(not feature) form.
- \#I (Balanced comment)

The construct \#|...|\# represents a comment and is ignored when read. The comment may contain anything, but occurrences of \#| and |\# must be balanced. Comments may thus be nested. The \#|...|\# construct can be used to disable a portion of a program by turning it into a balanced comment.
- \#< \#) \#whitespace \#Backspace (Forced error)

If \# is followed by one of the characters <, ), Backspace, Tab, Newline, Page, Return, or Space, an error is signaled. These constructs prevent attempts to read back in objects with no valid printed representation or objects whose printed representation has been abbreviated.

\section*{Table of Standard \# Dispatching Macro Character Syntax}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline character combination & purpose & character combination & purpose \\
\hline \#Backspace & signals error & \# & undefined* \\
\hline \#Tab & signals error & \#\} & undefined* \\
\hline \#Newline & signals error & \#+ & read-time conditional \\
\hline \#Linefeed & signals error & \#- & read-time conditional \\
\hline \#Page & signals error & \#. & read-time evaluation \\
\hline \#Return & signals error & \#/ & undefined \\
\hline \#Space & signals error & \#A, \#a & array \\
\hline \#! & undefined* & \#B, \#b & binary rational \\
\hline \#" & undefined & \#C, \#c & complex number \\
\hline \#\# & reference to \#= label & \#D, \#d & undefined \\
\hline \#\$ & undefined & \#E, \#e & undefined \\
\hline \#\% & undefined & \#F, \#f & undefined \\
\hline \#\& & undefined & \#G, \#g & undefined \\
\hline \#' & function abbreviation & \#H, \#h & undefined \\
\hline \#( & simple vector & \#I, \#i & undefined \\
\hline \#) & signals error & \#J, \#j & undefined \\
\hline \#* & bit vector & \#K, \#k & undefined \\
\hline \#, & load-time evaluation & \#L, \#1 & undefined \\
\hline \#: & uninterned symbol & \#M, \#m & undefined \\
\hline \#; & undefined & \#N, \#n & undefined \\
\hline \#< & signals error & \#O, \#0 & octal rational \\
\hline \#= & labels following object & \#P, \#p & undefined \\
\hline \#> & undefined & \#Q, \#q & undefined \\
\hline \#? & undefined* & \#R, \#r & radix-n rational \\
\hline \#@ & undefined & \#S, \#s & structure \\
\hline \# & undefined* & \#T, \#t & undefined \\
\hline \# & character object & \#U, \#u & undefined \\
\hline \#] & undefined* & \#V, \#v & undefined \\
\hline \#* & undefined & \#W, \#w & undefined \\
\hline \#- & undefined & \#X, \#x & hexadecimal rational \\
\hline \#' & undefined & \#Y, \#y & undefined \\
\hline \# & balanced comment & \#Z, \#z & undefined \\
\hline \# & undefined & \#Rubout & undefined \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 21-3. Standard \# Dispatching Macro Character Syntax
* The dispatching macro character pairs \#!, \#?, \#[, \#], \#\{, and \#\} are reserved for the user and will never be defined in the standard Common Lisp syntax. The combinations \#0, \#1, \#2, \#3, \#4, \#5, \#6, \#7, \#8, and \#9 occur only when integers are used as infix arguments. They cannot be defined.

\section*{Formatted Output}

\begin{abstract}
The format function and certain other text output functions accept as an argument a format control string that specifies formatted text to be generated. Such a string is made up of simple text and embedded directives. The simple text is written to the indicated stream (for example, the user's display); each embedded directive specifies further text output that is to appear at the corresponding point within the simple text. Directives are carried out in the order in which they appear within the format control string.
\end{abstract}

\section*{Format Control Directives}

The basic format control directive consists of a tilde (~) followed by a directive character that specifies the type of output to be generated. In the general form, a directive may accept parameters and modifiers between the tilde and the directive character and may use arguments from the function call form in which it occurs. If any parameters are specified, they must precede any modifiers. The meanings of the parameters and modifiers vary from directive to directive and are defined in the descriptions of the syntax of individual directives. A directive must not be given more parameter values than its syntax allows.

A format control string parameter is either an integer or a character object, depending on how the parameter is used by the directive. An integer parameter is specified as an optionally signed decimal integer. A character parameter is specified as a two-character sequence consisting of a single-quote character (') followed by the character that is to be the parameter. If multiple parameters are supplied to one directive, they are separated by commas. A default value is supplied for any parameter that is not specified. When parameters at the end of the parameter list are defaulted, trailing commas may also be omitted. For example, the directive \({ }^{12},, \prime!R\) has an integer parameter followed by a defaulted parameter and then a character parameter whose value is the exclamation-point character. The fourth parameter in this example is omitted, as is the comma that would have preceded it.

The characters \(\mathbf{V}\), \(\mathbf{v}\), or \# can be used in place of an actual integer or character value for a parameter. If \(\mathbf{V}\) ( or \(\mathbf{v}\) ) is used, the value of the next unused argument of the current function call form is taken to be the value of the parameter. This value should be an integer or character object, whichever is appropriate for the directive, or it can be nil to default the given parameter. If \# is used, the number of remaining arguments of the current function call form is taken to be the value of the next parameter.

A format control string modifier is a single character, either a colon (:) or an at-sign (©). A directive can contain neither, one, or both of these modifiers. The meanings of the four combinations depend on the specific directive character. For instance, - (text \({ }^{\sim}\) ) causes text to be written in lowercase, whereas \({ }^{\sim}: \mathcal{Q}\left(\right.\) text \(\left.^{\sim}\right)\) causes text to be written in uppercase. A
directive may only be given modifiers in a combination allowed by its syntax; the order of the two modifiers, however, does not matter.

Certain directives use arguments from the current function call form (most commonly a call to format). For instance, several directives cause particular printed representations of the next argument to be written. Function arguments are supplied to directives in order as needed; however, the \({ }^{-*}\) directive can be used to select the starting argument position from which subsequent directives get their arguments. At least as many arguments as the directive requires must be supplied.

\section*{The Syntax of Format Control Directives}

The individual directives that are available for use in format control strings are described below. In these descriptions, the directive is accompanied by a brief descriptive title to help the user remember what the directive does. The second line of each description presents the syntax of the general form of the directive. It is followed by an explanation of the use of the directive and its parameters and modifiers.
- \(\mathbf{- A}\) (ASCII)
- mincol, colinc, minpad, padchar:©A

The ~ A directive causes the printed representation of the next available argument of the function call form to be written with no escape characters, as if *print-escape* were bound to nil.
- The mincol parameter specifies the minimum number of columns (characters) that the output is to occupy. Its default value is 0 .
- The minpad parameter specifies the minimum number of padding characters to be used. Its default value is 0 .
- After the first minpad characters have been written, padding characters are written in increments specified by the colinc parameter until the total output occupies at least mincol columns. The default value of the colinc parameter is 1 .
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used. Its default value is the space character.
- The : modifier controls the format of any argument that is nil. If the argument is nil, it is written as nil unless the : modifier is used, in which case it is written as (). In either case, if the argument is a list or any other structured object, any null element within it is written as nil whether or not the : modifier is present.
- The 0 modifier controls the placement of padding characters. Any necessary padding is normally inserted on the right of the output; it is thus left-justified. Use of the modifier, however, causes all padding to be inserted on the left; the output is then right-justified.
- The : and e modifiers may be used separately or in combination.
- -S (S-expression)
-mincol, colinc, minpad, padchar: ©S
The -S directive causes the printed representation of the next available argument of the function call form to be written with escape characters included in the output, as if *print-escape* were bound to \(t\).
- The mincol parameter specifies the minimum number of columns (characters) that the output is to occupy. Its default value is 0 .
- The minpad parameter specifies the minimum number of padding characters to be used. Its default value is 0 .
- After the first minpad characters have been written, padding characters are written in increments specified by the colinc parameter until the total output occupies at least mincol columns. The default value of the colinc parameter is 1.
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used. Its default value is the space character.
- The : modifier controls the format of any argument that is nil. If the argument is nil, it is written as nil unless the : modifier is used, in which case it is written as (). In either case, if the argument is a list or any other structured object, any null element within it is written as nil whether or not the : modifier is present.
- The 0 modifier controls the placement of padding characters. Any necessary padding is normally inserted on the right of the output; it is thus left-justified. Use of the 0 modifier, however, causes all padding to be inserted on the left; the output is then right-justified.
- The : and 0 modifiers may be used separately or in combination.
-D (Decimal)
- mincol, padchar, commachar: ©D

The \({ }^{-} \mathbf{D}\) directive causes the printed representation of the next available argument of the function call form to be written in decimal (base 10), without a trailing decimal point. If the argument is not an integer, it is written in -A format using the decimal base.
- The mincol parameter specifies the minimum width of output in characters. Its default value is 0 .
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used to achieve the minimum output width. Padding characters are inserted at the left of the output. The default value of padchar is the space character.
- The : modifier causes the commachar parameter to be written between every group of three characters. The default value of commachar is the comma character (.).
- The 0 modifier causes the integer's sign to be written. If this modifier is not specified, the sign is written only if the integer is negative.
- The : and c modifiers may be used separately or in combination.
- -B (Binary)
-mincol, padchar, commachar: © \(\mathbf{B}\)
The \(\sim \mathbf{B}\) directive is identical to the \({ }^{-} \mathbf{D}\) directive except that the integer argument is written in base 2 instead of in decimal.

The -B directive causes the printed representation of the next available argument of the function call form to be written in binary. If the argument is not an integer, it is written in binary using the \(\sim \mathbf{A}\) format.
- The mincol parameter specifies the minimum width of output in characters. Its default value is 0 .
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used to achieve the minimum output width. Padding characters are inserted at the left of the output. The default value of padchar is the space character.
- The : modifier causes the commachar parameter to be written between every group of three characters. The default value of commachar is the comma character (.).
- The e modifier causes the integer's sign to be written. If this modifier is not specified, the sign is written only if the integer is negative.
- The : and \(\mathbf{c}\) modifiers may be used separately or in combination.
- - O (Octal)
~mincol, padchar, commachar:00
The \(\sim \mathbf{O}\) directive is identical to the \({ }^{\sim} \mathbf{D}\) directive except that the integer argument is written in base 8 instead of in decimal.

The \(\mathbf{O}\) directive causes the printed representation of the next available argument of the function call form to be written in octal. If the argument is not an integer, it is written in octal using the \(\sim A\) format.
- The mincol parameter specifies the minimum width of output in characters. Its default value is 0 .
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used to achieve the minimum output width. Padding characters are inserted at the left of the output. The default value of padchar is the space character.
- The : modifier causes the commachar parameter to be written between every group of three characters. The default value of commachar is the comma character (.).
- The 0 modifier causes the integer's sign to be written. If this modifier is not specified, the sign is written only if the integer is negative.
- The : and e modifiers may be used separately or in combination.
- - X (Hexadecimal)
~mincol, padchar, commachar: © \(\mathbf{X}\)
The \(-\mathbf{X}\) directive is identical to the \(-\mathbf{D}\) directive except that the integer argument is written in base 16 instead of in decimal.

The - \(\mathbf{O}\) directive causes the printed representation of the next available argument of the function call form to be written in hexadecimal. If the argument is not an integer, it is written in hexadecimal using the - A format.
- The mincol parameter specifies the minimum width of output in characters. Its default value is 0 .
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used to achieve the minimum output width. Padding characters are inserted at the left of the output. The default value of padchar is the space character.
- The : modifier causes the commachar parameter to be writiten between every group of three characters. The default value of commachar is the comma character (.).
- The 0 modifier causes the integer's sign to be written. If this modifier is not specified, the sign is written only if the integer is negative.
- The : and e modifiers may be used separately or in combination.
- \(-\mathbf{R}\) (Radix)
-radix, mincol, padchar, commachar: © \(\mathbf{R}\)
The \(\sim \mathbf{R}\) directive is identical to the \(\sim \mathbf{D}\) directive except that the integer argument is written in the base specified by the radix parameter instead of in decimal. The value of radix must be between 2 and 36 inclusive. If the argument is not an integer, it is written in the base radix using the - \(\mathbf{A}\) format.
- The mincol parameter specifies the minimum width of output in characters. Its default value is 0 .
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used to achieve the minimum output width. Padding characters are inserted at the left of the output. The default value of padchar is the space character.
- The : modifier causes the commachar parameter to be written between every group of three characters. The default value of commachar is the comma character (.).
- The e modifier causes the integer's sign to be written. If this modifier is not specified, the sign is written only if the integer is negative.
- The : and e modifiers may be used separately or in combination.

However, if no radix parameter is specified, then \({ }^{\sim} R\) has a different meaning, as shown below.
- \({ }^{-} \mathbf{R}\) (Roman numerals)
- , mincol, padchar: © \(\mathbf{R}\)

If the first parameter is omitted, the directive \(\sim \mathbf{R}\) causes the next available argument to be written either in English or in Roman numerals.
- The mincol parameter specifies the minimum width of output in characters. Its default value is 0 .
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used to achieve the minimum output width. Padding characters are inserted at the left of the output. The default value of padchar is the space character.
- The modifier combination selects one of the following four formats in which to write the integer argument:
- -R causes the next available argument to be written in English as a cardinal number, such as nine.
- ~: R causes the next available argument to be written in English as an ordinal number, such as ninth.
- - ©R causes the next available argument to be written in Roman numerals, such as IX. Very large arguments are printed in decimal.
- ~: ©R causes the next available argument to be written in old Roman numerals, such as VIIII. Very large arguments are printed in decimal.
- - \(\mathbf{P}\) (Pluralize)
: © \(\mathbf{P}\)
The - \(\mathbf{P}\) directive is used to pluralize a word that has just been written. If no modifiers are specified, it writes nothing if the next available argument has the integer value 1 ; otherwise it writes the one character \(s\).
- If the : modifier is used, this directive first backs up to the previous argument of the function call form (thus re-using that argument) and then performs the pluralization.
- If the 0 modifier is used, this directive writes either the character \(y\) if the argument has the value 1 or the three characters ies if the argument has some other value.
- The : and 0 modifiers may be used separately or in combination.
- - C (Character)
: ©
The \(\boldsymbol{\sim} \mathbf{C}\) directive causes the next available argument in the function call form to be written as a character. Printing characters are written as themselves; nonprinting characters are written by name (for example, a space is written as Space).
- If no modifiers are used, the name of any bits attribute of the character is abbreviated to one letter followed by a hyphen. For instance, the character \# \(\backslash\) Meta- X is written as \(M-X\).
- If only the : modifier is used, the names of any bits attributes are written in full, for example, Meta-X.
- If only the e modifier is used, the character is written using the \#\syntax, for example, \#\Meta-X.
- If both modifiers are used, the names of any bits attributes are written in full, but the \#\syntax is not used.
- \(\quad\) F (Fixed floating-point)
~ \(w, d, k\), overflowchar, padchar© F
The \(\sim\) F directive causes the next available argument to be written as a floating-point number without an exponent field.

If the argument is a ratio or integer, it is coerced to single-float format before being written. If the argument is a complex number or not a number at all, it is written as if by the \({ }^{\sim} w D\) directive, so that the minimum width \(w\) is used and any rational subpart of the argument is written in decimal.
- The \(w\) parameter specifies the exact width of the output in characters. If \(w\) is not specified, no padding is used, and as many characters as necessary are used to write the number as specified by the remaining parameters.
- The \(d\) parameter specifies the number of digits to be used after the decimal point. If \(d\) is not specified, the number of digits after the decimal point is limited only by \(w\) and the value of the number. No trailing zeroes are written if \(d\) is not specified unless the value of the fractional part is zero, in which case exactly one zero appears after the decimal point.
- The \(k\) parameter specifies a scale factor. The argument is multiplied by \(10^{\boldsymbol{k}}\) before it is written. The default value of \(k\) is 0 .
- If an overflowchar parameter is specified, and the number cannot fit in \(w\) characters, the entire output field is filled with the given overflow character. If
the overflowchar parameter is not specified and if the argument cannot fit in \(w\) characters, then as many characters as are necessary are used.
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used to achieve the minimum output width. Padding characters are inserted at the left of the output. The default value of padchar is the space character.
- The 0 modifier causes the argument's sign to be written. If this modifier is not specified, the sign is written only if the integer is negative.

The output consists of exactly \(\boldsymbol{w}\) characters. Any necessary padding is written first, followed by a minus sign if the argument is negative or a plus sign if the argument is nonnegative and the modifier \(\mathbb{C}\) is present. The magnitude of the argument times \(10^{k}\), rounded to \(d\) fractional digits, is written next. Leading zeroes are not written, but if the magnitude is less than one, a single zero digit is written before the decimal point if it fits within the specified width.

\section*{- -E (Exponential floating-point)}
~ \(w, d, e, k, o v e r f l o w c h a r, p a d c h a r\), exponentchar \(\mathbb{E}\)
The \({ }^{-E}\) directive causes the next available argument to be written as a floating-point number with an exponent field.

If the argument is a ratio or integer, it is coerced to single-float format before being written. If the argument is a complex number or is not a number at all, it is written as if by the \(\sim w \mathbf{D}\) directive, so that the minimum width \(w\) is used and any rational subpart of the argument is written in decimal.
- The \(w\) parameter specifies the exact width of the output in characters. If \(w\) is not specified, no padding is used, and as many characters as necessary are used to print the number as specified by the remaining parameters.
- The \(d\) parameter specifies the number of digits to be written after the decimal point. If \(d\) is not specified, the number of digits after the decimal point is limited only by \(w\) and the value of the number. No trailing zeroes are written if \(d\) is not specified unless the value of the fractional part is zero, in which case exactly one zero appears after the decimal point.
- The \(e\) parameter specifies the number of exponent digits written. If \(e\) is not specified, the minimum number of digits necessary for the exponent is used.
- The \(k\) parameter is the number of significant digits written before the decimal point. If \(k\) is zero or negative, the first significant digit occurs after the decimal point and after \(-k\) zeroes. The default value of \(k\) is 1 .
- If an overflowchar parameter is specified, and the number cannot fit in \(w\) characters, the entire output field is filled with the given overflow character. If the overflowchar parameter is not specified and if the argument cannot fit in \(w\) characters, then as many characters as necessary are used.
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used to achieve the minimum output width. Padding characters are inserted at the left of the output. The default value of padchar is the space character.
- The exponentchar parameter specifies the character written before the signed decimal exponent. The default value of exponentchar is E .
- The 0 modifier causes the argument's sign to be written. If this modifier is not specified, the sign is written only if the integer is negative.

The output consists of exactly \(\boldsymbol{w}\) characters. Any necessary padding is written first, followed by a minus sign if the argument is negative or by a plus sign if the argument is nonnegative and the modifier \(\mathbb{e}\) is present. It is followed by a digit sequence containing a decimal point in which \(k\) specifies the position of the first significant digit. If \(k\) is zero or negative, this sequence contains \(d\) digits after the decimal point and a single zero digit before the decimal point if the width allows. No other leading zeroes are written. If \(k\) is positive, it must be less than \(d+2\), and \(d-k+1\) digits are written after the decimal point. The number is rounded.
The exponent field is written next. It consists of an exponent character followed by a plus sign or a minus sign, and then \(e\) exponent digits. The signed exponent is the power of ten by which the number represented by the digit sequence must be multiplied to get the rounded value of the original argument. The exponent character written is exponentchar if that parameter is specified; otherwise the exponent marker is E .
- \({ }^{-} \mathbf{G}\) (General fioating-point)
\({ }^{\sim} w, d, e, k\), overflowchar, padchar, exponentchareG
The - \(\mathbf{G}\) directive causes the next available argument to be written as a floating-point number in either fixed or exponential format. Fixed format is used if the absolute value of the argument is either 0 or greater than or equal to 1 and if the integer part of that absolute value can be represented in \(d\) digits. Otherwise exponential format is used.

If \(d\) is omitted, the value used for it here is \((\max q(\min n 7)\) ), where \(n\) is the number of digits in the integer part of the absolute value of the argument, and \(q\) is the number of digits needed to represent the argument without loss of information and without leading or trailing zeroes.
- If fixed format is used, the argument is written as if the following pair of directives (the first of which writes the number and the second writes some spaces) were used:
\({ }^{-} w w, d d\), , overflowchar, padchar \(\mathbf{0} \mathrm{F}^{-}\)eecT
Here, the parameters \(w w, d d\), and \(e e\) are related to the original parameters according to these prescriptions: \(e e\) is \(e+2\) or 4 if \(e\) is omitted; \(w w\) is \(w-e e\) or nil if \(w\) is omitted; and \(d d\) is \(d-n\), with \(n\) (and \(d\), if omitted) as defined above.
- If exponential format is used, the argument is written as if the following directive were used:
~w, d, e, k, overflowchar, padchar, exponentchar@E
Here, all the original parameters of \({ }^{\sim} \mathbf{G}\) are used in the \({ }^{\sim} \mathbf{E}\) directive.
- In each of these cases, the modifier \(\mathbf{C}\) is supplied to the \({ }^{-F}\) or \({ }^{\sim} \mathbf{E}\) directive if and only if the modifier \(\mathbf{C}\) was supplied to the \({ }^{-} \mathbf{G}\) directive.

\section*{- \(\$\) (Dollars floating-point)}
-d, \(n, w, p a d c h a r: © \$\)
The \$ directive causes the next available argument to be written as a floating-point number in fixed format. This directive can be used for writing a number in dollars and cents.

If the argument is a complex number or not a number at all, it is written as if by the \({ }^{-} \boldsymbol{w D}\) directive, so that the minimum width \(\boldsymbol{w}\) is used.
- The \(d\) parameter specifies the number of digits to be written after the decimal point. The default value of \(d\) is 2 .
- The \(n\) parameter specifies the minimum number of digits written before the decimal point. The default value of \(n\) is 1 .
- The \(w\) parameter specifies the minimum width of output in characters. Its default value is 0 .
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used to achieve the minimum output width. Padding characters are inserted at the left of the output. The default value of padchar is the space character.
- The 0 modifier causes the argument's sign to be written. If this modifier is not specified, the sign is written only if the integer is negative.
- The : modifier controls whether the sign or padding is written first. Any necessary padding is written first unless the : modifier is present, in which case the sign, if any, is written before any padding.
- The : and e modifiers may be used separately or in combination.

The sign and padding are written first, and then the absolute value of the argument is written as \(n\) digits of integer part, including leading zeroes if necessary, followed by a decimal point, and finally \(d\) digits of fraction. The magnitude that is written represents the rounded value of the argument.
- \% (New line)
-n\%
The \(\%\) directive causes a newline character to be written. Using this directive instead of inserting newline characters in the format control string may make a program easier for the user to read.
- If the parameter \(n\) is specified, it must be a nonnegative integer, in which case \(n\) newline characters are written. The default value of \(n\) is 1 .
- - - (Fresh line)
-nk
The -\& directive is used to ensure that any output that follows occurs at the beginning of a line. If the output stream is not already at the beginning of a line, a newline character is written.
- If the parameter \(n\) is specified, it must be a nonnegative integer, in which case \(n-1\) (additional) newline characters are written. If \(n\) is 0 , this directive has no effect.
- - I (New page)
~n1
The - ! directive causes a page character to be written.
- If the parameter \(\boldsymbol{n}\) is specified, it must be a nonnegative integer, in which case \(n\) new page characters are written. The default value of \(n\) is 1 .
- - (Tilde)
\(\sim_{n}{ }^{-}\)
The \(\sim \sim\) directive causes a tilde ( \({ }^{\sim}\) ) character to be written.
- If the parameter \(n\) is specified, it must be a nonnegative integer, in which case \(n\) tilde characters are written. The default value of \(n\) is 1 .
- Newline (Suppress newline character)
~: oNewline
The ~Newline directive causes the newline character and any following whitespace characters other than the newline character to be ignored.
- If only the : modifier is used, the newline character is ignored, but any whitespace characters other than newline characters are written.
- If only the 0 modifier is used, the newline character is written, but any following whitespace characters other than the newline character are ignored. This directive
is generally useful for breaking a long format control string into multiple lines to make it easier to read, without having to insert newlines in the output.
- The : and 0 modifiers are mutually exclusive.
- -T (Tabulate)
- colnum, colinceT

The ~T directive causes any output that follows to be positioned at or beyond a given column.
- The colnum parameter specifies the number of the column at which future output is to be positioned. If output has not reached column colnum, then enough space characters are written to reach that column. If output is already at or beyond column colnum, this directive writes the minimum number of spaces to reach a column that is a multiple of colinc columns beyond column colnum; but if colinc is 0 when output is already at or beyond column colnum, no spaces are written. The default value of both colnum and colinc is 1.
- If the 0 modifier is used, this directive does relative positioning by first writing colnum spaces and then by writing zero or more spaces to reach the nearest column that is a multiple of colinc.
- -* (Skip arguments)
~n:0*
The ** directive causes the next argument of the current function call to be ignored.
- If the parameter \(n\) is specified, it must be a nonnegative integer, in which case \(n\) arguments are ignored. The default value for \(n\) is 1 .
- If the : modifier is used, the directive backs up \(n\) arguments instead, thus allowing those arguments to be re-used. The default value of \(n\) here is 1 .
- If the 0 modifer is used, the directive selects the \(n\)th argument as the point in the argument sequence at which directives continue using arguments. If \(n\) is 0 , the first argument available to the format string is selected. The default value for \(n\) is 0 . If -n@* is used inside a \(-\{\) directive, it selects the \(n\)th argument within the argument list being processed by the iteration.
- The : and e modifiers are mutually exclusive.
~? (Indirection)
- 0 ?

The directive -? causes the next available argument to be interpreted as a format control string. The argument must be a string, and the argument that follows it must be a list of the arguments to that format control string. There must be enough arguments in the list to satisfy the directives in the string; any extra arguments in the list beyond that required number are ignored. After this additional format control
string has been processed, interpretation of the format control string that contains the -? directive resumes.
- If the modifier 0 is used, the directive takes the next available argument as a format control string, but the arguments used for that string are the next available arguments in the function call form that contains the - e? directive. The additional format control string thus effectively takes the place of the ~e? directive.
- - ( and ~) (Case conversion)
-: ©(str~)
The ~ ( and ~) directives are used to enclose an embedded format control string, str. The output produced by this string undergoes case conversion depending on the modifiers used with the - (directive.
- If no modifiers are used, all uppercase letters contained in the embedded string are converted to lowercase.
- If the : modifier is used, all words contained in the embedded string are capitalized. For this purpose, a word is considered to be any consecutive subsequence of alphanumeric characters delimited by nonalphanumeric characters or by the end of the string.
- If the 0 modifier is used, the first word contained in the embedded string is capitalized, and the others are converted to lowercase.
- If the : and e modifiers are used in combination, ail lowercase letters contained in the embedded string are converted to uppercase.
~[ and ~] with ~; (Conditional)

The directive - [ introduces a sequence of embedded format control strings, one of which may be selected for processing. The strings are separated by ~; and the sequence is ended by ~]. After any selected string has been processed, the interpretation of the original format control string resumes.

There are three possible variations of this directive, depending on the modifier combination used.
- If no modifiers are used, \(\sim j\left[s t r 0^{\sim} ; s t r 1^{\sim} ; \ldots s t r n^{\sim}\right]\) selects the \(j\) th embedded string, where the first string is considered to be string 0 . If the parameter \(j\) is omitted, the value of the next available argument is used as the value of \(j\) in selecting the string. If no such string exists, the directive has no effect. However, a default string can be designated to be selected if no other string is chosen by number. A default string must be the last in the sequence. It is designated by preceding it with ~: ; instead of with ~;
- If the modifier : is used, the directive \({ }^{\sim}\) :[false \({ }^{\sim}\); true \(\left.{ }^{\sim}\right]\) selects one of the embedded format control strings false or true, depending on the value of the next available
argument in the function call form. If the argument is nil, the false string is selected; otherwise the true string is selected.
- If the modifier \(\mathbb{C}\) is used, the directive \({ }^{-0}[s t r \sim]\) processes the format control string str if and only if the next available argument in the function call form is non-nil. In that case, the argument is made available for re-use (as if by \({ }^{*}: *\) ). If the argument is nil, then str is not processed and the argument is not re-used. Thus the string str is normally expected to use precisely one argument, which is non-nil.
- The : and 0 modifiers are mutually exclusive.
- ~ \(\{\) and \(\sim\}\) (Iteration)
- max: © \{str~ \(\}\)

The directives - \(\left\{\right.\) and \(\left.{ }^{-}\right\}\)enclose an embedded format control string that is to be processed repeatedly. The next available argument in the function call form must be a list. Any arguments needed by the embedded format control string are taken from this list.
- The parameter max specifies the maximum number of times the string is to be processed, but the repetition also terminates when there are no more unprocessed arguments left at the beginning of any iteration. The directive \({ }^{-9}\) can be used to stop the iteration at any time. If the enclosed string ends with \(\left.{ }^{\sim}:\right\}\) instead of just \({ }^{\sim}\) \}, the string is processed at least once. However, if \(\max\) is 0 , the string is not processed at all.
- If an embedded string str is not specified, the next available argument of the function call form is used as the string, and as many of the arguments that follow it as are needed are used as the arguments to the string.
- If the modifier : is used, the next available argument must be a list of sublists. Each sublist in turn is used as the list of arguments for one iteration. The repetition terminates when there is no remaining sublist for the next iteration or when max iterations have been completed.
- If the modifier \(\bullet\) is used, the remaining available arguments are treated as a list. Any arguments needed by the embedded format control string are taken from this list. Repetition terminates when no arguments remain for the next iteration or when max iterations have been completed. If arguments remain after max iterations have been completed, they are made available to any directives that follow.
- If both the : and 0 modifiers are used, the iteration is performed using as many arguments as necessary from the function call form. Each such argument must be a list of arguments to be used during that iteration. Repetition terminates when no argument is available for the next iteration or when max iterations have been completed.
- - < and > with ~; (Justification)
- mincol, colinc, minpad, padchar: \(\ll\) str \({ }^{->}\)

The directives " < and "> enclose a format control string whose output is to be justified by insertion of padding characters.

The text is padded only on the left or only on the right unless the string str is broken up into segments with the - directive; in that case padding is evenly applied to all such breaks.
- The mincol parameter specifies the minimum width of output in characters. Its default value is 0 .
- If the output cannot fit into mincol characters, the least amount of padding is used such that the total output width is mincol characters plus a multiple of colinc. The default value of colinc is 1 .
- The minpad parameter specifies the minimum number of padding characters to be used at any point where padding is allowed. Its default value is 0 .
- The padchar parameter specifies the padding character to be used. Its default value is the space character.
- If neither modifier is used, the first segment is left justified and the last segment is right justified. If there is only one segment, it is right justified.
- If the modifier : is used, padding is added before the first segment.
- If the modifier \(\mathbf{c}\) is used, padding is added after the last segment.
- If the first segment of the string ends with the -:; directive instead of the ; directive, that segment is not justified. It is written only if the remaining justified segments do not fit on the current output line. This first segment should contain a newline character. All the segments are processed to generate the formatted text before any output is done, so that any arguments referenced by the first segment are used whether or not that segment is written.
- If the first segment ends with a parameter spare, as in ~spare:; , the justified segments must fit on the current output line with spare columns to spare, or else the first segment is written. If the first segment ends with a second parameter lwidth, as in \({ }^{-}\), lwidth: ; , that parameter is used as the line width for the output stream. If the width is not given here and the line width of the output stream can be determined, it is used; otherwise a width of 72 is used.
The ~- directive can be used to terminate the processing of the string prematurely. In such a case, only those segments that have been completely processed are justified and written.
- - (Up and out)
~zero, equal, ordered: \({ }^{-}\)
The \({ }^{-9}\) directive prematurely terminates the innermost iteration ( \(\sim\{\ldots \sim\}\) ), justification ( \(\ll \ldots>\) ), or indirection ( \(\sim\) ?) directive, or the entire format control string if no such directive is in progress. Termination occurs if the \({ }^{\sim}\) is encountered when there are no arguments left.
- If there are any parameters to the "- directive, however, termination depends on their values instead of the absence of more arguments. If one parameter is supplied, termination occurs if that parameter is 0 . If two parameters are supplied, termination occurs if they are equal. If three parameters are supplied, termination occurs if the first is less than or equal to the second, and the second less than or equal to the third. For this arithmetic termination test to be useful, instead of all parameters being constant in the arithmetic test, one or more of the parameters should use the V or \# form to compute a variable value.
- Within an iteration construct ( \(-\{. .-\}\) ), the directive \({ }^{-\sim}\) terminates only the current iteration, but with the modifier :, the directive ~: - terminates the entire iteration directive.
- Within a justification construct ( \(\sim<\ldots \sim\) ), the directive ~- terminates the processing of segments and discards the current segment; any completely processed segments are properly justified and written.
- Within a format control string specified by indirection (~?), the directive ~terminates that format control string. Processing continues immediately after the ? itself.

\section*{Summary of Format Directives}
- A (ASCII)
parameters: mincol, colinc, minpad, padchar
defaults: \(0,1,0\), 'u
modifiers: \(\quad \sim\) : A print () if argument is nil
-a right justify
~:@A combine : and e
-S (S-expression)
parameters: mincol, colinc, minpad, padchar
defaults: \(\quad 0,1\), \(\mathbf{0}\), 'u
modifiers: - :S print () if argument is nil
-es right justify
- © © combine : and e
-D (Decimal)
parameters: mincol, padchar, commachar
defaults: 0 , 'u , ',
modifiers: ~:D insert commachar every 3rd digit
-0D always print sign
~:©D combine : and e
-B (Binary)
parameters: mincol, padchar, commachar
defaults: 0 , 'u , ',
modifiers: -:B insert commachar every 3rd digit
-0B always print sign
~:@B combine : and e
- O (Octal)
parameters: mincol, padchar, commachar
defaults: 0 , 'u , ',
modifiers: \(\quad\) : 0 insert commachar every 3rd digit
~O always print sign
~:© combine : and e
- X (Hexadecimal)
parameters: mincol, padchar, commachar
defaults: 0 , 'u , ',
modifiers: ~: X insert commachar every 3rd digit
~区 always print sign
~: ©X combine : and ©

\section*{- \(\mathbf{R} \quad\) (Radix)}
parameters: radix, mincol, padchar, commachar
defaults: , 0 , 'u , ',
modifiers: \(\quad \sim: n \mathbf{R}\) insert commachar every 3rd digit
- \(n\) R always print sign
- : enR combine : and e
\({ }^{\sim} \mathbf{R} \quad\) (Roman numerals)
parameters: , mincol, padchar, commachar
defaults: , 0 , \(\quad\),
modifiers: \(\quad{ }^{R} \quad\) print argument as a cardinal English number, e.g., nine
-:R print argument as an ordinal English number, e.g., ninth
- ©R print argument as a Roman numeral, e.g., IX
~: ©R print argument as an old Roman numeral, e.g., VIIII
- \(\mathbf{P} \quad\) (Pluralize)
modifiers: -: P back up to previous argument first
-cp print y if argument \(=1\), print ies otherwise
- © ©P combine : and e
-C (Character)
modifiers: -: \(\quad\) spell out control bits, e.g., Control-z
-ec print character for the Lisp reader, e.g., \#\Control-Z
-: ©C spell out control bits and explain special shift keys, if any
-F (Fixed floating-point)
parameters: \(\quad w, d, k\), overflowchar, padchar
defaults:

modifiers: - ©F always print sign
-E (Exponential floating-point)
parameters: \(\quad w, d, e, k\), overflowchar, padchar, exponentchar defaults: , , 1, , ' , 'E modifiers: -e always print sign
-G (General floating-point)
parameters: \(\quad w, d, e, k\), overflowchar, padchar, exponentchar defaults:
-é' always print sign
```

~\$ (Dollars floating-point)
parameters: d, n,w,padchar
defaults: 2,1,0, 'u
modifiers: - :\$ print sign before padding
~0\$ always print sign
~:@\$ combine : and e
~% (Newline)
parameters: n
defaults: 1
-\& (Fresh line)
parameters: n
defaults: 1
-1 (New page)
parameters: n
defaults: 1
~ (Tilde)
parameters: n
defaults: 1
-newline(Suppress newline)
modifiers: -newline ignore newline and whitespace
*:newline ignore newline, preserve whitespace
-0newline preserve newline, ignore whitespace
~T (Tabulate)
parameters: colnum, colinc
defaults: 1 , 1
modifiers: ~ ©T tab colnum spaces, then to nearest k}\mathrm{ - colinc column

* (Skip arguments)
parameters: n
defaults: 1
modifiers: - n:* skip backwards n arguments
~n@* go to argument n (or argument 0 if n is omitted)
-? (Indirection)
modifiers: - ? use argument as a control string, use next argument as new arguments
-0? use argument as a control string, use remaining arguments

```
```

-( (Case conversion)
modifiers: - (str~) convert str to lowercase
-:(str-) capitalize all words in str
-0(str`) capitalize the first word of str; convert the rest to lowercase     ~:0(str`) convert str to uppercase
~ (Conditional)
modifiers: - [strO~;...] use clause given by argument (or default if present)
~nth[strO~;...] use nth clause (or default, if present)
...~:;default~] the last string is the default string
~:[false~;true~] use false if argument is nil; otherwise use true
~[str~] if argument is non-nil, use str and re-use argument;
otherwise do nothing
-{ (Iteration)
modifiers: -{..} use argument as new argument list
~:{...} use sublists of argument as new argument list
~0{..}} use required numbers of remaining arguments as list
`:@{...} use sublists of remaining arguments
~< (Justification)
parameters: mincol, colinc, minpad, padchar
defaults: 0 , 1 , 0 , 'u
modifiers: -<str-> only one element, right justify
~<strO~;...> leftmost text is left justified; rightmost text is right justified
~:<strO~;...>> put space before first text segment
~0<strO~;...> put space after last text segment
~:0<strO~;...~> put space before and after text
~- (Up and out)
parameters: zero, equal, ordered
defaults:
~:^ terminate entire iteration process

```

\section*{Categories of Operations}

This section groups input/output operations according to functionality.

\section*{Data Type Predicates}
```

readtablep

```

This predicate determines whether an object is a readtable.

\section*{Character Input Control}
*read-base*
*read-suppress*
*readtable*
copy-readtable
set-macro-character
get-macro-character
make-dispatch-macro-character set-dispatch-macro-character get-dispatch-macro-character set-syntax-from-char *ignore-extra-right-parens*

These constructs control the operation of character input functions.

\section*{Character Output Control}
```

*print-array* *print-length*
*print-base*
*print-case*
*print-circle*
*print-escape*
*print-gensym*
*print-length*
*print-level*
*print-pretty*
*print-radix*
*print-structure*
*pp-line-length*

```

These variables control the operation of character output functions.

\section*{Character Stream Input}
```

read
read-char
read-char-no-hang
*read-default-float-format*
read-delimited-list
read-from-string
read-line

```
read-preserving-whitespace
unread-char
peek-char
listen
clear-input
parse-integer

These constructs are used to read and parse input characters.

\section*{Character Stream Output}
```

write write-char
prin1 write-string
print
pprint
princ
write-to-string
prin1-to-string
princ-to-string

```
```

write-line

```
write-line
terpri
terpri
fresh-line
fresh-line
finish-output
finish-output
force-output
force-output
clear-output
```

clear-output

```

These constructs are used to write output characters.

\section*{Binary Stream Input}
```

read-byte

```

This function is used to read a byte from a binary input stream.

\section*{Binary Stream Output}
```

write-byte

```

This function is used to write a byte into a binary output stream.

\section*{Formatted Character Stream Output}

\section*{format}

This function can be used to generate complex formatted output.

\section*{Querying the User}
```

y-or-n-p
yes-or-no-p

```

These functions are used to ask yes-or-no questions of the user.

\section*{clear-input}

Purpose: The function clear-input clears any available input from an input stream.
This function has no effect on any stream that is not associated with a keyboard. Its main use is to clear a keyboard stream of type-ahead characters when an error is encountered.

The function clear-input returns nil.
Syntax: clear-input koptional input-stream
Remarks: If the input-stream argument is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the current value of *standard-input* is used. If input-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.

Examples: > (progn (print (read)) (print (read)) (values)) 12

1
2
> (progn (print (read)) (clear-input) (print (read)) (values)) 12
1 this-must-now-be-typed-in
THIS-MUST-NOW-BE-TYPED-IN
> (with-input-from-string (is "1 2 3")
(format \(t\) "~S " (read is))
(clear-input is)
(format t "~S " (read is)))
12
NIL

\section*{clear-output}

Purpose: The function clear-output is used to exercise control over the internal handling of buffered stream output. It causes as much of the output data as possible to be discarded instead of being sent to its original destination.

The function clear-output returns nil.
Syntax: clear-output koptional output-stream
[Function]
Remarks: If the output-stream argument is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-output* is used. If output-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.

Examples: > (progn (print "am i seen?") (clear-output))
NIL

\section*{copy-readtable}

Purpose: The function copy-readtable is used to copy readtables.
If the from-readtable argument is not specified, the readtable that is the current value of the variable *readtable* is copied. If from-readtable is nil, the standard Common Lisp readtable is copied.
If the to-readtable argument is not specified or is nil, a new readtable is created and returned. Otherwise the readtable specified by the to-readtable argument is modified and returned.

Syntax: copy-readtable koptional from-readtable to-readtable [Function]
Examples: > (setq zvar 123)
123
> (set-syntax-from-char \#\z \#\' (setq table2 (copy-readtable))) \(T\)
> zvar
123
> (copy-readtable table2 *readtable*)
\#<Readtable 42A11B>
\(>\) zvar
VAR
> (setq *readtable* (copy-readtable))
\#<Readtable 42AF33>
> zvar
VAR
> (setq *readtable* (copy-readtable nil))
\#<Readtable 42B4B3>
> zvar
123

\section*{finish-output, force-output}

Purpose: The functions finish-output and force-output are used to exercise control over the internal handling of buffered stream output.

The functions finish-output and force-output cause output buffers to be forced out to their final destination. Both of these functions return nil, but finish-output does so only after waiting to make sure that any buffered output has reached its target.

Syntax: finish-output koptional output-stream
force-output \&optional output-stream
[Function]
Remarks: If the output-stream argument is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-output* is used. If output-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.

Examples: > (progn (print "am i seen?") (force-output) (clear-output))
"am i seen?"
NIL
> (progn (print "am i seen?") (finish-output) (clear-output))
"am i seen?"
NIL

\section*{format}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The function format produces formatted text. The formatting is controlled by a format control string, which is made up of simple text and embedded directives. The simple text is written as is; each embedded directive specifies further text output that is to appear at the corresponding point within the simple text. All directives begin with a tilde ( \({ }^{\sim}\) ) character. \\
\hline & If the destination argument is nil, format creates and returns a string containing the output from format-control-string. If destination is non-nil, format sends the output to the specified destination and returns nil. In this case, the value of destination must be a string with a fill pointer, a stream, or \(t\). If destination is a string with a fill pointer, the output is added to the end of the string. If destination is a stream, the output is sent to that stream. If destination is \(t\), output is sent to the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-output*. \\
\hline Syntax: & format destination format-control-string krest arguments [Function] \\
\hline Remarks: & The section "Formatted Output" explains how the format control string is interpreted and how the elements of arguments are processed. \\
\hline \multirow[t]{14}{*}{Examples:} & > (format \(t\) "no args") \\
\hline & no args \\
\hline & > (format nil "some - A returned \% as a -S" 'args 'string) \\
\hline & ```
"some ARGS returned
    as a STRING"
``` \\
\hline & > (format *standard-output* "~\{~S\%\% \% " ' (123)) \\
\hline & \\
\hline & 2 \\
\hline & 3 \\
\hline & NIL \\
\hline & > (format t "~s ~:* ~d ~:* ~b ~:* ~o ~:* ~x ~:* ~r ~:* ~35r ~:* ~:@r" 99) \\
\hline & \(99 \quad 99 \quad 1100011 \quad 143 \quad 63\) ninety-nine \(2 T\) LXXXXVIIII NIL \\
\hline &  \\
\hline & eight puppies \\
\hline & NIL \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{get-dispatch-macro-character}

Purpose: The function get-dispatch-macro-character returns the dispatch function associated with a particular dispatching macro character pair in a readtable.

The argument disp-char must be a dispatching macro character in the indicated readtable. The value returned is the dispatch function for the subcharacter sub-char associated with the macro character disp-char. If the subcharacter has no dispatch function, get-dispatch-macro-character returns nil.

Syntax: get-dispatch-macro-character disp-char sub-char [Function]
koptional readtable
Remarks: If the readtable argument is not specified, the readtable that is the current value of the variable *readtable* is used.

If sub-char is a lowercase letter, it is converted to its uppercase equivalent. If sub-char is a decimal digit, get-dispatch-macro-character returns nil.

Examples: > (null (get-dispatch-macro-character \#\\# \#\\{)) }
\(T\)
> (null (get-dispatch-macro-character \#\\# \#\x)) NIL

See Also: set-dispatch-macro-character

\section*{get-macro-character}

Purpose: The function get-macro-character returns the function associated with a specified macro character in a readtable. If there is no such function, get-macro-character returns nil.

A second value is returned that indicates whether the character is a nonterminating macro character. If the character is a nonterminating macro character, this value is true; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: get-macro-character char koptional readtable [Function]
Remarks: If the readtable argument is not specified, the readtable that is the current value of the variable *readtable* is used.

Examples: > (null (get-macro-character \#\\{)) }
\(T\)
> (null (get-macro-character \# \(\backslash\);)
NIL
See Also: set-macro-character

\section*{*ignore-extra-right-parens*}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Purpose: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The variable *ignore-extra-right-parens* is used to control the action of the \\
reader when excess right parentheses are encountered in the input stream. If \\
*ignore-extra-right-parens* is \(t\), excess right parentheses in the input stream \\
are ignored; if it is :just-warn, a warning message is generated; if it is nil, a \\
continuable error is signaled.
\end{tabular} \\
Syntax: & *ignore-extra-right-parens* \\
Remarks: & The initial value of *ignore-extra-right-parens* is :just-warn. \\
& The variable *ignore-extra-right-parens* is an extension to Common Lisp.
\end{tabular}

\section*{listen}

Purpose: The predicate listen is true if a character can be read from a given input stream; otherwise it is false.

Syntax: listen koptional input-stream
[Function]
Remarks: If the input-stream argument is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-input* is used. If input-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.

If an end-of-file is encountered, listen returns nil.
This function is designed to allow a program to avoid waiting for input. It is often used with a stream associated with a keyboard to determine if the user has typed a character.

Examples: > (listen) 1
T
\(>\)
1
> (progn (clear-input) (listen)) NIL

See Also: read-char-no-hang

\section*{make-dispatch-macro-character}

Purpose: The function make-dispatch-macro-character makes the character char a dispatching macro character in a given readtable. The function make-dispatch-macro-character returns \(t\).

Syntax: make-dispatch-macro-character char koptional
non-terminating-p readtable [Function]
Remarks: A dispatching macro character has an associated table that specifies the function to be called for each character that can be read following the dispatching macro character. This dispatch table is initialized by make-dispatch-macro-character, so that every such character has an associated function that signals an error. The function set-dispatch-macro-character is used to specify the dispatch functions for characters that follow a dispatching macro character.

If the argument non-terminating-p is non-nil, the dispatching macro character is made a nonterminating macro character; otherwise it is made a terminating macro character. The default value for non-terminating-p is nil.

If the readtable argument is not specified, the readtable that is the current value of the variable *readtable* is used.
```

Examples: > (get-macro-character \#\{)
NIL
> (make-dispatch-macro-character \#\{)
T
> (null (get-macro-character \#\{))
NIL

```
See Also: set-dispatch-macro-character

\section*{parse-integer}

Purpose: The function parse-integer reads an integer from a given string, using a specified radix. White space before and after the integer is ignored.

The parsing operation may be restricted to a substring of the string by specifying the :start and :end keyword arguments.

The function parse-integer returns two values. The first value is the integer parsed. If no integer is found and :junk-allowed is true, the first value is nil. The second value specifies the index within the string of the character that caused the parse to terminate (or one character beyond the end of the substring if the parse reached the end of the substring).

Syntax
parse-integer string \&key :start :end :radix :junk-allowed
[Function]
Remarks: The :start and :end keyword arguments take integer values that specify offsets into the string. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the substring; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the substring. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the string.

The :radix keyword argument specifies the base in which the number is to be read. It must be an integer from 2 to 36 inclusive. If :radix is not specified, base 10 is used.

The :junk-allowed keyword argument specifies whether the given substring is permitted to contain anything besides the integer and whitespace characters. If :junk-allowed is nil, the substring must contain precisely one integer, optional leading and trailing whitespace characters, and nothing else. If :junk-allowed is non-nil, the substring can contain arbitrary text following the integer.

Integers parsed by parse-integer must consist of an optional sign and one or more digits in the indicated radix.

Examples: > (parse-integer "123")
123
3
> (parse-integer "123" :start 1 :radix 5)
13
3
> (parse-integer "foo" : junk-allowed t)
NIL
0

\section*{peek-char}

Purpose: The function peek-char returns the next character in an input stream without actually reading it, thus leaving the character to be read at a later time. It can also be used to skip over and discard intervening characters in the input stream until a particular character is found.

Syntax:
peek-char koptional peek-type input-stream eof-error-p
[Function] eof-value recursive-p

Remarks: If the peek-type argument is nil, peek-char simply looks at the next character in the input stream and returns it without reading it out of the stream.

If peek-type is \(t\), peek-char reads and discards any whitespace characters at the front of the input stream and returns the first nonwhitespace character in the stream without actually reading it. Note that comments are not discarded in this process.
If peek-type is a character, peek-char discards characters from the front of the input stream until encountering a character that is the same as peek-type (char=). That character is returned without being read out of the stream.
If an end-of-file occurs before such a character can be read, an error is signaled if eof-error-p is true. If an end-of-file occurs and eof-error-p is nil, no error is signaled and eof-value is returned. The default value of eof-error-p is true. The default value of eof-value is nil.

The argument recursive-p should be true if this call is embedded in a higher-level call to read or a similar function.

The input-stream argument specifies the stream to be used. If it is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-input* is used. If input-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.
```

Examples: > (with-input-from-string (is " 1 2 3 4 5")
(format t "~S "S "S"
(peek-char t is)
(peek-char \#\4 is)
(peek-char nil is)))
\#\1 \#\4 \#\4
NIL

```

\section*{*print-array*}

Purpose: The variable *print-array* controls the format in which arrays are printed.
If the value of *print-array* is non-nil, arrays are printed in their entirety with the \#(, \#*, or \#nA syntax. If *print-array* is nil, just enough is printed, using the \#<. . .> syntax, to identify the array.

Syntax: *print-array* [Variable]
Remarks: The initial value of *print-array* is nil.
Examples: > *print-array*
NIL
> (setq a (make-array '(2 3)))
\#<Simple-Array T (2 3) 4789D3>
> (let ((*print-array* t)) (format t "~S" a)) \#2A((NIL NIL NIL) (NIL NIL NIL))
NIL

\section*{*print-base*, *print-radix*}

Purpose: The variables *print-base* and *print-radix* control the printing of rational numbers.

The value of the variable *print-base* is the numerical base in which integers and ratios are printed.
The value of the variable *print-radix* determines whether a radix indicator is included with each integer or ratio printed. If the value of *print-radix* is non-nil, a radix indicator is printed.

Syntax: *print-base*
[Variable]
*print-radix*
[Variable]
Remarks: The initial value of *print-base* is 10 .
The initial value of *print-radix* is nil.
The value of *print-base* must be an integer value between 2 and 36 inclusive. When the value of *print-base* is greater than 10, capital letters are used for digits greater than 9 , starting with A for 10, B for 11, and so on.
When the value of *print-radix* is non-nil, a decimal base is indicated for integers by a decimal point following the number; for ratios, a leading \#10r is used. For a base of 2, 8, or 16, a leading \#b, \#o, or \#x is used respectively. For other values of *print-base*, a leading \#nr radix indicator is used, with the base \(n\) itself printed in decimal.

Examples: > *print-base*
10
> (dotimes (i 35)
(let ((*print-base* (+ i 2))) ;print the decimal number 40 (write 40) ;in each base from 2 to 36 (if (zerop (mod i 10)) (terpri) (format t " ")))
101000
1111220130104555044403734
312 C 2 A 28262422201 J 1 I
1H 1G 1F 1E 1D 1C 1B 1A 1918
17161514
NIL

\title{
*print-base*, *print-radix*
}
```

> *print-radix*
NIL
> (dolist (pb '(2 3 8 10 16))
(let ((*print-radix* t) ;print the integer 10 and
(*print-base* pb)) ;the ratio 1/10 in bases 2,
(format t "~s ~s " 10 1/10))) ; 3, 8, 10, 16
\#b1010 \#b1/1010 \#3r101 \#3r1/101 \#o12 \#o1/12 10. \#10r1/10 \#xA \#x1/A
NIL

```

\section*{*print-case*}

Purpose: The variable *print-case* determines the case used in printing the names of symbols.

Normally, symbol names are stored internally with uppercase letters and are printed with uppercase letters. The value of *print-case* specifies the case in which uppercase letters in symbol names are printed. Lowercase letters in symbol names are always printed in lowercase.

The value of *print-case* must be either :upcase, :downcase, or :capitalize. Corresponding to these three possible values, the printing of uppercase letters of symbols is in uppercase, in lowercase, or in a combination of cases in which words are capitalized.

Syntax: *print-case*
Remarks: The initial value of *print-case* is :upcase.
For purposes of capitalization, a word is considered to be any consecutive sequence of alphanumeric characters that is preceded and followed by nonalphanumeric characters or the end of the symbol name.
```

Examples: > *print-case*
:UPCASE
> (dolist (pc '(:upcase :downcase :capitalize))
(let ((*print-case* pc)) (format t "`S " 'foo-bar)))
FOO-BAR foo-bar Foo-bar
NIL

```

\section*{*print-circle*}

Purpose: The variable *print-circle* controls the attempt to detect circularity in an object being printed.

If *print-circle* is non-nil and a circular object is detected, the \#n= and \#n\# constructs are used to denote the circular structure.

If *print-circle* is nil, an attempt to print a circular object may cause Common Lisp to loop indefinitely.

Syntax: *print-circle*
Remarks: The initial value of *print-circle* is nil.
Examples: > *print-circle*
NIL

(setf (cdddr a) a) ;create a circular list
(values))
> (let ((*print-circle* t)) (write a) (values)) ;print it \#1=(123.\#1\#)

\section*{*print-escape*}

Purpose: The variable *print-escape* controls the printing of escape characters. If *print-escape* is nil, the printing of escape characters is suppressed.

Syntax: *print-escape* [Variable]
Remarks: The initial value of *print-escape* is \(t\).
Examples: > *print-escape*
T
> (write \#\a)
\# \(\backslash\) a
\#\a
> (let ((*print-escape* nil)) (write \#\a))
a
\#\a
See Also: princ
prin1

\section*{*print-gensym*}
```

Purpose: The variable *print-gensym* controls the printing of the names of uninterned
symbols. If *print-gensym* is non-nil, the prefix \#: is printed before the name
of any uninterned symbol.
Syntax: *print-gensym* [Variable]
Remarks: The initial value of *print-gensym* is $\mathbf{t}$.
Examples: > *print-gensym*
T
> (format t "~S" (gensym))
\#:G39
NIL
> (let ((*print-gensym* nil)) (format t "~S" (gensym)))
G40
NIL

```

\section*{*print-level*, *print-length*}

Purpose: The variables *print-level* and *print-length* are used to limit the amount of output when an object is printed. These two variables affect the printing of any object with a listlike syntax, including lists, vectors, and arrays.

If *print-level* is set to an integer value, the printing depth of an object is limited to that value. The object itself is considered to be at level 0 . Any portion at or below the level of aprint-level* is printed as just \# if that portion contains components. If *print-level* is nil, no limit is imposed on the printing depth.

If *print-length* is set to an integer value, the maximum number of consecutive elements printed at any level is limited to that value. An ellipsis (...) is used to represent further objects at that level. If \(*\) print-length \(*\) is nil, no limit is imposed on the number of elements printed.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: & *print-level* & [Variable] \\
& \(*\) print-length* & [Variable]
\end{tabular}

Remarks: The initial value of both *print-level* and *print-length* is nil.
```

Examples: > *print-level*
NIL
> (setq a '(1 (2 (3 (4 (5 (6)))))))
(1 (2 (3 (4 (5 (6)))))
> (dotimes (i 3) (let ((*print-level* (* i 3))) (format t "-s~%" a)))

# 

(1 (2 (3 \#)))
(1 (2 (3 (4 (5 (6))))))
NIL
> *print-length*
NIL
>(setqa '(12 3 4 5 6))
(123 4 5 6)
> (dotimes (i 3) (let ((*print-length* (* i 3))) (format t "-s%%" a)))
(...)
(1 2 3 ...)
(123456)
NIL

```

\section*{*print-pretty*, *pp-line-length*}

Purpose: The variables *print-pretty* and *pp-line-length are used to control prettyprinting.

The value of the variable *print-pretty* controls the use of whitespace characters.
If the value of *print-pretty* is non-nil, additional whitespace characters are written in order to make printed expressions easier to read. If *print-pretty* is nil, a minimal amount of white space is used.

The value of the variable *pp-line-length* is an integer that specifies the output line length to be used for pretty-printing (for example, when *print-pretty* is true).

Syntax:

Remarks: The initial value of *print-pretty* is nil.
The initial value of *pp-line-length* is 80 .
The variable *pp-line-length* is an extension to Common Lisp.
Examples: > *print-pretty*
NIL
\(>\) (progn (write \({ }^{\prime}(\operatorname{let}((\mathrm{a} 1)(\mathrm{b} 2)(\mathrm{c} 3))(+\mathrm{a} b \mathrm{c}))\) ) (values))
(LET ((A 1) (B 2) (C 3)) (+ABC))
> (let ((*print-pretty* t))

(LET ((A 1)
(B 2)
(C 3))
(+ A B C))
See Also: grindef

\section*{*print-structure*}

Purpose: The variable *print-structure* controls the printing of structures.
If the value of *print-structure* is non-nil, structures are printed in detail, using the \#S syntax. If *print-structure* is nil, they are printed with the abbreviated \#<...> syntax.

Syntax: *print-structure*
Remarks: The initial value of *print-structure* is \(\mathbf{t}\).
The variable *print-structure* is an extension to Common Lisp.
Examples: > *print-structure*
T
> (defstruct family mom dad brother sister dog)
FAMILY
> (setq jones (make-family :mom 'simone :dad 'sam :brother 'basket-ball :sister 'sally :dog 'bowser))
\#S (FAMILY MOM SIMONE DAD SAM BROTHER BASKET-BALL SISTER SALLY DOG BOWSER)
> (let ((*print-structure* nil)) (print jones) (values))
\#<Structure FAMILY 428F3B>

\title{
read, read-preserving-whitespace
}


Remarks: If the input-stream argument is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-input* is used. If input-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.

If an end-of-file occurs before an object can be read, an error is signaled if eof-error-p is true. An error is always signaled if an end-of-file occurs in the middle of an incomplete object, such as before the right parenthesis that ends a list. If eof-error-p is nil and an end-of-file occurs anywhere else, no error is signaled and eof-value is returned. The default value of eof-error-p is true. The default value of eof-value is nil.

The argument recursive-p should be true if the call to read is from within some function that itself has been called from read or from a similar input function, rather than from the top level. For instance, a macro character function that has to read from the input stream beyond the macro character should specify recursive-p as true. The reasons for this are as follows. First of all, the scoping of the constructs \#n= and \#n\# occurs within a top-level call, so calls to read from macro character functions must specify recursive-p as true to ensure that these constructs are interpreted correctly. Second, for white space to be preserved correctly by low-level calls to read occurring within a call to read-preserving-whitespace, the recursive-p argument must be true. Otherwise a low-level call to read does not know that it needs to preserve white space for the higher-level call.

A macro character function should not rely on any side effects it has on the reader's global variables, such as *readtable*, unless such effects are made only for a top-level call to read. The reader caches certain variables during the entry to read at the top level, where recursive-p is nil, and thus may not notice changes to those variables below the top level.
```

Examples: > (read)
'a
(QUOTE A)
> (with-input-from-string (is " ") (read is nil 'the-end))
THE-END
> (defun skip-then-read-char (s c n)
(if (char= c \#\{) (read s) (read-preserving-whitespace s))
(read-char-no-hang s))
SKIP-THEN-READ-CHAR
> (let ((*readtable* (copy-readtable nil)))
(set-dispatch-macro-character \#\# \#\{ \#'skip-then-read-char)
(set-dispatch-macro-character \#\# \#\} \#'skip-then-read-char)
(with-input-from-string (is "\#{123 x \#}123 y")
(format t "~s ~s" (read is) (read is))))
\#\x \#\Space
NIL

```

\section*{*read-base*}

Purpose: The value of the variable *read-base* is the numerical base used for reading integers and ratios.
Floating-point numbers are always read as decimal numbers regardless of the value of *read-base*. Any number whose base is specified explicitly, such as a number that contains a decimal point or that starts with \#0, \#X, \#B, or \#nR, is also unaffected by *read-base*.

Syntax: *read-base*
[Variable]
Remarks: The value of *read-base* can be any integer from 2 to 36 inclusive. The initial value of *read-base* is 10 .

When *read-base* is greater than 10, ambiguity can arise over a symbol name composed of letters, all of which are digits in the current base; such a symbol may be read as a number.

The use of a read base other than decimal is not recommended except for reading data files. Nondecimal numbers within programs should be notated with \#0, \#X, \#B, or \#nR.

Examples: > *read-base*
10
> (setq dad 'pop)
POP
> 16
16
\(>\) dad
POP
> (setq *read-base* 16)
16
\(>16\)
22
\(>\) dad
3501

\section*{read-byte}

Purpose: The function read-byte reads a single byte from a specified binary input stream. The byte is returned as an integer.

Syntax: read-byte binary-input-stream koptional eof-error-p eof-value
[Function]
Remarks: The size of the byte read depends on the :element-type argument given in the open or with-open-file construct that created the stream binary-input-stream. Unless the byte size of that element type is one, two, or four bits, each call to read-byte uses up an integral number of 8-bit bytes, namely the minimum number necessary to hold the number of bits indicated by the given element type. If the byte size of the element type is one, two, or four bits, then as many elements as possible (eight, four, or two respectively) are unpacked from each 8-bit byte.

If an end-of-file occurs before a byte can be read, an error is signaled if eof-error-p is true. If an end-of-file occurs and eof-error-p is nil, no error is signaled and eof-value is returned. The default value of eof-error-p is true. The default value of eof-value is nil.

Examples:
```

> (with-open-file (s "temp-bytes"
:direction :output
:element-type 'unsigned-byte)
(write-byte 101 s))
101
> (with-open-file (s "temp-bytes" :element-type 'unsigned-byte)
(format t "~S ~S" (read-byte s) (read-byte s nil 'eof)))
101 EOF
NIL

```

See Also: write-byte

\section*{read-char}

Purpose: The function read-char reads a character from an input stream. The character that is read is returned as the result of read-char.

Syntax:
Remarks: If the input-stream argument is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-input* is used. If input-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.

If an end-of-file occurs before a character can be read, an error is signaled if eof-error-p is true. If an end-of-file occurs and eof-error-p is nil, no error is signaled and eof-value is returned. The default value of eof-error-p is true. The default value of eof-value is nil.

The argument recursive-p should be true if this call is embedded in a higher-level call to read or a similar function.

The function read-char does not perform case conversion on alphabetic characters.
Examples: > (with-input-from-string (is "0123")
(do ((c (read-char is) (read-char is nil 'the-end))) ( \((\) not (characterp c\()\) ))
(format t"~s" c)))
\#\o\#\1\#\2\#\3
NIL
See Also: read

\section*{read-char-no-hang}

Purpose: The function read-char-no-hang reads and returns a character from the input stream if such a character is available. If no character is available, read-char-no-hang returns nil.

Syntax: read-char-no-hang koptional input-stream eof-error-p [Function] eof-value recursive-p

Remarks: The input-stream argument specifies the stream to be used. If it is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-input* is used. If input-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.
If an end-of-file occurs, an error is signaled if eof-error-p is true. If an end-of-file occurs and eof-error-p is nil, no error is signaled and eof-value is returned. The default value of eof-error-p is true. The default value of eof-value is nil.

The argument recursive-p should be true if this call is embedded in a higher-level call to read or a similar function.

This function is designed to allow a program to avoid waiting for input.
Examples: > (format \(t\) "~S ~S ~S" (read-char-no-hang)
(read-char-no-hang)
(read-char-no-hang)) a
\#\a \#\Newline NIL NIL

See Also: listen
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Purpose: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The variable *read-default-float-format* specifies the floating-point format \\
that is to be used when reading a floating-point number that contains no explicit \\
format indicator.
\end{tabular} \\
Syntax: & *read-default-float-format* \\
Remarks: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The initial value of *read-default-float-format* is single-float. \\
In Sun Common Lisp, all floating-point numbers are represented in single-float \\
format, and the value of *read-default-float-format* has no effect.
\end{tabular} \\
Examples: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
> *read-default-float-format* \\
SINGLE-FLOAT
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}

\section*{read-delimited-list}

Purpose: The function read-delimited-list reads objects from an input stream until a specified delimiting character is found. A list of the objects that have been read up to that point is returned.

Syntax: read-delimited-list char \&optional input-stream recursive-p
[Function]
Remarks: The argument char must not be a whitespace character in the current readtable, because whitespace characters are ignored by read-delimited-list. A terminating macro character is usually chosen as the delimiting character so that it can follow the last object to be read without any intervening white space.

The input-stream argument specifies the stream to be used. If it is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-input* is used. If input-stream is \(\mathbf{t}\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.

The argument recursive-p should be true if this call is embedded in a higher-level call to read or a similar function.

An error is signaled if an end-of-file is encountered during read-delimited-list.
Examples: > (read-delimited-list \#\])
123
\(456]\)
(123456)

See Also: read

\section*{read-from-string}
Purpose: \begin{tabular}{l} 
The function read-from-string reads an object's printed representation from a \\
specified string instead of from an input stream. The object is constructed from its \\
printed representation and returned as the value of read-from-string. A second \\
value is returned that specifies the index within the string of the character just \\
beyond the last character read. \\
The operation may be restricted to a substring of the string by specifying the \\
:start and :end keyword arguments. \\
Syntax: read-from-string string koptional eof-error-p eof-value \\
akey :start :end :preserve-whitespace
\end{tabular} [Function]

Remarks: The :start and :end keyword arguments take integer values that specify offsets into the string. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the substring; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the substring. The start value defaults to 0 , the end value to the length of the string.

If the :preserve-whitespace keyword argument is non-nil, the read operation preserves white space; otherwise it does not. The default value of :preservewhitespace is nil.

If the end of the specified substring occurs before an object can be read, an error is signaled if eof-error-p is true. An error is always signaled if the end of the substring occurs in the middle of an incomplete object. If eof-error-p is nil and if the end of the substring occurs anywhere else, no error is signaled and eof-value is returned. The default value of eof-error-p is true. The default value of eof-value is nil.

If any keyword arguments are supplied to read-from-string, both of the optional arguments must also be specified. Otherwise the first keyword and its value are taken as the optional arguments.
```

Examples: > (read-from-string " $135^{\prime \prime}$ t nil :start 2)
3
5

```

See Also: read
read-preserving-whitespace

\section*{read-line}

Purpose: The function read-line reads a line of text from an input stream. The characters up to but not including the newline character that ends the line are returned as a string. A second value is also returned; it is nil if the line was terminated normally and non-nil if a nonempty line was terminated by an end-of-file.

Syntax: read-line koptional input-stream eof-error-p eof-value recursive-p [Function]
Remarks: If the input-stream argument is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-input* is used. If input-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.

If an end-of-file occurs before any characters are read in the line, an error is signaled if eof-error-p is true. If an end-of-file occurs and eof-error-p is nil, no error is signaled and eof-value is returned. The default value of eof-error-p is true. The default value of eof-value is nil.
The argument recursive-p should be true if this call is embedded in a higher-level call to read or a similar function.

Examples: > (setq a "line 1
1ine2")
"line 1
line2"
> (read-line (setq is (make-string-input-stream a)))
"line 1 "
NIL
> (read-line is)
"line2"
T
> (read-line is nil 'empty)
EMPTY
T
See Also: read

\section*{*read-suppress*}

\author{
Purpose:
}

The variable *read-suppress* can be used to suppress many of the operations normally performed by the reader.

If the value of *read-suppress* is non-nil, much of the interpretation that is usually carried out when expressions are read is suppressed. Suppression of interpretation is needed by the conditional-read constructs \#+ and \#-, whose principal use is to make a single program work under other Lisp systems that have slight differences in syntax.

When *read-suppress* is nil, normal read operations take place.
Syntax: *read-suppress*
[Variable]
Remarks: When *read-suppress* is non-nil, the reader skips over certain printed constructs that may not be entirely valid. The effects of a non-nil value of *read-suppress* are listed below. Constructions other than those listed continue to be interpreted normally.
- Extended tokens are not interpreted but are discarded and treated as if they were nil. For instance, potential numbers and symbols qualified with package markers are not checked for valid syntax.
- Standard \# dispatching macro character constructs ignore normal restrictions on the presence, absence, or value of a numeric argument, such as that in \#nR.
- The construct \# \(\backslash\) reads a following character or character name but generates nil in all cases. Unknown character names do not cause errors.
- The constructs \#B, \#0, \#X, and \#nR read the next token and generate nil. No errors are signaled, even if the token does not have numeric syntax.
- The construct \#* reads the next token and generates nil. No errors are signaled, even if the token contains characters other than 0 or 1.
- The constructs \#. and \#, read the following form without evaluating it and then generate nil.
- The constructs \#A, \#S, and \#: read the following form without interpreting it and without requiring it to be a list (for \#S) or a symbol (for \#:). The value nil is generated.
- The construct \# \(n=\) (where \(n\) is an integer) is completely ignored, generates no object, and is treated as white space.
- The construct \#n\# (where \(n\) is an integer) generates nil.

\section*{*read-suppress*}
```

Examples: > *read-suppress*
NIL
> (let ((*read-suppress* t))
(format t "~%input here> ")
(format t "evaluated as: "S"%" (eval (read)))
(format t "~%input here> ")
(format t "evaluated as: ~S~" (eval (read)))
(format t "~%input here> ")
(format t "evaluated as: "S~%" (eval (read)))
(format t "~%input here> ")
(format t "evaluated as: -s %" (eval (read)))
(values))
input here> 101
evaluated as: NIL
input here> \#\a
evaluated as: NIL
input here> :test
evaluated as: NIL
input here> (list 1 2 3)
evaluated as: NIL
> 101
101

```
read

\section*{*readtable*}
```

Purpose: The variable *readtable* specifies the current readtable.
Syntax: *readtable*
[Variable]
Remarks: The initial value of this variable is a readtable that provides the standard Common
Lisp syntax.
Examples: > (readtablep *readtable*)
T
> (setq zvar 123)
123
> (set-syntax-from-char \#\z \#\' (setq table2 (copy-readtable)))
T
zvar
123
> (setq *readtable* table2)
\#<Readtable 429B13>
> zvar
VAR
> (setq *readtable* (copy-readtable nil))
\#<Readtable 42A11B>
>var
1 2 3

```

\section*{readtablep}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Purpose: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The predicate readtablep is true if its argument is a readtable; otherwise it is \\
false.
\end{tabular} \\
Syntax: & readtablep object \\
Examples: & \(>\) (readtablep *readtable*) \\
& T \\
& \(>\) \\
& T (readtablep (copy-readtablen]) \\
& \(>\) (readtablep '*readtable*) \\
&
\end{tabular}

\section*{set-dispatch-macro-character}

\section*{Purpose: The function set-dispatch-macro-character installs a dispatch function to be called when a particular dispatching macro character pair is read. \\ The function function is installed as the dispatch function to be called when the readtable readtable is in use and when the character disp-char is followed by the character sub-char. The argument disp-char must be a dispatching macro character in the indicated readtable. \\ The function set-dispatch-macro-character returns \(\mathbf{t}\). \\ Syntax:}

Remarks: Whenever the indicated character sequence is read, the dispatch function function is called with three arguments: the current input stream, sub-char, and the nonnegative decimal number that was read between disp-char and sub-char. If no such number has been read, the third argument is nil.

If the readtable argument is not specified, the readtable that is the current value of the variable *readtable* is used.

The argument sub-char must not be a decimal digit. If sub-char is a lowercase letter, it is converted to its uppercase equivalent. Thus case is not significant in a dispatching macro subcharacter.

Examples: > (get-dispatch-macro-character \#\\# \#\f)
NIL
> (set-dispatch-macro-character \#\\# \#\\{ ; dispatch on \#\{ }
\#' (lambda (s c n)
(let ((list (read s nil (values) t))) ; list is object after \#n\{ (when (consp list) ;return nth element of list (unless (and \(n(<0 n(l e n g t h ~ l i s t)))(s e t q n 0))\) (setq list (nth n list)))
list)))
T
> \#\{(12 234 4)
1
> \#3\{( \(\left.\begin{array}{llll}0 & 1 & 2 & 3\end{array}\right)\)
3
> \#\{123
123
See Also:
get-dispatch-macro-character

\section*{set-macro-character}

Purpose: The function set-macro-character makes the specified readtable character a macro character and installs a function to be called whenever that character is read and the given readtable is in use.

The function set-macro-character always returns \(\mathbf{t}\).
Syntax:
\(\begin{aligned} \text { set-macro-character } & \text { char function } \\ & \text { \&optional non-terminating-p readtable }\end{aligned}\)
Remarks: The character is made a macro character in the readtable readtable. If the readtable argument is not specified, then char is made a macro character in the readtable that is the current value of the variable *readtable*.

When the character char is read and the specified readtable is current, the function function is called. It is passed two arguments: the input stream from which characters are being read and the macro character that caused it to be invoked. Normally, such a function returns a Common Lisp object that it reads from the input stream; this is the object whose printed representation starts with char. However, the function may return no values to indicate that no object has been read, as may be the case when a comment is scanned.
If the non-terminating-p argument is specified and is non-nil, the character becomes a nonterminating macro character; otherwise it becomes a terminating macro character. A nonterminating macro character that appears in the middle of an extended token is treated like a constituent character, and the macro character's function is not called in that case. A terminating macro character always terminates any token it appears in, and the terminating macro character's function is always called. The non-terminating-p argument defaults to nil.
> (set-macro-character \#\\{ }
\#' (lambda (s c)
(with-output-to-string (os)
(format os "~S" (read s nil (values) t)))))

\section*{T}
> \{123
" 123 "

\section*{set-syntax-from-char}

Purpose: The function set-syntax-from-char sets the syntax of one readtable character from the syntax of another readtable character.

The syntax type of the character to-char in the readtable to-readtable is set to the syntax type of the character from-char in the readtable from-readtable.

Syntax:

Remarks:
set-syntax-from-char to-char from-char
[Function]
soptional to-readtable from-readtable
If the to-readtable argument is not specified, the readtable that is the current value of the variable *readtable* is used.

If the from-readtable argument is not specified or is nil, the standard Common Lisp readtable is used.

If the character is a macro character, the function associated with the character is also copied. If the character is a dispatching macro character, its entire dispatch table of functions is copied. The constituent character attributes, however, are not copied.

Examples: > (set-syntax-from-char \#\7 \#\;)
\(T\)
> 123579
1235

\section*{terpri, fresh-line}

Purpose: The functions terpri and fresh-line ensure that subsequent output begins on a new line.

The function terpri writes a newline character and returns nil. The function fresh-line writes a newline character and returns \(t\) if the output stream is not already at the beginning of a line; otherwise fresh-line does nothing and returns nil.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: terpri \&optional output-stream & [Function]
\end{tabular}

Remarks: If the output-stream argument is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the current value of the variable *standard-output* is used. If output-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.

Examples: > (with-output-to-string (s)
(format s "not an ")
(format g "empty line")
(terpri s)
(terpri s)
(format s "aftermath"))
"not an empty line
aftermath"
> (with-output-to-string (s)
(format s "not an ")
(format s "empty line")
(fresh-line s)
(fresh-line s)
(format s "aftermath"))
"not an empty line
aftermath"

\section*{unread-char}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The function unread-char returns the specified character to the front of an input stream so that the character will be read again as the next character in that stream. \\
\hline Syntax: & unread-char character koptional input-stream [Function] \\
\hline Remarks: & The character argument must be the last character that was read from the given input stream. \\
\hline & The input-stream argument specifies the stream to be used. If it is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-input* is used. If input-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used. \\
\hline Examples: & ```
> (with-input-from-string (is "0123")
    (dotimes (i 6)
        (let ((c (read-char is)))
            (if (evenp i) (format t "~S "s"%" i c) (unread-char c is))))
``` \\
\hline & 0 \# \(\ 0\) \\
\hline & 2 \# \1 \\
\hline & 4 \# \(\ 2\) \\
\hline & NIL \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{write, prin1, princ, print, pprint}

Purpose: The functions write, prin1, princ, print, and pprint write the printed representation of an object to an output stream.

The function write is the general output function. It has the ability to specify all the parameters applicable to the printing of an object.

The functions prin1, princ, print, and pprint implicitly set certain print parameters to particular values. The remaining parameter values are taken from the global variables *print-escape*, *print-radix*, *print-base*, *print-circle*, *print-pretty*, *print-level*, *print-length*, *print-case*, *print-gensym*, *print-array*, and *print-structure*.

Each of the functions write, prin1, print, and princ returns object as its value. The function pprint returns no values.

Syntax: write object \&key :stream :escape :radix :base :circle :pretty :level :length
:case :gensym :array :structure
prin1 object koptional output-stream
[Function]
princ object koptional output-stream
print object \&optional outpuî-stream
pprint object koptional output-stream
Remarks: The keyword argument :stream of write and the optional output-stream arguments of prin1, princ, print, and pprint specify the stream to which output is to be sent. If the argument is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-output* is used. If :stream or output-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.

The other keyword arguments of write are described below. If any keyword argument is not specified, its value is taken from the corresponding global variable, namely *print-escape*, *print-radix*, *print-base*, *print-circle*, *print-pretty*, *print-level*, *print-length*, *print-case*, *print-gensym*, *print-array*, or *print-structure*.
- The :escape keyword argument controls the printing of escape characters. If the value of :escape is nil, the printing of escape characters is suppressed.
- The value of the :radix keyword argument determines whether a radix indicator is included with each integer or ratio printed. If the value of :radix is non-nil, a radix indicator is printed.
- The value of the :base keyword argument is the numerical base (radix) in which integers and ratios are printed.
- The :circle keyword argument controls the attempt to detect circularity in an object being printed. If :circle is non-nil and a circular object is detected, the \(\# n=\) and \#n\# constructs are used to denote the circular structure. If :circle is nil, an attempt to print a circular object may cause Common Lisp to loop indefinitely.
- The :pretty keyword argument is used to control pretty-printing. If the value of :pretty is non-nil, additional whitespace characters are written in order to make printed expressions easier to read.
- The :level keyword argument is used to limit the amount of text output when an expression is printed. If an integer value is specified, the printing depth of the expression is limited to that value. A value of nil means that no print limit is imposed.
- The :length keyword argument is used to limit the amount of text output when an expression is printed. An integer value specifies the maximum number of consecutive elements printed at one level. An ellipsis (...) is used to represent further objects at that level. A value of nil means that no print limit is imposed.
- The :case keyword argument determines the case used in printing the names of symbols. The value of :case must be either :upcase, :downcase, or :capitalize. Corresponding to these three possible values, uppercase letters in symbol names are printed in uppercase, in lowercase, or in a combination of cases in which words are capitalized.
- The :gensym keyword argument controls the printing of the names of uninterned symbols. If :gensym is non-nil, the prefix \#: is printed before the name of any uninterned symbol.
- The :array keyword argument controls the format in which arrays are printed. If the value of :array is non-nil, arrays are printed in their entirety with the \#(, \#*, or \#nA syntax. If :array is nil, just enough is printed to identify the array, using the \#<. . . > syntax.
- The :structure keyword argument controls the printing of structures. If the value of :structure is non-nil, structures are printed in detail, using the \#S syntax. If :structure is nil, they are printed with the abbreviated \#<...> syntax. The :structure keyword argument of write is an extension to Common Lisp.

\section*{write, prin1, princ, print, pprint}

The function prin1 acts like write with :escape \(t\), that is, escape characters are written where appropriate. This tends to make it possible to use read to read back the output of prin1.

The function princ acts like write with :escape nil. Thus no escape characters are written. This function is generally used when the output is to be read by humans, not by Common Lisp.

The function print acts like write with :escape \(t\), but in addition it causes the output to begin with a newline character and to end with a space.
The function pprint acts like write with :escape \(t\) :pretty \(t\) but also causes the output to begin with a newline character.
```

Examples: > (write \#\a)
\#\a
\#\a
> (prin1 \#\a)
\#\a
\#\a
> (print \#\a)
\#\a
\#\a
>(princ \#\a)
a
\#\a
> (write '(let((a 1)(b 2))(+ a b)))
(LET ((A 1) (B 2)) (+ A B))
(LET ((A 1) (B 2)) (+ A B))
> (pprint '(let((a 1)(b 2))(+ a b)))
(LET ((A 1)
(B 2))
(+ A B))
>(write '(let((a 1)(b 2))(+ a b)) :pretty t)
(LET ((A 1)
(B 2))
(+ A B))
(LET ((A 1) (B 2)) (+ A B))
> (with-output-to-string (s)
(write 'write :stream s)
(prin1 'prin1 s))
"WRITEPRIN1"

```

See Also: *print-escape*
*print-radix*
*print-base*
*print-circle*
*print-pretty*
*print-level*
*print-length*
*print-case*
*print-gensym*
*print-array*
*print-structure*
write-byte

Purpose: The function write-byte writes a single byte to a specified binary output stream.
The integer argument is written as a byte to the output stream specified by binary-output-stream. The integer argument must be of the type :element-type that was specified in the call to open or to with-open-file that created the stream.

Syntax: write-byte integer binary-output-stream
Remarks: The size of the byte written depends on the :element-type argument from open or with-open-file. Unless the byte size of that element type is one, two, or four bits, each call to write-byte generates an integral number of 8 -bit bytes, namely the minimum number necessary to hold the number of bits indicated by the given element type. If the byte size of the element type is one, two, or four bits, then as many elements as possible (eight, four, or two respectively) are packed into each 8 -bit byte.

Examples: > (with-open-file (s "temp-bytes"
:direction :output
:element-type 'unsigned-byte)
(write-byte 101 s))
101
> (with-open-file (s "temp-bytes" :element-type 'unsigned-byte)
(format t "~S "S" (read-byte s) (read-byte s nil 'eof)))
101 EOF
NIL
See Also: read-byte

\section*{write-char}

Purpose: The function write-char writes a character to an output stream and returns the given character as its result.

Syntax: write-char character moptional output-stream [Function]
Remarks: If the output-stream argument is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the current value of the variable *standard-output* is used. If output-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.

Examples: > (write-char \# \({ }^{\text {a }}\) )
a
\# \(\backslash\) a
> (with-output-to-string (s) (write-char \#\b s))
"b"

\section*{write-line, write-string}

Purpose: The functions write-line and write-string write a string to an output stream. The function write-line writes a newline character after the string, whereas write-string does not.

The output operation may be restricted to a substring of the original string by specifying the :start and :end keyword arguments.
Both write-line and write-string return the original string as a result.
Syntax: write-string string \&optional output-stream \&key :start :end [Function]
write-line string koptional output-stream kkey :start :end [Function]
Remarks: The :start and :end keyword arguments take integer values that specify offsets into the string. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the substring; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the substring. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the string.

If the output-stream argument is not specified or is nil, the stream that is the value of the variable *standard-output* is used. If output-stream is \(t\), the stream that is the value of *terminal-io* is used.
If any keyword arguments are supplied to write-line or write-string, the optional argument must also be specified. Otherwise the first keyword is taken as the optional argument.

Examples: > (write-string "beans")
beans
"beans"
> (write-line "limas" *standard-output* :end 4) lima
"limas"

\section*{write-to-string, prin1-to-string, princ-to-string}

Purpose: The functions write-to-string, prin1-to-string, and princ-to-string are used to create a string consisting of the printed representation of an object.

The function write-to-string is the general output function. It has the ability to specify all the parameters applicable to the printing of an object.

The functions prin1-to-string and princ-to-string implicitly set certain print parameters to particular values. The remaining parameter values are taken from the global variables *print-escape*, *print-radix*, *print-base*, *print-circle*, *print-pretty*, *print-level*, *print-length*, *print-case*, *print-gensym*, *print-array*, and *print-structure*.
Each of these functions returns the created string as its result.
Syntax:
\(\begin{array}{ll}\text { write-to-string object \&key } & \text { :escape :radix :base } \\ & \text { :circle :pretty :level :length }\end{array}\)
prin1-to-string object
[Function]
princ-to-string object
[Function]
Remarks: The keyword arguments of write-to-string are described below. If any keyword argument is not specified, its value is taken from the corresponding global variable, namely *print-escape*, *print-radix*, *print-base*, *print-circle*, *print-pretty*, *print-level*, *print-length*, *print-case*, *print-gensym*, *print-array*, or *print-structure*.
- The :escape keyword argument controls the printing of escape characters. If the value of :escape is nil, the printing of escape characters is suppressed.
- The value of the :radix keyword argument determines whether a radix indicator is included with each integer or ratio printed. If the value of :radix is non-nil, a radix indicator is printed.
- The value of the :base keyword argument is the numerical base (radix) in which integers and ratios are printed.
- The :circle keyword argument controls the attempt to detect circularity in an object being printed. If :circle is non-nil and a circular object is detected, the \(\# n=\) and \(\# n \#\) constructs are used to denote the circular structure. If :circle is nil, an attempt to print a circular object may cause Common Lisp to loop indefinitely.

\section*{write-to-string, prin1-to-string, princ-to-string}
- The :pretty keyword argument is used to control pretty-printing. If the value of :pretty is non-nil, additional whitespace characters are written to make printed expressions easier to read.
- The :level keyword argument is used to limit the amount of text output when an expression is printed. If an integer value is specified, the printing depth of the expression is limited to that value. A value of nil means that no print limit is imposed.
- The :length keyword argument is used to limit the amount of text output when an expression is printed. An integer value specifies the maximum number of consecutive elements printed at one level. An ellipsis (...) is used to represent further objects at that level. A value of nil means that no print limit is imposed.
- The :case keyword argument determines the case used in printing the names of symbols. The value of :case must be either :upcase, :downcase, or :capitalize. Corresponding to these three possible values, uppercase letters in symbol names are printed in uppercase, in lowercase, or in a combination of cases in which words are capitalized.
- The :gensym keyword argument controls the printing of the names of uninterned symbols. If :gensym is non-nil, the prefix \#: is printed before the name of any uninterned symbol.
- The :array keyword argument controls the format in which arrays are printed. If the value of :array is non-nil, arrays are printed in their entirety with the \#(, \#*, or \#nA syntax. If :array is nil, just enough is printed to identify the array, using the \#<...> syntax.
- The :structure keyword argument controls the printing of structures. If the value of :structure is non-nil, structures are printed in detail, using the \#S syntax. If :structure is nil, they are printed with the abbreviated \#<...> syntax. The :structure keyword argument of write-to-string is an extension to Common Lisp.

The function prin1-to-string acts like write-to-string with :escape \(t\), that is, escape characters are written where appropriate.

The function princ-to-string acts like write-to-string with :escape nil. Thus no escape characters are written.

Examples: > (prin1-to-string "abc")
"\"abc\""
> (princ-to-string "abc")
"abc"
See Also: \begin{tabular}{rl} 
& *print-escape* \\
& *print-radix* \\
& *print-base* \\
& *print-circle* \\
& *print-pretty* \\
& *print-level* \\
& *print-length* \\
& *print-case* \\
& *print-gensym* \\
& *print-array* \\
& *print-structure* \\
& write \\
& prin1 \\
& princ
\end{tabular}

\section*{y-or-n-p, yes-or-no-p}

Purpose: The functions y-or-n-p and yes-or-no-p are used to ask questions of the user; they return \(t\) if the answer was "yes" and nil if the answer was "no."

The function \(\mathbf{y}\)-or-n-p allows the user to answer the question with a Y or an N . It should be used if the question is anticipated or if the resulting decision is not of major impact.

The function yes-or-no-p requires the user to answer with either YES or NO. This function should be used for unexpected questions or for questions with possibly serious impact.

If the format-control-string argument is specified and is non-nil, the function fresh-line is called. Its output is followed by the output of the text specified by the format control string and by a list of response choices.

Syntax: y-or-n-p koptional format-control-string \&rest arguments

Remarks: The stream that is the value of the variable *query-io* is used for all input and output operations.

Both y-or-n-p and yes-or-no-p ignore the alphabetic case in the user's answer.
The section "Formatted Output" explains how the format control string is interpreted and how the elements of arguments are processed.

Examples: > (y-or-n-p "(t or nil) given by")
( \(t\) or nil) given by (Y or N) Y
T
> (yes-or-no-p "a -S message" 'frightening)
a FRIGHTENING message (Yes or No) no
NIL

\section*{Chapter 22. File System Interface}

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\section*{About the File System Interface}

File systems are among the least standardized of the major features of computing environments. Since Common Lisp is designed for use under a variety of operating systems and file systems, it uses its own method for designating files, a method called pathnames. A pathname consists of six fields: host, device, directory, name, type, and version. In many of the functions that require a pathname argument, the argument may be specified as a pathname, a string, or a stream associated with the file. When necessary, a pathname is converted into the description that is appropriate to the outside file system; that description is a string called a namestring.
The six parts of a pathname are as follows:
- The host field specifies the name of the file system that contains the file. When a pathname is specified as a string, if a colon occurs in the string, anything preceding the colon is considered to be the name of the host. Although the host field may be specified as part of a pathname, this information is not used in Sun Common Lisp.
- The device field specifies the name of the physical or logical device that contains the file. Although the device field may be specified as part of a pathname, this information is not used in Sun Common Lisp.
- The directory field specifies the location of the file in the file system in terms of its directory structure.
- The name field specifies a particular set of related files. The source version and the compiled version of a Lisp program generally have the same name.
- The type field specifies the kind or format of the file. This is often the file extension.
- The version field specifies the file version. When a pathname is specified as a string and the character \#, followed by a number, ends that string, the number is the version number of the corresponding file.

The keyword :wild may be used in a pathname argument in functions that permit it. This keyword indicates that the pathname component may match anything.
The keyword :newest may be used in a pathname to specify the most recent version of a file.
The function equal should be used when testing pathnames for equality.
Many functions described in this chapter, such as delete-file, open, and rename-file, are implemented using the functionality provided by the underlying operating system. Thus, their behavior may mirror that of the underlying primitives.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

This section groups file system operations according to functionality.

\section*{Data Type Predicates}
```

pathnamep

```

This predicate determines whether an object is a pathname.

\section*{Operations on Names}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
pathname & pathname-type \\
truename & pathname-version \\
make-pathname & user-homedir-pathname \\
merge-pathnames & namestring \\
rename-file & file-namestring \\
=default-pathname-defaults* & directory-namestring \\
pathname-host & host-namestring \\
pathname-device & enough-namestring \\
pathname-directory & parse-namestring \\
pathname-name &
\end{tabular}

These constructs manipulate pathnames and namestrings.

\section*{Opening Files}
open with-open-file

These functions open files.

\section*{Deleting Files}
delete-file

This function deletes files.

\section*{Loading Files}
\begin{tabular}{|c|}
\hline load \\
\\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These constructs are used to load files.

\section*{File Attributes}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{ll} 
file-author \\
file-length \\
file-position
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l} 
file-write-date \\
probe-file
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These functions provide information about files.

\section*{Directory Functions}
directory

This function examines directories.

\section*{*default-pathname-defaults*}

Purpose: The value of the variable *default-pathname-defaults* is a pathname. This pathname is used whenever a function needs a default pathname and one is not supplied.

Syntax:
Remarks:
The default value of *default-pathname-defaults* is the working directory that was current when Lisp was started up.

Examples: > *default-pathname-defaults* ;current working directory is set to /etc \#P"/etc/"
> (setq *default-pathname-defaults* "/usr/bin/")
"/usr/bin/"
> (setq q "calendar")
"calendar"
> (merge-pathnames (make-pathname :name q))
\#P"/usr/bin/calendar"

\section*{delete-file}

Purpose: The function delete-file deletes the specified file. It returns a non-nil value if it succeeds.

Syntax: delete-file file [Function]
Remarks: The file argument is a pathname, a string, or a stream. If the file argument is an open stream associated with a file, that stream is closed and the file is deleted.
The pathname may not contain a :wild component.
The function delete-file is implemented by using operations provided by the operating system.

Examples: > (with-open-file (s "/tmp/delete-test" :if-does-not-exist :create)
(setq p (merge-pathnames s)))
\#P"/tmp/delete-test"
> (probe-file p)
\#P"/tmp/delete-test"
> (delete-file "/tmp/delete-test")
\#P"/tmp/delete-test"
> (probe-file p)
NIL
> (setq p (merge-pathnames
(setq s (open "/tmp/delete-test" :direction :output)))
\#P"/tmp/delete-test"
> (probe-file p)
\#P"/tmp/delete-test"
> (probe-file s)
\#P"/tmp/delete-test"
> (delete-file s)
\#P"/tmp/delete-test"
> (probe-file p)
NIL
> (probe-file s)
NIL

\section*{directory}
Purpose: \begin{tabular}{l} 
The function directory is used to examine a file system directory. It returns a \\
list of the pathnames of all files in the system that correspond to the pathname \\
argument.
\end{tabular}
Syntax: \(\quad\) directory pathname

Remarks: The pathname argument is a pathname, a string, or a stream associated with a file.
Use of the keyword :wild is permitted in the pathname. It indicates that the corresponding pathname component may match anything.

Examples: ;i; assume that there is a subdirectory under /tmp that contains i; ; three files called \(a, b\), and \(c\)
> (directory "/tmp/sub")
(\#P"/tmp/sub")
> (directory "/tmp/sub/")
(\#P"/tmp/sub/c" \#P"/tmp/sub/b" \#P"/tmp/sub/a")

\section*{enough-namestring}

Purpose: The function enough-namestring converts its pathname argument into a namestring. It returns a shortened version of that namestring that is sufficient to identify the file when merged with the pathname defaults.

Syntax:
enough-namestring pathname koptional defaults
[Function]
Remarks: If the defaults argument is not specified, the value of the variable *default-pathname-defaults* is used.
The pathname argument is a pathname, a string, a symbol, or a stream that is or was associated with a file.

If pathname is a stream, the namestring is the name used to open the file. This name may be different from the true name of the file.
```

Examples: > *default-pathname-defaults* ;current working directory is set
\#P"/etc/" ;to /etc
> (enough-namestring "passwd")
"passwd"
> (setq q (make-pathname :name "passwd"
:directory
(pathname-directory *default-pathname-defaults*)))
\#P"/etc/passwd"
> (enough-namestring q *default-pathname-defaults*)
"passwd"
> (enough-namestring q "/etc/")
"passwd"
> (enough-namestring q)
"passwd"

```

See Also: merge-pathnames namestring

\section*{file-author}

Purpose: The function file-author returns the name of the author or last writer of the file as a string. If the name cannot be determined by the operating system, file-author returns nil.

Syntax: file-author file
[Function]
Remarks: The file argument is a pathname, a string, or a stream that is open to a file.
\(\begin{aligned} \text { Examples: } & \text { > *default-pathname-defaults* } \\ & \text { \#P"/etc/" } \\ & \text { > (setq s (open (merge-pathnames "passwd"))) } \\ & \text { \#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101DB7CB> } \\ & \text { > (file-author s) } \\ & \text { "root" } \\ & \text { > (file-author "/etc/passwd") } \\ & \text { "root" }\end{aligned}\)

\section*{file-length}

Purpose: The function file-length returns the length of the specified file as a nonnegative integer. If the length cannot be determined by the operating system, file-length returns nil.

Syntax: file-length file-stream \(\quad[\) Function \(]\)
Remarks: The file-stream argument must be a stream that is open to a file.
The unit of length for a binary file is that specified by the :element-type argument used in the open command that created the stream.

Examples:
```

> (setq s (open "/tmp/file-len-test"
:direction :output
:if-exists :supersede))
\#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101DC673>
> (format s "O123456789")
NIL
> (file-length s)
10

```

See Also: open

\section*{file-position}

Purpose: The function file-position returns the current position within a file or sets that position. Its action depends on whether the position argument is specified.
If the position argument is omitted, file-position returns a nonnegative integer that indicates the current position in the file. If this position cannot be determined by the operating system, file-position returns nil.

If the position argument is specified, file-position sets the current position in the file to that value. The position may be specified by a nonnegative integer, by the keyword :start, or by the keyword :end. If position is too large, an error is signaled. The function file-position returns a non-nil value if the operation succeeds; otherwise it returns nil.

Syntax: file-position file-stream koptional position
Remarks: The file-stream argument must be a stream that is open to a random-access file.
The position is given in units corresponding to the element type argument specified when the file was opened.
The value of the starting position is 0 .
```

Examples: > (setq s (open "/tmp/file-pos-test"
:direction :output
:if-exists :supersede))
\#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101DCF3B>
> (file-position s)
O
> (format s "abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzzyxwvutsrqponmlkjihgfedcba")
NIL
> (file-position s)
5 2

```

See Also: open
file-length

\section*{file-write-date}

Purpose: The function file-write-date returns in universal time format the time at which the file was last written (or created). This value is an integer. If the time cannot be determined by the operating system, file-write-date returns nil.

Syntax:
file-write-date file
[Function]
Remarks: The file argument is a pathname, a string, or a stream that is open to a file.

\section*{load, *load-verbose*}

Purpose: The function load reads the file specified by the filename argument and evaluates each form in that file. A non-nil value is returned if the operation is successful.
The variable *load-verbose* provides a default value for the :verbose argument of load. The initial value of \(*\) load-verbose \(*\) is nil.

Syntax: load filename tkey :verbose :print :if-does-not-exist
*load-verbose*
[Variable]
Remarks: The filename argument is a pathname, stream, string, or symbol. If the filename argument is not fully specified, default values are taken from the value of the variable *default-pathname-defaults* by using the function merge-pathnames.
If the file type is not specified and both source and binary versions of the file exist, load will use the binary version if it is more recent. If the source version is more recent, load asks the user to specify the action to be taken.

If the filename argument specifies a stream, load determines the type of the stream and loads directly from the stream.

The keyword arguments control details of the performance of the function load.
If the :verbose argument is non-nil, load prints information about its progress on the standard output. The default value of this argument is nil.
If the :print argument is non-nil, load prints the value of each expression that is loaded on the standard output. The default value of this argument is nil.
The :if-does-not-exist argument controls what happens if the specified file does not exist. The function load calls the function open with the :if-does-not-exist argument bound to this value. This value can be either :error (signal an error), :create (create an empty file), or nil (return nil from the function load). It defaults to :error.
```

Examples: i;; assuming the file/test/load-test-file.lisp contains
;;;
;;; 1
;;; (setq a 888)
;;;
;;; then...
> (load "/test/load-test-file")
\#P"/test/load-test-file.lisp"
> a
88
> (load (setq p (merge-pathnames "/test/load-test-file")) :verbose t)
;;; Loading source file "/test/load-test-file.lisp"
\#P"/test/load-test-file.lisp"
> (load p :print t)
1
88
\#P"/test/load-test-file.lisp"

| See Also: | merge-pathnames |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | error |

```

\section*{make-pathname}

Purpose: The function make-pathname constructs a pathname from the specified keyword arguments and returns the result. Any fields of the pathname that are left unspecified are filled with the corresponding values from the :defaults argument.

Syntax:
```

make-pathname \&key :host :device :directory :name [Function]
:type :version :defaults

```

Remarks: If the :defaults argument is not specified, the value of *default-pathnamedefaults* is used by merge-pathnames to supply the host component, if it is missing. Any other missing components will be nil.

The :directory argument is a list of directories leading to the desired directory.
The :version argument is an integer.
The other keyword arguments are strings.
Although the host and device fields may be specified as part of a pathname, this information is not used in Sun Common Lisp.
```

Examples: > *default-pathname-defaults*
\#P"/etc/"
> (setq q (make-pathname :name "getty"
:directory
(pathname-directory *default-pathname-defaults*)))
\#P"/etc/getty"
> (pathnamep q)
T
> (make-pathname :directory (list "dev") :name "ttya")
\#P"/dev/ttya"
> (make-pathname :directory (list "usr" "bin") :name "calendar")
\#P"/usr/bin/calendar"
> (make-pathname :host "edsel"
:directory (pathname-directory *default-pathname-defaults*)
:name "getty")
\#P"edsel:/etc/getty"
> (make-pathname :directory (pathname-directory *default-pathname-defaults*)
:name "getty" :version 1)
\#P"/etc/getty\#1"
> (make-pathname :directory (list "usr" "include")
:name "stdio" :type "h")
\#P"/usr/include/stdio.h"

```

See Also: merge-pathnames

\section*{merge-pathnames}

Purpose: The function merge-pathnames constructs a pathname from the pathname argument by filling in any unspecified components with the corresponding values from the defaults and default-version arguments. It returns the resulting pathname.

Syntax
merge-pathnames pathname \&optional defaults default-version
[Function]
Remarks: The pathname and defaults arguments are each a pathname, a string, a symbol, or a stream.
If the defaults argument is not specified, the value of \(*\) default-pathnamedefaults* is used.

If pathname specifies a host but not a device, the value for the device is taken from the defaults argument only if the two hosts agree. Otherwise the device is set to the default device for that host.

If pathname specifies a name but not a version, the version is copied from defaultversion rather than from defaults. If the pathname argument does not specify a name component, the version is copied from defaults, if defaults specifies a version. If defaults does not have a version, the version is copied from default-version. If the default-version argument is also not specified, the newest version is used. If default-version is nil, the version component will remain unspecified.
```

Examples: > *default-pathname-defaults* ;current working directory is set
\#P"/etc/" ;to /etc
> (merge-pathnames "")
\#P"/etc/"
> (merge-pathnames "subdir")
\#P"/etc/subdir"
> (setq q (merge-pathnames "subdir/"))
\#P"subdir/"
> (truename q)
\#P"/etc/subdir/"
> (merge-pathnames "/subdir/")
\#P"/subdir/"
> (setq q (merge-pathnames "subdir/isfile"))
\#P"subdir/isfile"
> (truename q) ;file /etc/subdir/isfile exists
\#P"/etc/subdir/isfile"

```
```

    > (setq q (merge-pathnames "subdir/" "isfile"))
    #P"subdir/isfile"
    > (truename q)
    #P"/etc/subdir/isfile*
    ```

See Also: *default-pathname-defaults*

\section*{namestring, file-namestring, directory-namestring, host-namestring}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{5}{*}{Purpose:} & These functions convert a pathname argument into a namestring and return the result. \\
\hline & The function namestring returns the namestring that corresponds to the specified pathname components. If the value of pathname is a string, that string is returned. \\
\hline & The function file-namestring returns only that part of the namestring that corresponds to the name, type, and version components of the pathname. \\
\hline & The function directory-namestring returns only that part of the namestring that corresponds to the directory component. \\
\hline & The function host-namestring returns only that part of the namestring that corresponds to the host component. \\
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{Syntax:} & namestring pathname [Function] \\
\hline & file-namestring pathname [Function] \\
\hline & directory-namestring pathname [Function] \\
\hline & host-namestring pathname [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Remarks: The pathname argument is a pathname, a string, a symbol, or a stream.
If pathname is a stream, the namestring is the name used to open the file. This name may be different from the true name of the file.
```

Examples: > (namestring "getty") ;current working directory is /etc
"getty"
> (setq q (make-pathname :host "edsel"
:directory
(pathname-directory *default-pathname-defaults*)
:name "getty"))
\#P"edsel:/etc/getty"
> (file-namestring q)
"getty"
> (directory-namestring q)
"/etc/"
> (host-namestring q)
"edsel"

```

See Also: truename

\section*{open}

Purpose: The function open opens the specified file and returns a stream that is connected to it.

Syntax: open filename \&key :direction :element-type [Function]
:if-exists :if-does-not-exist
Remarks: The filename argument may be a pathname, a string, or a stream.
The function open may be used with the following keyword arguments:
The :direction argument determines the direction of the stream. Its value is one of the following keywords:
- The keyword :input specifies an input stream; this is the default.
- The keyword :output specifies an output stream.
- The keyword :io specifies a bidirectional stream.
- The keyword :probe checks to see if the file exists.

The :element-type argument determines the basic unit for the stream. It must be a type-specifier for a bounded subrange of integer or character. If the keyword :default is specified or if no :element-type argument is given, a default character type is used.
The :if-exists argument is relevant if the stream is open for output and the specified file already exists. Its value is one of the following keywords:
- The keyword :error causes an error to be signaled if the file already exists. It is the default if the version is not :newest.
- The keyword :new-version causes the creation of a new file with the same name but a larger version number. It is the default if the version is :newest.
- The keyword :rename causes the old file to be renamed and a new file with the specified name to be created.
- The keyword :rename-and-delete causes the old file to be renamed and then deleted. A new file is created with the specified name.
- The keyword :overwrite uses the existing file. The file pointer is set to the beginning of the file. Output to the stream modifies the file.
- The keyword :append uses the existing file. Output to the stream modifies the file. The file pointer is set to the end of the file.
- The keyword :supersede replaces the existing file. It does not use a new version number.
- The keyword nil causes open to fail, returning nil.

The :if-does-not-exist argument specifies the action to be taken if the file does not exist. Its value is one of the following:
- The keyword :error signals an error if the file does not exist. This is the default if the direction is :input or if the :if-exists argument is :append or :overwrite.
- The keyword :create causes the creation of an empty file with the specified name. This is the default if the direction is :output or :io, or if the :if-exists argument is not :append or :overwrite.
- The value nil causes open to fail, returning nil. This is the default if the :direction argument is :probe.
```

Examples: > (open "/dev/ttya" :direction :probe)
\#<Stream %STREAM 101DB6B3>
> (setq q (merge-pathnames (user-homedir-pathname) "mbox"))
\#P"/u/foo/mbox" ;home directory is /u/foo
> (open q :direction :output :if-exists :append)
\#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101DCA23>
> (open "/tmp/bar" :if-does-not-exist :create) ;file bar does not
\#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101DCA33> ;exist in /tmp
> (setq s (open "/tmp/bar" :direction :probe))
\#<Stream %sTREAM 101DCD43>
> (truename s)
\#P"/tmp/bar"
> (open s :direction :output :if-exists nil)
NIL

```

See Also: with-open-file
close

\section*{parse-namestring}

Purpose: The function parse-namestring converts its thing argument into a pathname and returns the result.

Syntax: parse-namestring thing zoptional host defaults [Function]
\&key :start : end : junk-allowed
Remarks: The thing argument may be a pathname, a string, a symbol, or a stream. If a symbol is specified, the print name of the symbol is used.

If the host argument is specified, the thing argument must not specify a host unless the two are the same. If neither thing nor hosts specifies a host, a host field is taken from defaults. This argument defaults to *default-pathname-defaults*.

If a string or symbol (print name) is specified, the :start and :end keyword arguments may be used to restrict the parsing operation to a substring of the string. The keyword arguments :start and :end take integer values that specify offsets into the original string. The :start argument marks the beginning position of the substring; the :end argument marks the position following the last element of the substring. The start value defaults to 0 ; the end value defaults to the length of the string.
If :junk-allowed is nil, the entire substring is parsed, and the resulting pathname is returned. An error is signaled if the substring contains anything besides a valid pathname. If :junk-allowed is non-nil, the pathname that is parsed is returned. If a syntactically correct pathname is not found, nil is returned. The default value for : junk-allowed is nil.

A second value is also returned; this value is the index into the string that corresponds to the position following the last one that was part of the pathname.

If the thing argument is not a string or a symbol, the second value is the start value.

Note that if the keyword arguments are to be used, the optional arguments must also be given.
```

Examples: > (setq q (parse-namestring "/etc/getty"))
\#P"/etc/getty"
> (pathnamep q)
T
> (parse-namestring "getty")
\#P"getty"
5
> (setq s (open "/usr/include/sys/types.h"))
\#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101DE06B>
> (parse-namestring s)
\#P"/usr/include/sys/types.h"
O
> (parse-namestring "/usr/include/sys/types.h" nil nil :start 6 :end 15 )
\#P"nclude/sy"
15
> (parse-namestring s nil nil :start 5 :end 12)
\#P"/usr/include/sys/types.h"
5

```

\section*{pathname}

Purpose: The function pathname converts its argument into a pathname and returns the result.

Syntax: pathname pathname [Function]
Remarks: The pathname argument is a pathname, a string, a symbol, or a stream.
Examples: > (pathname "/etc/getty")
\#P"/etc/getty"
> (setq p (pathname \(/\) /etc/getty))
\#P"/ETC/GETTY"
> (pathnamep p)
\(T\)
> (eq p (pathname p)) ;no conversion
T ;required
> (eq (pathname \(/ / e t c /\) getty) (pathname \(\cdot /\) etc/getty)) ;creates new
\(\gg\) NIL \(\left(\right.\) setq s (open \({ }^{\text {n/etc/getty")) }}\)
\#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101E1503>
> (pathname s)
\#P"/etc/getty"

\title{
pathname-host, pathname-device, pathname-directory, pathname-name, pathname-type, pathname-version
}

Purpose: These functions return the corresponding components of the pathname argument.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Syntax: & pathname-host pathname & [Function] \\
& pathname-device pathname & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
& pathname-directory pathname & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
& pathname-name pathname & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
& pathname-type pathname & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
& pathname-version pathname & {\([\) Function \(]\)}
\end{tabular}

Remarks: The pathname argument is a pathname, a string, a symbol, or a stream.
The device component is not used in Sun Common Lisp. The function pathnamedevice returns nil.

The version component is returned as an integer or nil.
The directory component is returned as a list of strings or symbols or as nil.
All other specified components are returned as strings or nil.
Examples: > *default-pathname-defaults* ;current working directory is \#P"/usr/lucid/src/" ;/usr/lucid/src
> (pathname-directory "chase.c")
(:RELATIVE)
> (pathname-version "chase.c")
NIL
> (setq q (make-pathname :host "edsel"
:directory (list "usr" "lucid" "src")
:name "chase" :type "c"))
\#P"edsel:/usr/lucid/src/chase.c"
> (pathname-host q)
"edsel"
> (pathname-directory q)
("usr" "lucid" "src")
> (pathname-name q)
"chase"
> (pathname-type q) "c"

\section*{pathnamep}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Purpose: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The predicate pathnamep is true if its argument is a pathname; otherwise it is \\
false.
\end{tabular} \\
Syntax: & pathnamep object \\
Examples: & \\
& > (setq q "/etc/getty") \\
& "/etc/getty" \\
& \(>\) (pathnetion] \\
& NIL \\
& \(>\) (setq q (pathname "/etc/getty")) \\
& \#P"/etc/getty" \\
& \(>\) \\
& T (pathnamep q)
\end{tabular}

\section*{probe-file}

Purpose: The function probe-file tests whether a file exists. It returns nil if the specified file does not exist. Otherwise it returns the true name of the file.

Syntax: probe-file file
[Function]
Remarks: The file argument is a pathname, a string, or a stream that is open to a file.
Examples: > *default-pathname-defaults*
\#P"/etc/"
> (probe-file (make-pathname :directory (pathname-directory *default-pathname-defaults*) :name "passwd")))
\#P"/etc/passwd"
> (probe-file "/dev/ttya")
\#P"/dev/ttya"
> (probe-file "/dev/nofile")
NIL
See Also: truename
open

\section*{rename-file}

Purpose: The function rename-file modifies the file system in such a way that the file indicated by file is renamed to new-name.
The function rename-file returns three values. The first is new-name with any missing components supplied from file; the second and third values are the true names of the file, before and after renaming respectively.

Syntax: rename-file file new-name [Function]
Remarks: The file argument is a pathname, stream, or string. The new-name argument is a pathname, string, or symbol.
The function rename-file is implemented by using operations provided by the operating system.

Examples: > (with-open-file (s "/tmp/rename-test.a" :if-does-not-exist :create) (setq p (merge-pathnames s)))
\#P"/tmp/rename-test.a"
> (rename-file "/tmp/rename-test.a" "rename-test.b")
\#P"/tmp/rename-test.b"
\#P"/tmp/rename-test.a"
\#P"/tmp/rename-test.b"
> (probe-file p) NIL

See Also: truename

\section*{truename}

Purpose: The function truename tries to find the file indicated by its pathname argument. If it finds that file, it returns the true name of that file, that is, it returns the name that the operating system considers to be the primary name for the file. This name is returned as a pathname. If the file cannot be found, truename signals an error.

Syntax: truename pathname
[Function]
Remarks: The pathname argument is a pathname, a string, a symbol, or a stream.
Examples:
```

> *default-pathname-defaults* ;current working directory is
\#P"/usr/"
;set to /usr
> (setq s (open "/etc/passwd"))
\#<Stream BUFFERED-STREAM 101DB763>
> (truename s)
\#P"/etc/passwd"
> (truename "bin")
\#P"/usr/bin"

```

\section*{user-homedir-pathname}

Purpose: The function user-homedir-pathname returns a pathname that corresponds to the user's home directory on the machine host. The name, type, and version components that are returned are always nil. The function user-homedirpathname returns nil if it cannot determine what the home directory is.

Syntax: user-homedir-pathname toptional host [Function]
Remarks: If the host argument is not specified, user-homedir-pathname always succeeds.
Examples: > (pathnamep (user-homedir-pathname))
T
> (file-namestring (user-homedir-pathname))
""

\section*{with-open-file}

Purpose: The macro with-open-file uses open to generate a stream that reads or writes the specified file. The macro then performs a specified series of actions on the open file.

The options arguments are passed as arguments to open. The stream that open returns is bound to the variable stream. The form arguments are then executed in order.

Syntax: \(\quad\) with-open-file (stream filename \(\left\{\begin{array}{l}\left.\text { options }\}^{*}\right)\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*} \quad[\text { Macro] }\end{array}\right.\)
Remarks: The filename argument specifies the file that is to be opened; filename is a pathname, a string, or a stream.
The file is closed automatically when with-open-file terminates or aborts.
Examples: > (setq p (merge-pathnames "/tmp/w-open-fl.tmp"))
\#P"/tmp/w-open-fl.tmp"
> (with-open-file (s p :direction :output :if-exists :supersede)
(format s "Here are a couple \(\%\) of test data lines \(\%\) " \({ }^{\sim}\) )
NIL
> (with-open-file (s p)
(do ((l (read-line s) (read-line s nil 'eof)))
((eq 1 'eof) "Reached end-of-file")
(format \(t "==>\sim A \%{ }^{-1}\) )))
\(\Rightarrow\) Here are a couple
\(\Rightarrow\) =of test data lines
"Reached end-of-file"
See Also: open
close
\(\qquad\)

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Chapter 23. Errors

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\section*{About Errors}

Common Lisp provides a variety of facilities for signaling errors.
An error causes Common Lisp to stop whatever it is doing and enter the debugger. The debugger then displays some information about what caused the error and the courses of action available to the user. Errors may be either continuable or fatal. A continuable error allows the program to regain control and to provide options for repairing the cause of the error. A fatal error is one that forces the current computation to end.

A warning causes a warning message to be issued. The user may specify whether a warning is to cause the debugger to be entered.
A break causes the debugger to be entered. It is possible to continue from a break. The break facility is intended for use in debugging.
The user is referred to the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide for a more detailed discussion of debugging facilities.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

This section groups error-signaling operations according to functionality.

\section*{General Error-Signaling Facilities}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline error & \begin{tabular}{l} 
warn \\
cerror \\
break
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These constructs are used to signal errors.

\section*{Specialized Error Checking}
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline assert & check-type \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These functions perform specific tests and may signal continuable errors.

\section*{assert}

Purpose: The macro assert tests whether a given form evaluates to nil. If the specified test form evaluates to nil, assert signals a continuable error and causes the debugger to be entered. If the value of the test form is non-nil, assert returns nil.

If the user continues from such an error, assert prompts for new values for the generalized variables specified by the place arguments. It then re-evaluates the test-form argument. If test-form again evaluates to nil, assert once again signals a continuable error. When test-form evaluates to non-nil, assert returns nil.

Syntax: assert test-form [(\{place\}*) [format-string \(\left.\left.\{\text { arg }\}^{*}\right]\right]\)
Remarks: Each place argument must be a generalized variable acceptable to the macro setf.
The function format is used to produce a string from the format-string and arg arguments. That string is passed on to the debugger for use as an error message. The format-string and arg arguments are evaluated only if an error is signaled.

Examples: > (defun assert-example ( \(x\) ) (assert (numberp \(x\) ) ( \(x\) )) ( \(+x\) x)) ASSERT-EXAMPLE
> (compile 'assert-example)
;:; Compiling function ASSERT-EXAMPLE...assembling...emitting...done. ASSERT-EXAMPLE
\(>\) (assert-example t)
>>Error: Assert form (NUMBERP X) failed.
ASSERT-RUNTIME:
Required arg 0 (PLACES-LIST): (X)
Required arg 1 (FORM): (NUMBERP X)
Required arg 2 (STRING): NIL
Required arg 3 (ARGS): NIL
:A Abort to Lisp Top Level
:C Replace some values and test the assertion again
-> :c
Replace some values and test the assertion again
Give a new value for X ? ( Y or N ) y
Form to evaluate and store as the value of X : 2
4
See Also: format

\section*{break}

Purpose: The function break causes the debugger to be entered. It is possible to continue from a break.

When the user continues from the breakpoint, break returns nil.
Syntax: break \&optional format-string \&rest args
[Function]
Remarks: The function break is intended for use in debugging; it allows the user to examine values and then continue the computation.

The function format is used to generate a string from the arguments to break. That string is passed on to the debugger for use as a break message.

Examples: > (break "a break message with "S" 'arguments)
>>Break: a break message with ARGUMENTS
EVAL:
Required arg 0 (EXPRESSION): (BREAK "a break message with ~S" (QUOTE ARGUMENTS))
:A Abort to Lisp Top Level
:C Return from break
-> :c
Return from break
NIL
See Also: format

\section*{cerror}

Purpose: The function cerror signals a continuable error and causes the debugger to be entered.

If the user continues from the error, cerror returns nil.
Syntax: cerror continue-format-string error-format-string trest args [Function]
Remarks: The function format is used to generate strings from the arguments to cerror. Those strings are passed on to the debugger. The error-format-string argument is used to produce an error message when the debugger is entered. The continue-format-string is used to describe directions for or the effect of continuing from the error.

Examples: > (defun foo (a)
(loop (when (numberp a) (return ( \(1+\) a))) (cerror "enter new value" "~s is not a number" a) (format t " -> ") (setq a (read))))
FOO
> (compile 'foo)
;: ; Compiling function F00...assembling...emitting...done. FOO
\(>\) (foo 1)
2
\(>\) (foo t)
> Error: \(T\) is not a number
F00:
Required arg 0 (A): T
:A Abort to Lisp Top Level
:C enter new value
-> :c
enter new value -> 2
3
See Also: error
format

\section*{check-type}

Purpose: The macro check-type tests the type of the value of a generalized variable. It signals a continuable error if the value in place is not of type typespec. If the value is of the specified type, check-type returns nil.

If the user continues from such an error, check-type prompts for a new value for the generalized variable specified by the place argument. It then tests the type of the new value of the variable. If the value is not of the specified type, check-type once again signals a continuable error. When the value in place is of the specified type, check-type returns nil.

Syntax: check-type place typespec \&optional string [Macro]
Remarks: The place argument must be a generalized variable acceptable to the macro setf.
The typespec argument is a type specifier; it is not evaluated.
The string argument should describe the desired type; it is used to provide an error message. If string is not present, a string is generated automatically from typespec.

Examples: > (defun foo (a) (check-type a integer) (+ a a) )
FOO
> (compile 'foo)
;; ; Compiling function FOO...assembling...emitting...done.
FOO
\(>\) (foo 1)
2
\(>\) (foo t)
>>Error: T should be of type INTEGER
FOO:
Required arg \(0(A): T\)
```

:A Abort to Lisp Top Level
:C Supply a new value
-> :c
Supply a new value
Enter a form to be evaluated: (+ 3 4)
Value is 7, OK? (Y or N) y
14

```

\section*{error}

Purpose: The function error signals a fatal error and causes the debugger to be entered.
Syntax: error format-string \&rest args [Function]
Remarks: The function format is used to generate a string from the arguments to error. That string is passed on to the debugger for use as an error message.

Examples: > (error "Uncontinuable problem")
>>Error: Uncontinuable problem

EVAL:
Required arg 0 (EXPRESSION): (ERROR "Uncontinuable problem")
:A Abort to Lisp Top Level
-> :a
Back to Lisp Top Level
\(>(s e t q a \quad\) 'foo)
FOO
> (if (numberp a) ( \(1+\mathrm{a}\) )
(error "~S is not a number" a))
>>Error: FOO is not a number
EVAL:
Required arg 0 (EXPRESSION): (ERROR "~S is not a number" A)
:A Abort to Lisp Top Level
-> : a
Back to Lisp Top Level
See Also: cerror
format

\section*{warn, *break-on-warnings*}

Purpose: The function warn prints an error message and may cause the debugger to be entered.

The variable *break-on-warnings* controls the behavior of warn. If *break-on-warnings* is nil, warn prints an error message and returns nil. If the value of *break-on-warnings* is non-nil, warn also causes the debugger to be entered. When the user continues from the debugger, warn returns nil.

Syntax: warn format-string \&rest args [Function]
*break-on-warnings* [Variable]
Remarks: The initial value of *break-on-warnings* is nil.
The function format is used to generate a string from the arguments to warn.
These arguments should provide the error message.
Examples: > *break-on-warnings*
NIL
> (warn "caveat emptor")
;:; Warning: caveat emptor
NIL
> (let ((*break-on-warnings* t)) (warn "caveat emptor"))
>>Break on warning: caveat emptor
WARN:
Required arg O (FORMAT-STRING): "caveat emptor"
Rest arg (FORMAT-ARGS): NIL
:A Abort to Lisp Top Level
:C Return from break on warning
-> :c
Return from break on warning
NIL
See Also: break
format

\section*{Chapter 24. Environmental Features}

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\section*{About Environmental Features}

Common Lisp supplies various tools that allow the user to interact with the programming environment. These facilities include a compiler, debugging facilities, an editor, time functions, and functions for obtaining information about the current system.

The user is referred to the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide for a more detailed presentation of the compiler, debugging facilities, and the editor.

\section*{The Compiler}

The compiler transforms Common Lisp code into a form that is more efficient to execute than interpreted code. Generally, compiled code behaves like its interpreted counterpart but does not do as much checking for errors.
Another important difference between the interpreter and the compiler lies in the treatment of declarations. Those declarations that are ignored by the interpreter are often used by the compiler as advice in order to produce faster and more efficient code. This applies in particular to type declarations.

The compiler is discussed in the chapter "Compiling Lisp Programs" of the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

\section*{Debugging Facilities}

Sun Common Lisp provides extensive facilities for debugging programs. When an error or interrupt occurs, an interactive debugger is entered that allows the dynamic status of the program to be examined. The debugger is described in the chapter "Debugging Lisp Programs" of the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

The trace facility is a tool for debugging. It allows one or more functions to be traced and provides the ability to perform certain actions at the time a function is called or at the time it exits. The trace facility is described in the chapter "Tracing Functions" of the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

The step facility allows the user to examine program behavior by stepping through the evaluation of forms and functions. The step macro is intended for use on interpreted functions. The step facility is described in the chapter "Stepping Through an Evaluation" of the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

The inspector facility allows the user to inspect data structures. It displays the components of the selected objects and allows them to be modified. The inspector facility is described in the chapter "Inspecting Data Structures" of the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

\section*{Time}

Common Lisp uses three formats to represent time:
In the Universal Time format, time is measured in seconds. The representation of an interval of time is the nonnegative integer that specifies the number of seconds in the interval. The representation of a particular time is the nonnegative integer that specifies the number of seconds from midnight Janunary 1, 1900 GMT until the particular time. Note that times prior to January 1, 1900 GMT cannot be represented.

In the Internal Time format, time is measured in implementation-dependent units. The representation of an interval is the nonnegative integer that specifies the number of units in the interval. The representation of a particular time is the number of units from an arbitrary time (for example, when the machine was booted) until that particular time.

The Decoded Time format is used only for a particular time. This format has the following nine fields:
- The second is an integer in the range \([0,60)\).
- The minute is an integer in the range \([0,60)\).
- The hour is an integer in the range \([0,24)\).
- The date is an integer in the range [1,31]; the actual upper bound of the interval depends on the month and year of the particular date.
- The month is an integer in the range [1,12].
- The year is a nonnegative integer. If the integer is less than 100 , it indicates the year in the range [current year -50 , current year +50 ) with those last two digits.
- The day of the week is an integer in the range \([0,6] ; 0\) means Monday, 1 means Tuesday, and so on.
- The daylight-saving-time flag, if non-nil, indicates that daylight saving time is in effect.
- The time zone is an integer in the range \([0,24)\); it is the number of hours from GMT west to the particular time zone.

\section*{Categories of Operations}

This section groups environmental features according to functionality.

\section*{Compilation}
```

compile
disassemble
compile-file
disassemble

```

These functions are used to compile and disassemble code.

\section*{Debugging Facilities}
```

trace apropos-list
untrace arglist
step describe
inspect
dribble
apropos
apropos-list
arglist
describe
dribble apropos

```

These functions are used in debugging.

\section*{Documentation}

\section*{documentation}

This function is used to add documentation to programs.

\section*{Editor}
ed

This function invokes the editor.

\section*{Time Functions}
```

get-decoded-time
get-universal-time
decode-universal-time
encode-universal-time
internal-time-units-per-second
get-internal-run-time
get-internal-real-time
time
sleep

```

These functions provide timing facilities and information about time.

\section*{Other Environmental Functions}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
lisp-implementation-type & software-version \\
lisp-implementation-version & short-site-name \\
machine-type & long-site-name \\
machine-version & *features* \\
machine-instance & room \\
software-type &
\end{tabular}

These constructs provide information about the current implementation and the system on which Common Lisp is running.

\section*{Quitting Lisp}
\(\square\)
These functions terminate the current invocation of Lisp.
abort

Purpose: The function abort is used to exit from Lisp. It terminates the Lisp environment. It immediately returns the user to the operating system environment.

Syntax: abort \&optional status
[Function]
Remarks: The optional argument status sets the exit status of the process that was running Lisp. It defaults to 0 .
The function abort is an extension to Common Lisp.
See Also: quit

\section*{apropos, apropos-list}

Purpose: The functions apropos and apropos-list are used to find all the symbols in the current environment whose print names contain a specified string.

The function apropos prints the names of the symbols that were found and information about the function definition and the value of those symbols on the standard output. It returns no values.

The function apropos-list returns a list of the symbols that were found.
Syntax:
apropos string \&optional package
[Function]
apropos-list string \&optional package
[Function]
Remarks: The string argument may be either a string or a symbol. If it is a symbol, the symbol's print name is used.

If the package argument is specified, only symbols in that package will be found by either function.

The standard output is defined by the value of the variable *standard-output*.

\section*{arglist}

Purpose: The function arglist returns a list that describes the arguments to a function.
Syntax: arglist function
[Function]
Remarks: The function argument may be a function object or a symbol. If the argument is a function or a symbol that has a function definition, a list that describes the arguments of the function is returned. Otherwise, an error is signaled.

The function arglist is an extension to Common Lisp.

\section*{compile}

Purpose: The function compile compiles an interpreted function in the current Lisp environment.

The function compile produces a compiled code object from a lambda expression. The lambda expression is specified by the definition argument if it is present; otherwise the function definition associated with the symbol name is used.

If the name argument is non-nil, compile sets the function definition associated with the specified symbol to the compiled code object and returns that symbol. Otherwise if name is nil, compile returns the compiled code object.

Syntax: compile name zoptional definition [Function]
Remarks: Use of the compiler is discussed further in the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.
```

Examples: > (defun foo () "bar")
F00
> (compiled-function-p \#'foo)
NIL
> (compile 'foo)
;:; Gompiling function F00...assembling...emitting...done.
F00
> (compiled-function-p \#'foo)
T
> (setf (symbol-function 'foo)
(compile nil \#'(lambda () "replaced")))
;;; Compiling function...assembling...emitting...done.
\#<Compiled-Function 4BEE9F>
> (foo)
"replaced"
See Also: compile-file

```

\section*{compile-file}

Purpose: The function compile-file produces binary files from Lisp source files. It converts the file specified by the input-pathname argument into compiled code. The :output-file argument, if present, specifies where to put the compiled code.

\author{
Syntax:
}
\(\begin{aligned} \text { compile-file input-pathname \&key } & \text { :output-file } \\ & \text { :messages } \\ & : \text { warnings } \\ & \text { :fast-entry } \\ & : \text { tail-merge } \\ & \text { :notinline } \\ & \text { :target }\end{aligned}\)
Remarks: The binary file produced by compile-file overwrites any file with the same name.
If the :output-file option is specified, the corresponding argument should be a pathname or a string describing a valid filename. The binary file that is produced is given that name. If this option is not specified or if it is bound to nil, the binary file in question is named in the following way. If the source file has the extension .lisp, that extension is changed to .lbin if the value of the :target option is the default or to .2 bin if the value of the :target option is \(\mathbf{6 8 0 2 0}\). Otherwise the extension . 1 bin or .2 bin is concatenated to the end of the source filename.

The following keyword options are extensions to Common Lisp.
The keyword argument :messages controls the progress messages issued by the compiler. A value of nil means issue no progress messages; otherwise the value should specify a stream to which messages can be sent. The default value is \(t\), which sends the messages to the standard output.

The keyword argument :warnings controls the warnings issued by the compiler. A value of nil means issue no warnings; otherwise the value must specify a stream to which warnings can be sent. The default value is \(t\), which causes the warnings to be sent to the stream that is the value of *error-output*.
If the :fast-entry keyword argument has a non-nil value, the compiler does not insert code to check the number of arguments on entry to a function with a fixed number of arguments. Thus calls to functions compiled in this manner are slightly faster. The default value of :fast-entry is nil.
If the :tail-merge keyword argument has a non-nil value, the compiler converts tail-recursive calls to iterative constructions and thus eliminates the overhead of some function calls. The default value of :tail-merge is \(\mathbf{t}\).

If the :notinline keyword argument has a non-nil value, the compiler behaves as if all functions have been declared notinline. The default value of :notinline is nil.

If the value of the :target option is 68020 , the Compiler generates binary files specifically for the MC68020 processor. Such files will run slightly faster in some cases, but they will not run on MC68010 processors. The binary files produced have a default extension of .2 bin . The default value of the :target option is 68 K . In this case, the Compiler produces code that can be run on both the MC68010 and the MC68020 processors, and the default file extension is .lbin.

The use of compile-file is discussed further in the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

See Also: compile
declare

\section*{decode-universal-time}

Purpose: The function decode-universal-time converts a time from Universal Time format to Decoded Time format. It returns the time as nine values. These values correspond to the second, minute, hour, day, month, year, day of the week, a flag indicating whether the time is a daylight saving time value, and the time zone respectively.

Syntax: decode-universal-time universal-time zoptional time-zone [Function]
Remarks: If the time-zone argument is not specified, the current time zone is used.
Examples: > (decode-universal-time 00 )
0
0
0
1
1
1900
0
NIL
0
See Also: encode-universal-time
get-universal-time

\section*{describe}

Purpose: The function describe prints information about a given object on the standard output. The function describe returns no values.

Syntax: describe object [Function]
Remarks: The standard output is defined by the value of the variable *standard-output*.
```

Examples: > (describe '-)
\#<Symbol 364FF5>
[0: NAME] "-"
[1: VALUE] (DESCRIBE (QUOTE -))
[2: FUNCTION] \#<Compiled-Function - 27780F>
[3: PLIST] NIL
[4: PACKAGE] \#<Package "LISP" 2EOOO3>
> (describe :test)
\#<Symbol 362DBD>
[0: NAME] "TEST"
[1: VALUE] :TEST
[2: FUNCTION] Undefined
[3: PLIST] NIL
[4: PACKAGE] \#<Package "KEYWORD" 2FE143>
> (describe "abc")
"abc"

```

\section*{See Also: inspect}

\section*{disassemble}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Purpose: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The function disassemble disassembles a compiled function and prints the \\
resulting code on the standard output. It returns nil.
\end{tabular} \\
Syntax: & disassemble name-or-compiled-function \\
[Function]
\end{tabular}

Remarks: If the argument is the name of an interpreted function, that function is first compiled and then disassembled. The function definition that is attached to the name as the content of the symbol's function cell is not changed.

The standard output is defined by the value of the variable *standard-output*.

\section*{documentation}

Purpose: The function documentation returns the documentation string of type doc-type for a given symbol. If no documentation string is associated with the symbol, documentation returns nil.

Syntax: documentation symbol doc-type
[Function]
Remarks: The doc-type argument is a symbol. It can be one of the following types: variable, function, structure, type, and setf.

The macro setf may be used with documentation to update the documentation for a symbol.

Examples: > (defvar grz 0 "grz variable documentation") GRZ
> (documentation 'grz 'variable)
"grz variable documentation"

\section*{dribble}

Purpose: The function dribble is used to produce a record of input and output.
If a pathname argument is specified, dribble records input and output in the file indicated by the pathname.

If no argument is given, dribble terminates the recording of input and output and closes the file it has been using.

Syntax: dribble \&optional pathname [Function]
Remarks: Only one dribble file may be in use at a time.
The pathname argument may be a pathname, string, stream, or symbol.
```

Examples: > (dribble "/test/dribble-test")
;;; Dribble file \#P"/test/dribble-test" started
T
> 'this-will-be-on-file
THIS-WILL-BE-ON-FILE
> (dribble)
;;; Dribble transcript to \#P"/test/dribble-test" ended
T

```

\section*{ed}

Purpose: The function ed invokes the editor.
If no arguments are specified or the optional argument is nil, the editor is entered in the same state in which the user last left it.

Syntax: ed \&optional \(x\) \&key :windows kallow-other-keys [Function]
Remarks: The optional argument \(x\) may be specified as a pathname, a string, or a symbol. If either a pathname or a string is specified, ed allows the user to edit the contents of the corresponding file. If a symbol argument that represents the name of an interpreted function is specified, ed pretty-prints the corresponding function into a buffer that becomes the current buffer. The user may then edit the text of the function definition. Any interpreted function that is edited must be reevaluated in order for the changes to become effective in the current Lisp environment; the edited version is treated as a new function definition.

By default, the editor starts up in the window environment, if one exists. Buffers and window configurations that were established earlier in the current Lisp session are restored.

If the :windows keyword argument is specified, it can have one of the following values:
- nil

If the keyword argument has this value, the editor starts up as a terminal editor.
- \(t\)

If the keyword argument has this value, the editor starts up in the available window environment; if no window environment is available, an error is signaled.
- :default

If the keyword argument has this value, the editor restarts in the available window environment with a default configuration of windows. Changes made to the window configuration in previous editing sessions are not retained. If no window environment is available, an error is signaled.

If the editor is started up as a terminal editor, it cannot be used in the window environment in subsequent editing sessions. Similarly, if the editor starts up in the window environment, subsequent editing sessions must remain in the window environment.

The user can also specify any keyword options that are valid for the function initialize-windows. These options are passed by ed to initialize-windows to initialize the Window Tool Kit in an environment that supports a window system. By invoking the function windows-available-p, the user can determine if a window environment is available.

The editor, the Window Tool Kit, and the functions initialize-windows and windows-available-p are described in the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

The keyword :windows and the keyword options passed to the function initialize-windows are extensions to the Common Lisp function ed.

\section*{encode-universal-time}

Purpose: The function encode-universal-time converts a time from Decoded Time format to Universal Time format and returns the resulting value.

Syntax: encode-universal-time second minute hour date month year
\&optional time-zone \(\quad[\) Function \(]\)
Remarks: The time-zone argument defaults to the current time zone. This default value is adjusted for daylight saving time, if necessary. If the time zone is specified, there is no adjustment for daylight saving time.

Examples: \(\quad \begin{aligned} & > \\ & 0\end{aligned}\) (encode-universal-time 000111900 0)
See Also: decode-universal-time
get-decoded-time

\section*{*features*}

Purpose: The value of the variable *features* is a list of symbols. These symbols are the names of features that are provided by the current implementation of Common Lisp.

Syntax: *features* [Variable]
Remarks: The features :common-lisp, :compiler, and :lucid are some of the features that are known. These symbols are in the keyword package.

The *features* variable is used by the \#+ and \#- syntax in the Lisp reader. The constructs \#+feature and \#-feature control the reading of a given form based on the presence or absence of the feature in the *features* list. The reader and the \#+ and \#- syntax are discussed in the chapter "Input/Output."

\section*{get-decoded-time}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Purpose: & The function get-decoded-time returns the current time in Decoded Time format. It returns the time as nine values. These values correspond to the second, minute, hour, day, month, year, day of the week, a flag indicating whether the time is a daylight saving time value, and the time zone respectively. \\
\hline Syntax: & get-decoded-time [Function] \\
\hline \multirow[t]{10}{*}{Examples:} & > (get-decoded-time) ;run at Tue May 13 15:35:10 PDT 1986 \\
\hline & 10 \\
\hline & 35 \\
\hline & 15 \\
\hline & 13 \\
\hline & 5 \\
\hline & 1986 \\
\hline & 1 \\
\hline & T \\
\hline & 8 \\
\hline See Also: & decode-universal-time \\
\hline & encode-universaì-time \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{get-internal-real-time}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Purpose: & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The function get-internal-real-time returns the current time in Internal Time \\
format. The result is an integer.
\end{tabular} \\
Syntax: & get-internal-real-time \\
[Function]
\end{tabular}

\section*{get-internal-run-time}

Purpose: The function get-internal-run-time returns the current run time in Internal Time format. The result is an integer.

Syntax: get-internal-run-time [Function]

\section*{get-universal-time}

Purpose: The function get-universal-time returns the current time in Universal Time format. The result is an integer.

Syntax: get-universal-time [Function]

\section*{inspect}

Purpose: The function inspect is used for examining data structures. When called on an object, inspect prints information about the object and its components on the standard output. This function gives the user interactive control over what is printed out and allows the user to modify the given object. It returns as its value the last object examined.

Syntax: inspect object
[Function]
Remarks: The standard output is defined by the value of the variable *standard-output*. The inspect facility is described in the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

See Also: describe

\section*{internal-time-units-per-second}

Purpose: The value of the constant internal-time-units-per-second is an integer that defines the number of internal time units that are in one second.

Syntax: internal-time-units-per-second [Constant]
Remarks: These units form the basis of the Internal Time format representation.

\section*{lisp-implementation-type, lisp-implementation-version}

Purpose: The functions lisp-implementation-type and lisp-implementation-version return strings that identify the current implementation of Common Lisp.

The function lisp-implementation-type returns a generic name for the Lisp. The function lisp-implementation-version returns a detailed version name for the Lisp.
\begin{tabular}{llr} 
Syntax: & lisp-implementation-type & [Function] \\
& lisp-implementation-version & [Function] \\
Examples: & \(>\) (lisp-implementation-type) & \\
& "Sun Common Lisp" &
\end{tabular}

\section*{machine-type, machine-version, machine-instance}

Purpose: The functions machine-type, machine-version, and machine-instance return strings that identify the machine on which the current instance of Common Lisp is running.

The function machine-type returns a generic name for the hardware.
The function machine-version returns a detailed version name for the hardware.
The function machine-instance returns the name of the specific machine.
Syntax:
machine-type
machine-version
[Function]
machine-instance

Purpose: The function quit is used to exit from Lisp. It terminates the Lisp environment.
Syntax: quit \&optional status [Function]
Remarks: The optional argument status sets the exit status of the process that was running Lisp. It defaults to 0 .

The function quit uses the special form throw to exit to the top level of Lisp before returning to the operating system environment. Thus, if quit is called from inside the special form unwind-protect, all the cleanup forms specified by the invocation of unwind-protect are executed before returning to the operating system environment. Thus, quit can be used to close all files before exiting Lisp.

The function quit is an extension to Common Lisp.
See Also: abort
throw
unwind-protect

\section*{room}

Purpose: The function room prints information about the current state of internal memory on the standard output.

If the optional argument is specified as nil, a terse summary is printed. If the optional argument is non-nil, a verbose description is given. If no argument is specified, room prints a moderate amount of information.

Syntax: room \&optional \(x \quad\) [Function]
Remarks: The standard output is defined by the value of the variable *standard-output*. Memory management is discussed in the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

\section*{short-site-name, long-site-name}

Purpose: The functions short-site-name and long-site-name return strings that identify the location of the machine on which the current instance of Common Lisp is running.
The function short-site-name returns a short or abbreviated name.
The function long-site-name returns the full name.
\(\begin{array}{lll}\text { Syntax: } & \text { short-site-name } & \text { [Function] } \\ & \text { long-site-name } & \text { [Function }]\end{array}\)
Remarks: These strings are set by the user at installation time.

\section*{sleep}

Purpose: The function sleep causes Common Lisp to pause for at least the specified number of seconds.
The function sleep returns nil.
Syntax: sleep seconds [Function]
Remarks: The seconds argument is an integer.
Examples: > (sleep 1)
NIL

\section*{software-type, software-version}

Purpose: The functions software-type and software-version return strings that identify the software on which Common Lisp is running.
The function software-type returns a generic name for the software.
The function software-version returns a detailed version name for the software.
Syntax:
software-type
[Function]
software-version
[Function]
Examples: > (software-type) "UNIX"

\section*{step}

Purpose: The step macro is a debugging tool that examines the behavior of programs by stepping through the evaluation of forms and functions.
The step macro evaluates a given form or function and allows the user to intervene during the course of evaluation. It returns the result of evaluating the form.

Syntax: step form \(\mid\{\text { function-name }\}^{+} \quad\) [Macro]
Remarks: The function-name argument is an extension to Common Lisp.
The step facility is described in the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

\section*{time}

Purpose: The macro time evaluates its argument and returns the result. It prints timing statistics about the execution of the form on the stream that is the value of the variable *trace-output*.

Syntax: time form [Macro]
Remarks: The accuracy of the results depends on the accuracy of the corresponding functions provided by the underlying operating system.

\section*{trace, untrace}

Purpose: The macros trace and untrace control the invocation of the trace facility.
The macro trace with arguments trace-spec traces the specified functions. It returns as its value a list of the function names. If trace is called with no arguments, a list of all functions that are currently being traced is returned.

The macro untrace with arguments function-name untraces the specified functions. The macro untrace with no arguments untraces all the functions currently being traced.

If a function is already being traced, trace calls untrace before starting the new trace.

Calling trace on a macro traces the macro expansion, not the evaluation of the form. Special forms cannot be traced.

Syntax: \(\quad\) trace \(\{\text { trace-spec }\}^{*}\)
untrace \{function-name\}*
Remarks: Each trace-spec argument is the name of a function or a list consisting of the function name followed by keyword options. These keyword options are extensions to Common Lisp. They describe the circumstances under which the function is to be traced.

The trace facility and the use of its keyword extensions are described further in the Sun Common Lisp User's Guide.

See Also: step

\section*{Appendix A. Alphabetical Listing of Common Lisp Functions}

This appendix is a listing of all Common Lisp functions, macros, constants, variables, and special forms, including all extensions to Common Lisp described in this manual.

* \&rest numbers
[Function]
*
**
**
+ \&rest numbers
[Function]
\(+\)
[Variable]
\(++\quad\) [Variable]
++ [Variable]
- number \&rest more-numbers [Function]
-
[Variable]
/ number \&rest more-numbers [Function]
/
[Variable]
//
[Variable]
///
[Variable]
\(/=\) number \&rest more-numbers
[Function]
1+ number
1- number
< number \&rest more-numbers
\(<=\) number \&rest more-numbers
\(=\) number \&rest more-numbers
\(>\) number \&rest more-numbers
\(>=\) number \&rest more-numbers
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
abort \&optional status
abs number
acons key datum a-list
acos number
acosh number
adjoin item list \&key :test :test-not :key
adjust-array array new-dimensions kkey :element-type
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
:initial-element
:initial-contents
:fill-pointer
:displaced-to
:displaced-index-offset
[Function]
adjustable-array-p array
alpha-char-p char
alphanumericp char
and \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Macro]
append \&rest lists
apply function arg \&rest more-args
applyhook function args evalhookfn applyhookfn doptional eñ
*applyhook*
apropos string koptional package
apropos-list string \&optional package
aref array krest subscripts
array-dimension array axis-number
array-dimension-limit
array-dimensions array
array-element-type array
array-has-fill-pointer-p array
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Variable]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Constant]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
array-in-bounds-p array \&rest subscripts [Function]
array-rank array
[Function]
array-rank-limit
[Constant]
array-row-major-index array \&rest subscripts
[Function]
array-total-size array
[Function]
array-total-size-limit
arrayp object
ash integer count
asin number
asinh number
assert test-form [(\{place \(\left.\}^{*}\right)\left[\right.\) format-string \(\left.\left.\{\text { arg }\}^{*}\right]\right]\)
assoc item a-list \&key :test :test-not :key
assoc-if predicate a-list
assoc-if-not predicate a-list
assq object a-list
atan number1 \&optional number2
atanh number
atom object
bit bit-array \&rest subscripts
bit-and bit-array1 bit-array2 女optional result-bit-array
bit-andc1 bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-andc2 bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-eqv bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-ior bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-nand bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-nor bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-not bit-array \&optional result-bit-array
bit-orc1 bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-orc2 bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
bit-vector-p object
bit-xor bit-array1 bit-array2 \&optional result-bit-array
block name \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
boole op integer1 integer2
boole-1
boole-2
[Constant]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Macro]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Special Form]
[Function]
[Constant]
[Constant]
\begin{tabular}{lr} 
boole-and & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-andc1 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-andc2 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-c1 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-c2 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-clr & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-eqv & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-ior & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-nand & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-nor & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-orc1 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-orc2 & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-set & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
boole-xor & {\([\) Constant \(]\)} \\
both-case-p char & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
boundp symbol & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
break \&optional format-string \&rest args & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
*break-on-warnings* & {\([\) Variable \(]\)} \\
butlast list \&optional \(n\) & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
byte size position & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
byte-position bytespec & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
byte-size bytespec & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
caaaar list & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
caaadr list & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
caaar list & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
caadar list & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
caaddr list & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
caadr list & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
caar list & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
cadaar list & {\([\) Function \(]\)} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline cadadr list & [Function] \\
\hline cadar list & [Function] \\
\hline caddar list & [Function] \\
\hline cadddr list & [Function] \\
\hline caddr list & [Function] \\
\hline cadr list & [Function] \\
\hline call-arguments-limit & [Constant] \\
\hline car list & [Function] \\
\hline case keyform \(\left\{\left(\left\{\left(\{\text { key }\}^{*}\right) \mid \text { key }\right\}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline catch tag \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Special Form] \\
\hline ccase keyplace \(\left\{\left(\left\{\left(\{\text { key }\}^{*}\right) \mid \text { key }\right\}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline cdaaar list & [Function] \\
\hline cdaadr list & [Function] \\
\hline cdaar list & [Function] \\
\hline cdadar list & [Function] \\
\hline cdaddr list & [Function] \\
\hline cdadr list & [Function] \\
\hline cdar list & [Function] \\
\hline cddaar list & [Function] \\
\hline cddadr list & [Function] \\
\hline cddar list & [Function] \\
\hline cdddar list & [Function] \\
\hline cddddr list & [Function] \\
\hline cdddr list & [Function] \\
\hline cddr list & [Function] \\
\hline cdr list & [Function] \\
\hline ceiling number \&optional divisor & [Function] \\
\hline cerror continue-format-string error-format-string \&rest args & [Function] \\
\hline char string index & [Function] \\
\hline char-bit char name & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline char-bits char & [Function] \\
\hline char-bits-limit & [Constant] \\
\hline char-code char & [Function] \\
\hline char-code-limit & [Constant] \\
\hline char-control-bit & [Constant] \\
\hline char-downcase char & [Function] \\
\hline char-equal character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline char-font char & [Function] \\
\hline char-font-limit & [Constant] \\
\hline char-greaterp character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline char-hyper-bit & [Constant] \\
\hline char-int char & [Function] \\
\hline char-lessp character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline char-meta-bit & [Constant] \\
\hline char-name char & [Function] \\
\hline char-not-equal character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline char-not-greaterp character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline char-not-lessp character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline char-super-bit & [Constant] \\
\hline char-upcase char & [Function] \\
\hline char/ = character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline char< character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline char< = character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline char \(=\) character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline char> character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline char \(>=\) character \&rest more-characters & [Function] \\
\hline character object & [Function] \\
\hline characterp object & [Function] \\
\hline check-type place typespec toptional string & [Macro] \\
\hline cis radians & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
clear-input \&optional input-stream
clear-output \&optional output-stream
close stream \&key :abort
clrhash hash-table
code-char code toptional (bits 0 ) (font 0 )
coerce object result-type
commonp object
compile name \&optional definition
compile-file input-pathname \&key :output-file
:messages
:warnings
:fast-entry
:tail-merge
:notinline
:target
compiled-function-p object
compiler-let (\{var \(\mid(\) var value \(\left.)\}^{*}\right)\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
complex realpart \&optional imagpart
complexp object
concatenate result-type \&rest sequences
cond \(\left\{\left(\text { test }\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\)
conjugate number
cons object1 object2
consp object
constantp object
copy-alist list
copy-list list
copy-readtable \&optional from-readtable to-readtable
copy-seq sequence
copy-symbol symbol \&optional copy-props
copy-tree object
cos radians
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Special Form]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Macro]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline cosh number & [Function] \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
\text { count item sequence \&key } & \text { :from-end :test :test-not } \\
& \text { :start :end :key }
\end{aligned}
\] & [Function] \\
\hline count-if test sequence \&key :from-end :start : end :key & [Function] \\
\hline count-if-not test sequence \&key :from-end :start :end :key & [Function] \\
\hline ctypecase keyplace \(\left\{\left(\text { type }\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline *debug-io* & [Variable] \\
\hline decache-eval & [Function] \\
\hline decf place [delta] & [Macro] \\
\hline declare \(\left\{\right.\) decl-spec \({ }^{*}\) & [Special Form] \\
\hline decode-float float & [Function] \\
\hline decode-universal-time universal-time toptional time-zone & [Function] \\
\hline *default-pathname-defaults* & [Variable] \\
\hline defconstant name initial-value [documentation] & [Macro] \\
\hline define-function name function & [Function] \\
\hline define-macro name function & [Function] \\
\hline define-modify-macro name lambda-list function [documentation] & [Macro] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
define-setf-method access-fn lambda-list \\
\{declaration \(\mid\) documentation \(\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
\end{tabular} & [Macro] \\
\hline defmacro name lambda-list \(\left\{\right.\) declaration \(\mid\) documentation \({ }^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline defparameter name initial-value [documentation] & [Macro] \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
\text { defsetf access-fn } & \{\text { update-fn }[\text { documentation }] \mid \\
& \text { lambda-list (store-variable) } \\
& \{\text { declaration } \mid \text { documentation }\}^{*}\left\{\text { form }^{*}\right\}
\end{aligned}
\] & [Macro] \\
\hline defstruct name-and-options [documentation] \{slot-description\}* & [Macro] \\
\hline deftype name lambda-list \(\{\text { declaration } \mid \text { documentation }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline defun name lambda-list \(\left\{\right.\) declaration \(\mid\) documentation \({ }^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline defvar name [initial-value [documentation] ] & [Macro] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
delete item sequence kkey :from-end :test :test-not \\
:start :end :count :key
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
delete-duplicates sequence kkey :from-end :test :test-not \\
:start :end :key
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline delete-file file & [Function] \\
\hline \(\begin{aligned} \text { delete-if test sequence \&key } & \text { :from-end :start } \\ & \text { :end :count :key }\end{aligned}\) & [Function] \\
\hline \[
\begin{array}{cl}
\text { delete-if-not test sequence \&key } & \text { :from-end :start } \\
& \text { :end :count :key }
\end{array}
\] & [Function] \\
\hline delete-package package & [Function] \\
\hline denominator rational & [Function] \\
\hline deposit-field newbyte bytespec integer & [Function] \\
\hline describe object & [Function] \\
\hline digit-char weight doptional (radix 10) (font 0) & [Function] \\
\hline digit-char-p char \&optional (radix 10) & [Function] \\
\hline directory pathname & [Function] \\
\hline directory-namestring pathname & [Function] \\
\hline disassemble name-or-compiled-function & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
\[
\text { do }\left(\{\operatorname{var} \mid(\operatorname{var}[\text { init }[\text { step }]])\}^{*}\right)\left(\text { end-test }\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)
\] \\
\(\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}\)
\end{tabular} & [Macro] \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
\text { do } * & \left(\begin{array}{l}
\text { var } \left.\mid(\text { var }[\text { init }[\text { step }]])\}^{*}\right)\left(\text { end-test }\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right) \\
\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
\] & [Macro] \\
\hline do-all-symbols (var [result-form]) \{declaration \(\}^{*}\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline \[
\text { do-external-symbols (var }[\text { package }[\text { result-form }]]) \begin{aligned}
&\{\text { declaration }\}^{*} \\
&\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}
\end{aligned}
\] & [Macro] \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
&\text { do-symbols (var }[\text { package }[\text { result-form }]])\{\text { declaration }\}^{*} \\
&\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}
\end{aligned}
\] & [Macro] \\
\hline documentation symbol doc-type & [Function] \\
\hline dolist (var listform [result]) \{declaration \({ }^{*}\) \{tag \(\mid\) statement \(\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline dotimes (var countform [result]) \(\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline double-float-epsilon & [Constant] \\
\hline double-float-negative-epsilon & [Constant] \\
\hline dpb newbyte bytespec integer & [Function] \\
\hline dribble \&optional pathname & [Function] \\
\hline ecase keyform \(\left\{\left(\left\{\left(\{\text { key }\}^{*}\right) \mid \text { key }\right\}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline ed \&optional \(x\) \&key :windows kallow-other-keys & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
eighth list
elt sequence index
encode-universal-time second minute hour date month year \&optional time-zone
endp list
enough-namestring pathname \&optional defaults
eq \(x y\)
eql \(x y\)
equal \(x y\)
equalp \(x y\)
error format-string \&rest args
*error-output*
etypecase keyform \(\left\{\left(\text { type }\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\)
eval form
eval-when ( \(\{\text { situation }\}^{*}\) ) \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
*evalhook*
evalhook form evalhookfn applyhookfn \&optional env
evenp integer
every predicate sequence krest more-sequences
exp number
export symbols \&optional package
expt base-number power-number
fboundp symbol
fceiling number \&optional divisor
*features*
ffloor number \&optional divisor
fifth list
file-author file
file-length file-stream
file-namestring pathname
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Variable]
[Macro]
[Function]
[Special Form]
[Variable]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Variable]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline file-position file-stream \&optional position & [Function] \\
\hline file-write-date file & [Function] \\
\hline fill sequence item \&key :start : end & [Function] \\
\hline fill-pointer vector & [Function] \\
\hline ```
find item sequence &key :from-end :test :test-not
    :start :end :key
``` & [Function] \\
\hline find-all-symbols string-or-symbol & [Function] \\
\hline find-if test sequence \({ }^{\text {dkey }}\) : from-end :start :end :key & [Function] \\
\hline find-if-not test sequence \&key :from-end :start : end :key & [Function] \\
\hline find-package name & [Function] \\
\hline find-symbol string \&optional package & [Function] \\
\hline finish-output \&optional output-stream & [Function] \\
\hline first list & [Function] \\
\hline fixnump object & [Function] \\
\hline flet (\{ (name lambda-list \{declaration \(\mid\) documentation \(\}^{*}\) \(\left.\left.\left.\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\right)\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Special Form] \\
\hline float number doptional float & [Function] \\
\hline float-digits float & [Function] \\
\hline float-precision float & [Function] \\
\hline float-radix float & [Function] \\
\hline float-sign float1 \&optional float2 & [Function] \\
\hline floatp object & [Function] \\
\hline floor number toptional divisor & [Function] \\
\hline fmakunbound symbol & [Function] \\
\hline force-output \&optional output-stream & [Function] \\
\hline format destination format-control-string \&rest arguments & [Function] \\
\hline fourth list & [Function] \\
\hline fresh-line \&optional output-stream & [Function] \\
\hline fround number \&optional divisor & [Function] \\
\hline ftruncate number \&optional divisor & [Function] \\
\hline funcall function \&rest args & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline function function & [Special Form] \\
\hline functionp object & [Function] \\
\hline gcd \&rest integers & [Function] \\
\hline gensym toptional \(x\) & [Function] \\
\hline gentemp \&optional prefix package & [Function] \\
\hline get symbol indicator \&optional default & [Function] \\
\hline get-decoded-time & [Function] \\
\hline get-dispatch-macro-character disp-char sub-char \&optional readtable & [Function] \\
\hline get-internal-real-time & [Function] \\
\hline get-internal-run-time & [Function] \\
\hline get-macro-character char \&optional readtable & [Function] \\
\hline get-output-stream-string string-output-stream & [Function] \\
\hline get-properties place indicator-list & [Function] \\
\hline get-setf-method form & [Function] \\
\hline get-setf-method-multiple-value form & [Function] \\
\hline get-universal-time & [Function] \\
\hline getf place indicator koptional default & [Function] \\
\hline gethash key hash-table \&optional default & [Function] \\
\hline go tag & [Special Form] \\
\hline graphic-char-p char & [Function] \\
\hline grindef drest function-name & [Macro] \\
\hline hash-table-count hash-table & [Function] \\
\hline hash-table-p object & [Function] \\
\hline host-namestring pathname & [Function] \\
\hline identity object & [Function] \\
\hline if test then [else] & [Special Form] \\
\hline *ignore-extra-right-parens* & [Variable] \\
\hline imagpart number & [Function] \\
\hline import symbols \&optional package & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline in-package package-name tkey :nicknames :use & [Function] \\
\hline incf place [delta] & [Macro] \\
\hline input-stream-p stream & [Function] \\
\hline inspect object & [Function] \\
\hline int-char integer & [Function] \\
\hline integer-decode-float float & [Function] \\
\hline integer-length integer & [Function] \\
\hline integerp object & [Function] \\
\hline intern string \&optional package & [Function] \\
\hline internal-time-units-per-second & [Constant] \\
\hline intersection list1 list2 \&key :test :test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline isqrt integer & [Function] \\
\hline keywordp object & [Function] \\
\hline labels (\{ (name lambda-list \(\{\text { declaration } \mid \text { documentation }\}^{*}\) \(\left.\left.\left.\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\right)\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Special Form] \\
\hline lambda-list-keywords & [Constant] \\
\hline lambda-parameters-limit & [Constant] \\
\hline last list & [Function] \\
\hline 1 cm integer \&rest more-integers & [Function] \\
\hline 1 db bytespec integer & [Function] \\
\hline ldb-test bytespec integer & [Function] \\
\hline ldiff list sublist & [Function] \\
\hline least-negative-double-float & [Constant] \\
\hline least-negative-long-float & [Constant] \\
\hline least-negative-short-float & [Constant] \\
\hline least-negative-single-float & [Constant] \\
\hline least-positive-double-float & [Constant] \\
\hline least-positive-long-float & [Constant] \\
\hline least-positive-short-float & [Constant] \\
\hline least-positive-single-float & [Constant] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline length sequence & [Function] \\
\hline let ( \(\{\) var \(\mid\) (var value \(\left.)\}^{*}\right)\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Special Form] \\
\hline let* ( \(\{\text { var } \mid \text { (var value) }\}^{*}\) ) \(\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Special Form] \\
\hline lisp-implementation-type & [Function] \\
\hline lisp-implementation-version & [Function] \\
\hline list \&rest objects & [Function] \\
\hline list* object \&rest more-objects & [Function] \\
\hline list-all-packages & [Function] \\
\hline list-length list & [Function] \\
\hline list-nreverse list & [Function] \\
\hline list-reverse list & [Function] \\
\hline listen \&optional input-stream & [Function] \\
\hline listp object & [Function] \\
\hline load filename kkey :verbose :print : if-does-not-exist & [Function] \\
\hline *load-verbose* & [Variable] \\
\hline locally \(\left\{\right.\) declaration\}* \{form \(^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline \(\log\) number koptional base & [Function] \\
\hline logand \&rest integers & [Function] \\
\hline logandc1 integer1 integer2 & [Function] \\
\hline logandc2 integer1 integer2 & [Function] \\
\hline logbitp index integer & [Function] \\
\hline logcount integer & [Function] \\
\hline logeqv \&rest integers & [Function] \\
\hline logior \&rest integers & [Function] \\
\hline lognand integer1 integer2 & [Function] \\
\hline lognor integer1 integer2 & [Function] \\
\hline lognot integer & [Function] \\
\hline logorc1 integer1 integer2 & [Function] \\
\hline logorc2 integer1 integer2 & [Function] \\
\hline logtest integer1 integer2 & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline logxor drest integers & [Function] \\
\hline long-float-epsilon & [Constant] \\
\hline long-float-negative-epsilon & [Constant] \\
\hline long-site-name & [Function] \\
\hline loop \(\left\{\right.\) form \({ }^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline lower-case-p char & [Function] \\
\hline machine-instance & [Function] \\
\hline machine-type & [Function] \\
\hline machine-version & [Function] \\
\hline macro-function symbol & [Function] \\
\hline macroexpand form \&optional env & [Function] \\
\hline macroexpand-1 form \&optional env & [Function] \\
\hline *macroexpand-hook* & [Variable] \\
\hline \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { macrolet }\left(\left\{\left(\text { name lambda-list }\{\text { declaration } \mid \text { documentation }\}^{*}\right.\right.\right. \\
\left.\left.\left.\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\right)\{\text { form }\}^{*}
\end{gathered}
\] & [Special Form] \\
\hline ```
make-array dimensions tkey :element-type :initial-element
    :initial-contents :adjustable
    :fill-pointer :displaced-to
    :displaced-index-offset
``` & [Function] \\
\hline make-broadcast-stream \&rest streams & [Function] \\
\hline make-char char doptional (bits 0) (font 0) & [Function] \\
\hline make-concatenated-stream \&rest streams & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
make-dispatch-macro-character char \&optional \\
non-terminating-p readtable
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline make-echo-stream input-stream output-stream & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
make-hash-table kkey :test :size \\
:rehash-size :rehash-threshold
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline make-list size \&key :initial-element & [Function] \\
\hline make-package package-name \&key :nicknames :use & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
make-pathname akey :host :device :directory :name \\
:type :version :defaults
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline make-random-state koptional state & [Function] \\
\hline make-sequence type size \&key : initial-element & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
make-string size \&key :initial-element
[Function]
make-string-input-stream string toptional start end
[Function]
make-string-output-stream \&optional string
make-symbol print-name
[Function]
[Function]
make-synonym-stream symbol
make-two-way-stream input-stream output-stream
makunbound symbol
map result-type function sequence \&rest more-sequences
mapc function list \&rest more-lists
mapcan function list \&rest more-lists
mapcar function list \&rest more-lists
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
mapcon function list \&rest more-lists
maphash function hash-table
mapl function list \&rest more-lists
maplist function list \&rest more-lists
mask-field bytespec integer
max number \&rest more-numbers
member item list dkey :test :test-not :key
member-if predicate list \&key :key
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
member-if-not predicate list akey :key
memq object list
merge result-type sequence1 sequence2 predicate kkey :key
merge-pathnames pathname \&optional defaults default-version
min number \&rest more-numbers
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
min number arest more numbers
[Function]
minusp number
[Function]
mismatch sequence1 sequence2 \&key :from-end :test :test-not [Function] :key :start1 :start2 :end1 :end2
mod number divisor
*modules*
[Function]
[Variable]
most-negative-double-float
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline most-negative-fixnum & [Constant] \\
\hline most-negative-long-float & [Constant] \\
\hline most-negative-short-float & [Constant] \\
\hline most-negative-single-float & [Constant] \\
\hline most-positive-double-float & [Constant] \\
\hline most-positive-fixnum & [Constant] \\
\hline most-positive-long-float & [Constant] \\
\hline most-positive-short-float & [Constant] \\
\hline most-positive-single-float & [Constant] \\
\hline multiple-value-bind ( \(\{\text { var }\}^{*}\) ) values-form \(\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline multiple-value-call function \(\left\{\right.\) form \({ }^{*}\) & [Special Form] \\
\hline multiple-value-list form & [Macro] \\
\hline multiple-value-prog1 form \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Special Form] \\
\hline multiple-value-setq vars form & [Macro] \\
\hline multiple-values-limit & [Constant] \\
\hline name-char name & [Function] \\
\hline namestring pathname & [Function] \\
\hline nbutlast list toptional \(n\) & [Function] \\
\hline nconc drest lists & [Function] \\
\hline nil & [Constant] \\
\hline nintersection list1 list2 \&key :test :test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline ninth list & [Function] \\
\hline not \(x\) & [Function] \\
\hline notany predicate sequence 女rest more-sequences & [Function] \\
\hline notevery predicate sequence trest more-sequences & [Function] \\
\hline nreconc list1 list2 & [Function] \\
\hline nreverse sequence & [Function] \\
\hline nset-difference list1 list2 akey :test :test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline nset-exclusive-or list1 list2 \&key :test :test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline nstring-capitalize string kkey :start :end & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline nstring-downcase string \&key :start :end nstring-upcase string \&key :start :end & [Function]
[Function] \\
\hline nsublis a-list tree \&key :test :test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline nsubst new old tree \&key :test :test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline nsubst-if new test tree \&key :key & [Function] \\
\hline nsubst-if-not new test tree akey :key & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
nsubstitute newitem olditem sequence \&key :from-end :test \\
:test-not :start \\
:end :count :key
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
nsubstitute-if newitem test sequence \&key :from-end \\
:start :end \\
:count :key
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
nsubstitute-if-not newitem test sequence akey :from-end \\
:start :end \\
:count :key
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline nth \(n\) list & [Function] \\
\hline nthedr \(n\) list & [Function] \\
\hline null object & [Function] \\
\hline numberp object & [Function] \\
\hline numerator rational & [Function] \\
\hline nunion list1 list2 akey :test :test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline oddp integer & [Function] \\
\hline \[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { open flename \&key } & \text { :direction :element-type } \\
& \text { :if-exists :if-does-not-exist }
\end{array}
\] & [Function] \\
\hline or \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline output-stream-p stream & [Function] \\
\hline *package* & [Variable] \\
\hline package-name package & [Function] \\
\hline package-nicknames package & [Function] \\
\hline package-shadowing-symbols package & [Function] \\
\hline package-use-list package & [Function] \\
\hline package-used-by-list package & [Function] \\
\hline packagep object & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline pairlis keys data \&optional a-list
parse-integer string \&key :start :end :radix : junk-allowed & [Function]
[Function] \\
\hline parse-namestring thing \&optional host defaults & [Function] \\
\hline \&key :start : end : junk-allowed & \\
\hline pathname pathname & [Function] \\
\hline pathname-device pathname & [Function] \\
\hline pathname-directory pathname & [Function] \\
\hline pathname-host pathname & [Function] \\
\hline pathname-name pathname & [Function] \\
\hline pathname-type pathname & [Function] \\
\hline pathname-version pathname & [Function] \\
\hline pathnamep object & [Function] \\
\hline peek-char 女optional peek-type input-stream eof-error-p eof-value recursive-p & [Function] \\
\hline phase number & [Function] \\
\hline pi & [Constant] \\
\hline plusp number & [Function] \\
\hline pop place & [Macro] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
position item sequence \&key :from-end :test :test-not \\
:start :end :key
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline position-if test sequence \&key :from-end :start :end :key & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
position-if-not test sequence \&key :from-end \\
:start :end :key
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline *pp-line-length* & [Variable] \\
\hline pprint object \&optional output-stream & [Function] \\
\hline prin1 object \&optional output-stream & [Function] \\
\hline prin1-to-string object & [Function] \\
\hline princ object toptional output-stream & [Function] \\
\hline princ-to-string object & [Function] \\
\hline print object toptional output-stream & [Function] \\
\hline *print-array* & [Variable] \\
\hline *print-base* & [Variable] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline *print-case* & [Variable] \\
\hline *print-circle* & [Variable] \\
\hline *print-escape* & [Variable] \\
\hline *print-gensym* & [Variable] \\
\hline *print-length* & [Variable] \\
\hline *print-level* & [Variable] \\
\hline *print-pretty* & [Variable] \\
\hline *print-radix* & [Variable] \\
\hline *print-structure* & [Variable] \\
\hline probe-file file & [Function] \\
\hline proclaim decl-spec & [Function] \\
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\hline prog* (\{var \(\mid(\operatorname{var}[\) init \(\left.])\}^{*}\right)\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { tag } \mid \text { statement }\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline prog1 first \(\{\text { form }\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline prog2 first second \(\left\{\right.\) form \({ }^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline progn \(\left\{\right.\) form \({ }^{*}\) & [Special Form] \\
\hline progv symbols values \(\left\{\right.\) form \({ }^{*}\) & [Special Form] \\
\hline *prompt* & [Variable] \\
\hline provide module-name & [Function] \\
\hline psetf \(\left\{\right.\) place newvalue \({ }^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline psetq \(\left\{\right.\) var form \({ }^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
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\hline *query-io* & [Variable] \\
\hline quit \&optional status & [Function] \\
\hline quote object & [Special Form] \\
\hline random number \&optional state & [Function] \\
\hline *random-state* & [Variable] \\
\hline random-state-p object & [Function] \\
\hline rassoc item a-list \&key :test :test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline rassoc-if predicate a-list & [Function] \\
\hline rassoc-if-not predicate a-list & [Function] \\
\hline rational number & [Function] \\
\hline rationalize number & [Function] \\
\hline rationalp object & [Function] \\
\hline read \&optional input-stream eof-error-p eof-value recursive-p & [Function] \\
\hline *read-base* & [Variable] \\
\hline read-byte binary-input-stream \&optional eof-error-p eof-value & [Function] \\
\hline read-char \&optional input-stream eof-error-p eof-value recursive-p & [Function] \\
\hline read-char-no-hang \&optional input-stream eof-error-p eof-value recursive-p & [Function] \\
\hline *read-default-float-format* & [Variable] \\
\hline read-delimited-list char \&optional input-stream recursive-p & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
read-from-string string \&optional eof-error-p eof-value \\
\&key :start :end :preserve-whitespace
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline read-line \&optional input-stream eof-error-p eof-value recursive-p & [Function] \\
\hline read-preserving-whitespace \&optional input-stream eof-error-p eof-value recursive-p & [Function] \\
\hline *read-suppress* & [Variable] \\
\hline *readtable* & [Variable] \\
\hline readtablep object & [Function] \\
\hline realpart number & [Function] \\
\hline *redefinition-action* & Variable] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
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:end :initial-value
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline rem number divisor & [Function] \\
\hline remf place indicator & [Macro] \\
\hline remhash key hash-table & [Function] \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
\text { remove item sequence tkey } & \text { :from-end :test :test-not } \\
& \text { :start :end :count :key }
\end{aligned}
\] & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
remove-duplicates sequence \&key :from-end :test :test-not \\
:start :end :key
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
remove-if test sequence \&key :from-end :start \\
:end :count :key
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
remove-if-not test sequence \&key :from-end :start \\
:end :count :key
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline remprop symbol indicator & [Function] \\
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\hline rename-package package new-name \&optional new-nicknames & [Function] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
replace sequence1 sequence2 kkey :starti :endi \\
:start2 :end2
\end{tabular} & [Function] \\
\hline require module-name \&optional pathname & [Function] \\
\hline rest list & [Function] \\
\hline return [result] & [Macro] \\
\hline return-from name [result] & [Special Form] \\
\hline revappend list1 list2 & [Function] \\
\hline reverse sequence & [Function] \\
\hline room \&optional \(x\) & [Function] \\
\hline rotatef \(\left\{\right.\) place \({ }^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline round number \&optional divisor & [Function] \\
\hline rplaca cons object & [Function] \\
\hline rplacd cons object & [Function] \\
\hline sbit simple-bit-array \&rest subscripts & [Function] \\
\hline scale-float float integer & [Function] \\
\hline schar simple-string index & [Function] \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
\text { search sequence1 sequence2 \&key } & \text { :from-end :test :test-not } \\
& : \text { key :start1 :start2 } \\
& : \text { end1 :end2 }
\end{aligned}
\] & [Function] \\
\hline second list & [Function] \\
\hline set symbol value & [Function] \\
\hline set-char-bit char name logical-value & [Function] \\
\hline set-difference list1 list2 \&key :test :test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline set-dispatch-macro-character disp-char sub-char function \&optional readtable & [Function] \\
\hline set-exclusive-or list1 list2 \&key : test : test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
set-macro-character char function
[Function]
\&optional non-terminating-p readtable
set-syntax-from-char to-char from-char
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setq \(\{\text { var form }\}^{*}\)
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[Function]
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short-float-negative-epsilon
[Constant]
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[Constant]
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[Function]
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sinh number
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[Constant]
[Function]
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[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
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[Function]
source-code function
[Function]
special-form-p symbol
[Function]
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[Function]
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\hline standard-char-p char & [Function] \\
\hline *standard-input* & [Variable] \\
\hline *standard-output* & [Variable] \\
\hline step form | \{function-name \(\}^{+}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline stream-element-type stream & [Function] \\
\hline streamp object & [Function] \\
\hline string \(x\) & [Function] \\
\hline string-capitalize string \&key :start :end & [Function] \\
\hline string-char-p char & [Function] \\
\hline string-downcase string \&key : start : end & [Function] \\
\hline string-equal string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 & [Function] \\
\hline string-greaterp string1 string2 \&key :start1 : end1 :start2 :end2 & [Function] \\
\hline string-left-trim character-bag string & [Function] \\
\hline string-lessp string1 string2 \&key :start1 : end1 :start2 :end2 & [Function] \\
\hline string-not-equal string1 string2 \&key :start1 : end1 :start2 :end2 & [Function] \\
\hline  & [Function] \\
\hline string-not-lessp string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 & [Function] \\
\hline string-right-trim character-bag string & [Function] \\
\hline string-trim character-bag string & [Function] \\
\hline string-upcase string \&key : start : end & [Function] \\
\hline string/= string1 string2 \&key :start1 : end1 :start2 :end2 & [Function] \\
\hline string< string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 : end2 & [Function] \\
\hline string< = string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 & [Function] \\
\hline string \(=\) string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 & [Function] \\
\hline string> string1 string2 \&key :start1 :end1 :start2 :end2 & [Function] \\
\hline string \(>=\) string1 string2 bkey :start1 : end1 :start2 :end2 & [Function] \\
\hline stringp object & [Function] \\
\hline sublis a-list tree skey : test : test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline subseq sequence start \&optional end & [Function] \\
\hline subsetp list1 list2 dkey : test :test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline time form & [Macro] \\
\hline trace \(\{\) trace-spec\}* & [Macro] \\
\hline *trace-output* & [Variable] \\
\hline tree-equal object1 object2 \&key :test :test-not & [Function] \\
\hline truename pathname & [Function] \\
\hline truncate number \&optional divisor & [Function] \\
\hline type-of object & [Function] \\
\hline typecase keyform \(\left\{\left(\text { type }\{\text { form }\}^{*}\right)\right\}^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline typep object type-specifier & [Function] \\
\hline unexport symbols \&optional package & [Function] \\
\hline unintern symbol \&optional package & [Function] \\
\hline union list1 list2 akey :test :test-not :key & [Function] \\
\hline unless test \(\left\{\right.\) form \({ }^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline unread-char character \&optional input-stream & [Function] \\
\hline untrace \{function-name\}* & [Macro] \\
\hline unuse-package packages-to-unuse \&optional package & [Function] \\
\hline unwind-protect protected-form \{cleanup-form\}* & [Special Form] \\
\hline upper-case-p char & [Function] \\
\hline use-package packages-to-use \&optional package & [Function] \\
\hline user-homedir-pathname \&optional host & [Function] \\
\hline values \&rest args & [Function] \\
\hline values-list list & [Function] \\
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\hline vector-push new-element vector & [Function] \\
\hline vector-push-extend new-element vector \&optional extension & [Function] \\
\hline vectorp object & [Function] \\
\hline warn format-string \&rest args & [Function] \\
\hline when test \(\left\{\right.\) form \({ }^{*}\) & [Macro] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
with-input-from-string (var string \{keyword value\} \({ }^{*}\) )
with-open-file (stream filename \(\left.\{\text { options }\}^{*}\right)\{\text { declaration }\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
with-open-stream (var stream) \{declaration \(\}^{*}\left\{\right.\) form \(^{*}{ }^{*}\) [Macro]
with-output-to-string (var [string]) \{declaration \(\}^{*}\{\text { form }\}^{*}\)
write object kkey :stream :escape :radix :base
[Function] :circle :pretty :level :length :case :gensym :array :structure
write-byte integer binary-output-stream
write-char character \&optional output-stream
write-line string \&optional output-stream \&key :start :end
write-string string \&optional output-stream \&key :start :end
write-to-string object \&key :escape :radix :base
y-or-n-p \&optional format-control-string \&rest arguments
yes-or-no-p \&optional format-control-string \&rest arguments
[Function]
[Function]
zerop number
[Function]

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\section*{Appendix B. Extensions to Common Lisp}

This appendix is a listing of the extensions to Common Lisp contained in this manual. They are categorized according to use.

Note: These extensions are not part of the Common Lisp specification.

\section*{Program Structure}
```

define-function name function
*redefinition-action*
[Variable]

```

\section*{Macros}
define-macro name function [Function]

\section*{The Evaluator}
```

decache-eval [Function]
grindef \&rest function-name [Macro]
*prompt* [Variable]
source-code function

## Packages

delete-package package

# Numbers 

fixnump object
[Function]

## Lists

assq object a-list
list-nreverse list
list-reverse list
memq object list
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]

## Input/Output

| *ignore-extra-right-parens* | [Variable $]$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| *print-structure* | $[$ Variable $]$ |
| *pp-line-length* | $[$ Variable $]$ |

*pp-line-length*
[Variable]

## Environmental Features

```
abort &optional status
arglist function
quit &optional status
[Function]
[Function]
[Function]
```

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[^0]:    max number krest more-numbers

[^1]:    Purpose: The function append creates and returns a list that is the concatenation of its list arguments. The original lists are left unchanged.

    Syntax: append \&rest lists
    [Function]
    Remarks: The last argument to append can be any object. If it is not a list, it becomes the cdr of the final dotted pair of the new list.

    The function append copies the top-level list structure of all its arguments except the last.

    Examples: > (append '(abc)'(def) '()'(g))
    (ABCDEFG)
    > (append '(abc) 'd)
    ( A B C . D)
    > (setq lst '(abc))
    (A B C)
    > (append lst '(d))
    (A BCD)
    > lat
    (A B C)
    > (append)
    NIL
    See Also: nconc
    concatenate

