8. Arrays

An array is a Lisp object that consists of a group of cells, each of which may contain an object. The individual cells are selected by numerical subscripts.

The rank of an array (the number of dimensions which the array has) is the number of subscripts used to refer to one of the elements of the array. The rank may be any integer from zero to seven, inclusively.

The lowest value for any subscript is zero; the highest value is a property of the array. Each dimension has a size, which is the lowest number which is too great to be used as a subscript. For example, in a one-dimensional array of five elements, the size of the one and only dimension is five, and the acceptable values of the subscript are zero, one, two, three, and four.

The most basic primitive functions for handling arrays are: make-array, which is used for the creation of arrays, aref, which is used for examining the contents of arrays, and aset, which is used for storing into arrays.

An array is a regular Lisp object, and it is common for an array to be the binding of a symbol, or the car or cdr of a cons, or, in fact, an element of an array. There are many functions, described in this chapter, which take arrays as arguments and perform useful operations on them.

Another way of handling arrays, inherited from Maclisp, is to treat them as functions. In this case each array has a name, which is a symbol whose function definition is the array. Zetalisp supports this style by allowing an array to be *applied* to arguments, as if it were a function. The arguments are treated as subscripts and the array is referenced appropriately. The store special form (see page 142) is also supported. This kind of array referencing is considered to be obsolete and is slower than the usual kind. It should not be used in new programs.

There are many types of arrays. Some types of arrays can hold Lisp objects of any type; the other types of arrays can only hold fixnums or flonums. The array types are known by a set of symbols whose names begin with "art-" (for ARray Type).

The most commonly used type is called art-q. An art-q array simply holds Lisp objects of any type.

Similar to the art-q type is the art-q-list. Like the art-q, its elements may be any Lisp object. The difference is that the art-q-list array "doubles" as a list; the function g-l-p will take an art-q-list array and return a list whose elements are those of the array, and whose actual substance is that of the array. If you rplace elements of the list, the corresponding element of the array will change, and if you store into the array, the corresponding element of the list will change the same way. An attempt to rplaced the list will cause a sys:rplaced-wrong-representation-type error, since arrays cannot implement that operation.

There is a set of types called art-1b, art-2b, art-4b, art-8b, and art-16b; these names are short for "1 bit", "2 bits", and so on. Each element of an art-nb array is a non-negative fixnum, and only the least significant n bits are remembered in the array; all of the others are

discarded. Thus art-1b arrays store only 0 and 1, and if you store a 5 into an art-2b array and look at it later, you will find a 1 rather than a 5.

These arrays are used when it is known beforehand that the fixnums which will be stored are non-negative and limited in size to a certain number of bits. Their advantage over the art-q array is that they occupy less storage, because more than one element of the array is kept in a single machine word. (For example, 32 elements of an art-1b array or 2 elements of an art-16b array will fit into one word).

There are also art-32b arrays which have 32 bits per element. Since fixnums only have 24 bits anyway, these are the same as art-q arrays except that they only hold fixnums. They are not compatible with the other "bit" array types and generally should not be used.

Character strings are implemented by the art-string array type. This type acts similarly to the art-8b; its elements must be fixnums, of which only the least significant eight bits are stored. However, many important system functions, including read, print, and eval, treat art-string arrays very differently from the other kinds of arrays. These arrays are usually called *strings*, and chapter 9 of this manual deals with functions that manipulate them.

An art-fat-string array is a character string with wider characters, containing 16 bits rather than 8 bits. The extra bits are ignored by string operations, such as comparison, on these strings; typically they are used to hold font information.

An art-half-fix array contains half-size fixnums. Each element of the array is a signed 16-bit integer; the range is from -32768 to 32767 inclusive.

The art-float array type is a special-purpose type whose elements are flonums. When storing into such an array the value (any kind of number) will be converted to a flonum, using the float function (see page 113). The advantage of storing flonums in an art-float array rather than an art-q array is that the numbers in an art-float array are not true Lisp objects. Instead the array remembers the numerical value, and when it is aref'ed creates a Lisp object (a flonum) to hold the value. Because the system does special storage management for bignums and flonums that are intermediate results, the use of art-float arrays can save a lot of work for the garbage collector and hence greatly increase performance. An intermediate result is a Lisp object passed as an argument, stored in a local variable, or returned as the value of a function, but not stored into a special variable, a non-art-float array, or list structure. art-float arrays also provide a locality of reference advantage over art-q arrays containing flonums, since the flonums are contained in the array rather than being separate objects probably on different pages of memory.

The art-fps-float array type is another special-purpose type whose elements are flonums. The internal format of this array is compatible with the PDP-11/VAX single-precision floating-point format. The primary purpose of this array type is to interface with the FPS array processor, which can transfer data directly in and out of such an array.

Any type of number may be stored into an art-fps-float array, but it will in effect be converted to a flonum, and then rounded off to the 24-bit precision of the PDP-11. If the magnitude of the number is too large, the largest valid floating-point number will be stored. If the magnitude is too small, zero will be stored.

When an element of an art-fps-float array is read, a new flonum is created containing the value, just as with an art-float array.

The art-complex array type is a special purpose type whose elements are arbitrary numbers, which may be complex numbers. (Most of the numeric array types can only hold real numbers.) As compared with an ordinary art-q array, art-complex provides an advantage in garbage collection similar to what art-float provides for floating point numbers.

The art-complex-float array type is a special purpose type whose elements are numbers (real or complex) whose real and imaginary parts are both floating point numbers. (If you store a non-floating-point number into the array, its real and imaginary parts are converted to floating point.) This provides maximum advantage in garbage collection if all the elements you wish to store in the array are numbers with floating point real and imaginary parts.

The art-complex-fps-float array type is similar to art-complex-float but each real or imaginary part is stored in the form used by the FPS array processor. Each element occupies two words, the first being the real part and the second being the imaginary part.

There are three types of arrays which exist only for the implementation of *stack groups*; these types are called art-stack-group-head, art-special-pdl, and art-reg-pdl. Their elements may be any Lisp object; their use is explained in the section on stack groups (see chapter 12, page 186).

array-types Variable

The value of array-types is a list of all of the array type symbols such as art-q, art-4b, art-string and so on. The values of these symbols are internal array type code numbers for the corresponding type.

array-types array-type-code

Given an internal numeric array-type code, returns the symbolic name of that type.

array-elements-per-q

Variable

array-elements-per-q is an association list (see page 78) which associates each array type symbol with the number of array elements stored in one word, for an array of that type. If the value is negative, it is instead the number of words per array element, for arrays whose elements are more than one word long.

array-elements-per-q array-type-code

Given the internal array-type code number, returns the number of array elements stored in one word, for an array of that type. If the value is negative, it is instead the number of words per array element, for arrays whose elements are more than one word long.

array-bits-per-element

Variable

The value of array-bits-per-element is an association list (see page 78) which associates each array type symbol with the number of bits of unsigned number it can hold, or nil if it can hold Lisp objects. This can be used to tell whether an array can hold Lisp objects or not.

array-bits-per-element array-type-code

Given the internal array-type code numbers, returns the number of bits per cell for unsigned numeric arrays, or nil for a type of array that can contain Lisp objects.

array-element-size array

Given an array, returns the number of bits that fit in an element of that array. For arrays that can hold general Lisp objects, the result is 24., assuming you will be storing unsigned fixnums in the array.

8.1 Extra Features of Arrays

Any array may have an array leader. An array leader is like a one-dimensional art-q array which is attached to the main array. So an array which has a leader acts like two arrays joined together. The leader can be stored into and examined by a special set of functions, different from those used for the main array: array-leader and store-array-leader. The leader is always one-dimensional, and always can hold any kind of Lisp object, regardless of the type or rank of the main part of the array.

Very often the main part of an array will be a homogeneous set of objects, while the leader will be used to remember a few associated non-homogeneous pieces of data. In this case the leader is not used like an array; each slot is used differently from the others. Explicit numeric subscripts should not be used for the leader elements of such an array; instead the leader should be described by a defstruct (see page 300).

By convention, element 0 of the array leader of an array is used to hold the number of elements in the array that are "active" in some sense. When the zeroth element is used this way, it is called a *fill pointer*. Many array-processing functions recognize the fill pointer. For instance, if a string (an array of type art-string) has seven elements, but its fill pointer contains the value five, then only elements zero through four of the string are considered to be "active"; the string's printed representation will be five characters long, string-searching functions will stop after the fifth element, etc.

fill-pointer array

Returns the fill pointer of array, or nil if it does not have one. This function can be used with setf to set the array's fill pointer.

The system does not provide a way to turn off the fill-pointer convention; any array that has a leader must reserve element 0 for the fill pointer or avoid using many of the array functions.

Leader element 1 is used in conjunction with the "named structure" feature to associate a "data type" with the array; see page 312. Element 1 is only treated specially if the array is flagged as a named structure.

8.1.1 Displaced Arrays

The following explanation of *displaced arrays* is probably not of interest to a beginner; the section may be passed over without losing the continuity of the manual.

Normally, an array is represented as a small amount of header information, followed by the contents of the array. However, sometimes it is desirable to have the header information removed from the actual contents. One such occasion is when the contents of the array must be located in a special part of the Lisp Machine's address space, such as the area used for the control of input/output devices, or the bitmap memory which generates the TV image. Displaced arrays are also used to reference certain special system tables, which are at fixed addresses so the microcode can access them easily.

If you give make-array a fixnum or a locative as the value of the :displaced-to option, it will create a displaced array referring to that location of virtual memory and its successors. References to elements of the displaced array will access that part of storage, and return the contents; the regular aref and aset functions are used. If the array is one whose elements are Lisp objects, caution should be used: if the region of address space does not contain typed Lisp objects, the integrity of the storage system and the garbage collector could be damaged. If the array is one whose elements are bytes (such as an art-4b type), then there is no problem. It is important to know, in this case, that the elements of such arrays are allocated from the right to the left within the 32-bit words.

It is also possible to have an array whose contents, instead of being located at a fixed place in virtual memory, are defined to be those of another array. Such an array is called an *indirect array*, and is created by giving make-array an array as the value of the :displaced-to option. The effects of this are simple if both arrays have the same type; the two arrays share all elements. An object stored in a certain element of one can be retrieved from the corresponding element of the other. This, by itself, is not very useful. However, if the arrays have different rank, the manner of accessing the elements differs. Thus, creating a one-dimensional array of nine elements, indirected to a second, two-dimensional array of three elements by three, allows access to the elements in either a one-dimensional or a two-dimensional manner. Weird effects can be produced if the new array is of a different type than the old array; this is not generally recommended. Indirecting an art-mb array to an art-nb array will do the obvious thing. For instance, if m is 4 and n is 1, each element of the first array will contain four bits from the second array, in right-to-left order.

It is also possible to create an indirect array in such a way that when an attempt is made to reference it or store into it, a constant number is added to the subscript given. This number is called the *index-offset*. It is specified at the time the indirect array is created, by giving a fixnum to make-array as the value of the :displaced-index-offset option. The length of the indirect array need not be the full length of the array it indirects to; it can be smaller. Thus the indirect array can cover just a subrange of the original array. The nsubstring function (see page 146) creates such arrays. When using index offsets with multi-dimensional arrays, there is only one index offset; it is added in to the "linearized" subscript which is the result of multiplying each subscript by an appropriate coefficient and adding them together.

8.2 Basic Array Functions

make-array dimensions & rest options.

This is the primitive function for making arrays. dimensions should be a list of fixnums which are the dimensions of the array; the length of the list will be the rank of the array. For convenience when making a one-dimensional array, the single dimension may be provided as a fixnum rather than a list of one fixnum.

options are alternating keywords and values. The keywords may be any of the following:

:area

The value specifies in which area (see chapter 15, page 223) the list should be created. It should be either an area number (a fixnum), or nil to mean the default area.

:type

The value should be a symbolic name of an array type; the most common of these is art-q, which is the default. The elements of the array are initialized according to the type: if the array is of a type whose elements may only be fixnums or flonums, then every element of the array will initially be 0 or 0.0; otherwise, every element will initially be nil. See the description of array types on page 121. The value of the option may also be the value of a symbol which is an array type name (that is, an internal numeric array type code).

:initial-value

This specifies the value to be stored in each element of the new array. If it is not specified, it is nil for arrays that can hold arbitrary objects, or 0 or 0.0 for numeric arrays.

:displaced-to If this is not nil, then the array will be a displaced array. If the value is a fixnum or a locative, make-array will create a regular displaced array which refers to the specified section of virtual address space. If the value is an array, make-array will create an indirect array (see page 125).

:leader-length The value should be a fixnum. The array will have a leader with that many elements. The elements of the leader will be initialized to nil unless the :leader-list option is given (see below).

:leader-list

The value should be a list. Call the number of elements in the list n. The first n elements of the leader will be initialized from successive elements of this list. If the :leader-length option is not specified, then the length of the leader will be n. If the :leader-length option is given. and its value is greater than n, then the nth and following leader elements will be initialized to nil. If its value is less than n, an error is signalled. The leader elements are filled in forward order; that is, the car of the list will be stored in leader element 0, the cadr in element 1, and so on.

:fill-pointer

The value should be a fixnum. The array will have a leader with at least one element, and this fixnum will go in that element.

Using the :fill-pointer option is equivalent to using :leader-list with a list one element long. It avoids consing the list, and is also compatible with Common Lisp.

:displaced-index-offset

If this is present, the value of the :displaced-to option should be an array, and the value should be a non-negative fixnum; it is made to be the index-offset of the created indirect array. (See page 125.)

:named-structure-symbol

If this is not nil, it is a symbol to be stored in the named-structure cell of the array. The array will be tagged as a named structure (see page 312.) If the array has a leader, then this symbol will be stored in leader element 1 regardless of the value of the :leader-list option. If the array does not have a leader, then this symbol will be stored in array element zero.

Examples:

```
:: Create a one-dimensional array of five elements.
(make-array 5)
:: Create a two-dimensional array,
;; three by four, with four-bit elements.
(make-array '(3 4) ':type 'art-4b)
:: Create an array with a three-element leader.
(make-array 5 ':leader-length 3)
:: Create an array containing 5 t's,
;; and a fill pointer saying the array is full.
(make-array 5 ':initial-value t ':fill-pointer 5)
;; Create a named-structure with five leader
:: elements, initializing some of them.
(setq b (make-array 20 ':leader-length 5
                            ':leader-list '(0 nil foo)
                            ':named-structure-symbol 'bar))
(array-leader b 0) => 0
(array-leader b 1) => bar
(array-leader b 2) => foo
(array-leader b 3) => nil
(array-leader b 4) => nil
```

make-array returns the newly-created array, and also returns, as a second value, the number of words allocated in the process of creating the array, i.e. the %structure-total-size of the array.

When make-array was originally implemented, it took its arguments in the following fixed pattern:

```
(make-array area type dimensions
& optional displaced-to leader
displaced-index-offset
named-structure-symbol)
```

leader was a combination of the :leader-length and :leader-list options, and the list was in reverse order. This obsolete form is still supported so that old programs will continue to work, but the new keyword-argument form is preferred.

aref array &rest subscripts

Returns the element of array selected by the subscripts. The subscripts must be fixnums and their number must match the rank of array.

```
ar-1 array i
ar-2 array i j
ar-3 array i j k
```

These are obsolete versions of aref that only work for one-, two-, or three-dimensional arrays, respectively. There is no reason ever to use them.

aset x array &rest subscripts

Stores x into the element of array selected by the subscripts. The subscripts must be fixnums and their number must match the rank of array. The returned value is x.

```
as-1 x array i
as-2 x array i j
as-3 x array i j k
```

These are obsolete versions of aset that only work for one-, two-, or three-dimensional arrays, respectively. There is no reason ever to use them.

aloc array &rest subscripts

Returns a locative pointer to the element-cell of array selected by the subscripts. The subscripts must be fixnums and their number must match the rank of array. See the explanation of locatives in chapter 13, page 197.

```
ap-1 array i
ap-2 array i j
ap-3 array i j k
```

These are obsolete versions of aloc that only work for one-, two-, or three-dimensional arrays, respectively. There is no reason ever to use them.

The compiler turns aref into ar-1, ar-2, etc. according to the number of subscripts specified, turns aset into as-1, as-2, etc., and turns aloc into ap-1, ap-2, etc. For arrays with more than three dimensions the compiler uses the slightly less efficient form since the special routines only exist for one, two and three dimensions. There is no reason for any program to call ar-1, as-1, ar-2, etc. explicitly; they are documented because there used to be such a reason, and many old programs use these functions. New programs should use aref, aset, and aloc.

A related function, provided only for Maclisp compatibility, is arraycall (page 142).

```
ar-1-force array i
as-1-force value array i
ap-1-force array i
```

These functions access an array with a single subscript regardless of how many dimensions the array has. They may be useful for manipulating arrays of varying rank, as an alternative to maintaining and updating lists of subscripts or to creating one-dimensional indirect arrays.

In using these functions, you must pay attention to the order in which the array elements are actually stored. See section 8.8, page 137.

129

array-leader array i

array should be an array with a leader, and i should be a fixnum. This returns the i th element of array's leader. This is analogous to aref.

store-array-leader x array i

array should be an array with a leader, and i should be a fixnum. x may be any object. x is stored in the i th element of array's leader. store-array-leader returns x. This is analogous to aset.

ap-leader array i

array should be an array with a leader, and i should be a fixnum. This returns a locative pointer to the i th element of array's leader. See the explanation of locatives, chapter 13, page 197. This is analogous to **aloc**.

Here are the conditions signaled for various errors in accessing arrays.

sys:array-has-no-leader (sys:bad-array-mixin error)

Condition

This is signaled on a reference to the leader of an array that doesn't have one. The condition instance supports the :array operation, which returns the array that was used.

The :new-array proceed-type is provided.

sys:bad-array-mixin

Condition Flavor

This mixin is used in the conditions signaled by several kinds of problems pertaining to arrays. It defines prompting for the :new-array proceed type.

sys:array-wrong-number-of-dimensions (sys:bad-array-mixin error)

Condition

This is signaled when an array is referenced (either reading or writing) with the wrong number of subscripts; for example, (aref "foo" 1 2).

The :array operation on the condition instance returns the array that was used. The :subscripts-used operation returns the list of subscripts used.

The :new-array proceed type is provided. It expects one argument, an array to use instead of the original one.

sys:subscript-out-of-bounds (error)

Condition

This is signaled when there are the right number of subscripts but their values specify an element that falls outside the bounds of the array. The same condition is used by sys:%instance-ref, etc., when the index is out of bounds in the instance.

The condition instance supports the operations :object and :subscripts-used, which return the array or instance and the list of subscripts.

The :new-subscript proceed type is provided. It takes an appropriate number of subscripts as arguments. You should provide as many subscripts as there originally were.

sys:number-array-not-allowed (sys:bad-array-mixin error)

Condition

This is signaled by an attempt to use aloc on a numeric array. The :array operation and the :new-array proceed type are available.

8.3 Getting Information About an Array

array-type array

Returns the symbolic type of array.

Example:

```
(setq a (make-array '(3 5)))
(array-type a) => art-q
```

array-length array

array may be any array. This returns the total number of elements in *array*. For a one-dimensional array, this is one greater than the maximum allowable subscript. (But if fill pointers are being used, you may want to use **array-active-length.**) Example:

array-active-length array

If array does not have a fill pointer, then this returns whatever (array-length array) would have. If array does have a fill pointer, array-active-length returns it. See the general explanation of the use of fill pointers on page 124.

array-rank array

Returns the number of dimensions of array.

Example:

```
(array-rank (make-array '(3 5))) => 2
```

array-dimension array n

Returns the length of dimension n of array, or nil if n is negative or not less than the rank of array.

```
(setq a (make-array '(2 3)))
(array-dimension a 0) => 2
(array-dimension a 1) => 3
```

array-dimension-n n array

array may be any kind of array, and n should be a fixnum. If n is between 1 and the rank of array, this returns the n th dimension of array. If n is 0, this returns the length of the leader of array; if array has no leader it returns nil. If n is any other value, this returns nil.

This function is obsolete.

Examples:

```
(setq a (make-array '(3 5) ':leader-length 7))
(array-dimension-n 1 a) => 3
(array-dimension-n 2 a) => 5
(array-dimension-n 3 a) => nil
(array-dimension-n 0 a) => 7
```

array-dimensions array

array-dimensions returns a list whose elements are the dimensions of array.

Example:

```
(setq a (make-array (3 5)))
(array-dimensions a) => (3 5)
```

Note: the list returned by (array-dimensions x) is equal to the cdr of the list returned by (arraydims x).

arraydims array

array may be any array; it also may be a symbol whose function cell contains an array, for Maclisp compatibility (see section 8.11, page 141). arraydims returns a list whose first element is the symbolic name of the type of array, and whose remaining elements are its dimensions.

Example:

```
(setq a (make-array '(3 5)))
(arraydims a) => (art-q 3 5)
```

array-in-bounds-p array & rest subscripts

This function checks whether *subscripts* is a legal set of subscripts for *array*, and returns t if they are; otherwise it returns nil.

array-displaced-p array

array may be any kind of array. This predicate returns t if array is any kind of displaced array (including an indirect array). Otherwise it returns nil.

array-indirect-p array

array may be any kind of array. This predicate returns t if array is an indirect array. Otherwise it returns nil.

array-indexed-p array

array may be any kind of array. This predicate returns t if array is an indirect array with an index-offset. Otherwise it returns nil.

array-index-offset array

array may be any kind of array. This returns the index offset of array if it is an indirect array which has an index offset. Otherwise it returns nil.

array-has-leader-p array

array may be any array. This predicate returns t if array has a leader; otherwise it returns nil.

array-leader-length array

array may be any array. This returns the length of array's leader if it has one, or nil if it does not.

8.4 Changing the Size of an Array

adjust-array-size array new-size

If array is a one-dimensional array, its size is changed to be new-size. If array has more than one dimension, its size (array-length) is changed to new-size by changing only the last dimension.

If array is made smaller, the extra elements are lost; if array is made bigger, the new elements are initialized in the same fashion as make-array (see page 126) would initialize them: either to nil or 0, depending on the type of array.

Example:

```
(setq a (make-array 5))
(aset 'foo a 4)
(aref a 4) => foo
(adjust-array-size a 2)
(aref a 4) => an error occurs
```

If the size of the array is being increased, adjust-array-size may have to allocate a new array somewhere. In that case, it alters *array* so that references to it will be made to the new array instead, by means of "invisible pointers" (see structure-forward, page 203). adjust-array-size will return this new array if it creates one, and otherwise it will return *array*. Be careful to be consistent about using the returned result of adjust-array-size, because you may end up holding two arrays which are not the same (i.e. not eq), but which share the same contents.

array-grow array & rest dimensions

array-grow creates a new array of the same type as *array*, with the specified dimensions. Those elements of *array* that are still in bounds are copied into the new array. The elements of the new array that are not in the bounds of *array* are initialized to nil or 0 as appropriate. If *array* has a leader, the new array will have a copy of it. array-grow returns the new array and also forwards *array* to it, like adjust-array-size.

Unlike adjust-array-size, array-grow always creates a new array rather than growing or shrinking the array in place. But array-grow of a multi-dimensional array can change all the subscripts and move the elements around in memory to keep each element at the same logical place in the array.

si:change-indirect-array array type dimlist displaced-p index-offset

Change an indirect array array's type, size, or target pointed at. type specifies the new array type, dimlist its new dimensions, displaced-p the target it should point to (an array, locative or fixnum), and index-offset the new offset in the new target.

array is returned.

8.5 Arrays Overlaid With Lists

These functions manipulate art-q-list arrays, which were introduced on page 121.

g-1-p array

array should be an art-q-list array. This returns a list which shares the storage of array. Example:

```
(setq a (make-array 4 ':type 'art-q-list))
(aref a 0) => nil
(setq b (g-l-p a)) => (nil nil nil nil)
(rplaca b t)
b => (t nil nil nil)
(aref a 0) => t
(aset 30 a 2)
b => (t nil 30 nil)
```

The following two functions work strangely, in the same way that store does, and should not be used in new programs.

get-list-pointer-into-array array-ref

The argument *array-ref* is ignored, but should be a reference to an art-q-list array by applying the array to subscripts (rather than by aref). This returns a list object which is a portion of the "list" of the array, beginning with the last element of the last array which has been called as a function.

get-locative-pointer-into-array array-ref

get-locative-pointer-into-array is similar to get-list-pointer-into-array, except that it returns a locative, and doesn't require the array to be art-q-list. Use aloc instead of this function in new programs.

8.6 Adding to the End of an Array

array-push array x

array must be a one-dimensional array which has a fill pointer and x may be any object. array-push attempts to store x in the element of the array designated by the fill pointer, and increase the fill pointer by one. If the fill pointer does not designate an element of the array (specifically, when it gets too big), it is unaffected and array-push returns nil; otherwise, the two actions (storing and incrementing) happen uninterruptibly, and array-push returns the *former* value of the fill pointer, i.e. the array index in which it stored x. If the array is of type art-q-list, an operation similar to nconc has taken place, in that

the element has been added to the list by changing the cdr of the formerly last element. The cdr coding is updated to ensure this.

array-push-extend array x & optional extension

array-push-extend is just like array-push except that if the fill pointer gets too large, the array is grown to fit the new element; i.e. it never "fails" the way array-push does, and so never returns nil. *extension* is the number of elements to be added to the array if it needs to be grown. It defaults to something reasonable, based on the size of the array.

array-pop array

array must be a one-dimensional array which has a fill pointer. The fill pointer is decreased by one and the array element designated by the new value of the fill pointer is returned. If the new value does not designate any element of the array (specifically, if it had already reached zero), an error is caused. The two operations (decrementing and array referencing) happen uninterruptibly. If the array is of type art-q-list, an operation similar to nbutlast has taken place. The cdr coding is updated to ensure this.

sys:fill-pointer-not-fixnum (sys:bad-array-mixin error)

Condition

This is signaled when one of the functions in this section is used with an array whose leader element zero is not a fixnum. Most other array accessing operations will simply assume that the array has no fill pointer in such a case, but these cannot be performed without a fill pointer.

The :array operation on the condition instance returns the array that was used. The :new-array proceed type is supported, with one argument, an array.

8.7 Copying an Array

array-initialize array value & optional start end

Stores value into all or part of array. start and end are optional indices which delimit the part of array to be initialized. They default to the beginning and end of the array.

This function is by far the fastest way to do the job.

fillarray array x

array may be any type of array, or, for Maclisp compatibility, a symbol whose function cell contains an array. It can also be nil, in which case an array of type art-q is created. There are two forms of this function, depending on the type of x.

If x is a list, then fillarray fills up array with the elements of list. If x is too short to fill up all of array, then the last element of x is used to fill the remaining elements of array. If x is too long, the extra elements are ignored. If x is nil (the empty list), array is filled with the default initial value for its array type (nil or 0).

If x is an array (or, for Maclisp compatibility, a symbol whose function cell contains an array), then the elements of array are filled up from the elements of x. If x is too small, then the extra elements of array are not affected.

If array is multi-dimensional, the elements are accessed in row-major order: the last subscript varies the most quickly. The same is true of x if it is an array.

fillarray returns array; or, if array was nil, the newly created array.

listarray array & optional limit

array may be any type of array or, for Maclisp compatibility, a symbol whose function cell contains an array. **listarray** creates and returns a list whose elements are those of array. If *limit* is present, it should be a fixnum, and only the first *limit* (if there are more than that many) elements of array are used, and so the maximum length of the returned list is *limit*.

If array is multi-dimensional, the elements are accessed in row-major order: the last subscript varies the most quickly.

list-array-leader array & optional limit

array may be any type of array, or, for Maclisp compatibility, a symbol whose function cell contains an array. list-array-leader creates and returns a list whose elements are those of array's leader. If limit is present, it should be a fixnum, and only the first limit (if there are more than that many) elements of array's leader are used, and so the maximum length of the returned list is limit. If array has no leader, nil is returned.

copy-array-contents from to

from and to must be arrays. The contents of from is copied into the contents of to, element by element. If to is shorter than from, the rest of from is ignored. If from is shorter than to, the rest of to is filled with nil if it is a q-type array, or 0 if it is a numeric array or a string, or 0.0 if it is a flonum array. This function always returns t.

Note that even if *from* or *to* has a leader, the whole array is used; the convention that leader element 0 is the "active" length of the array is not used by this function. The leader itself is not copied.

copy-array-contents works on multi-dimensional arrays. *from* and *to* are "linearized" subscripts, and elements are taken in the order they are stored in memory. See array-index-order, page 137.

copy-array-contents-and-leader from to

This is just like copy-array-contents, but the leader of *from* (if any) is also copied into to. copy-array-contents copies only the main part of the array.

copy-array-portion from-array from-start from-end to-array to-start to-end

The portion of the array from-array with indices greater than or equal to from-start and less than from-end is copied into the portion of the array to-array with indices greater than or equal to to-start and less than to-end, element by element. If there are more elements in the selected portion of to-array than in the selected portion of from-array, the extra elements are filled with the default value as by copy-array-contents. If there are more elements in the selected portion of from-array, the extra ones are ignored. Multi-dimensional arrays are treated the same way as copy-array-contents treats them. This function always returns t.

bitblt alu width height from-array from-x from-y to-array to-x to-y

from-array and to-array must be two-dimensional arrays of bits or bytes (art-1b, art-2b, art-4b, art-8b, art-16b, or art-32b). bitblt copies a rectangular portion of from-array into a rectangular portion of to-array. The value stored can be a Boolean function of the new value and the value already there, under the control of alu (see below). This function is most commonly used in connection with raster images for TV displays.

The top-left corner of the source rectangle is (ar-2-reverse from-array from-x from-y). The top-left corner of the destination rectangle is (ar-2-reverse to-array to-x to-y). width and height are the dimensions of both rectangles. If width or height is zero, bitblt does nothing. The x coordinates and width may be used as the first or the second dimension of the array, according to array-index-order. The choice is made so that x will come out as horizontal on the TV screen. See page 137.

from-array and to-array are allowed to be the same array. bitblt normally traverses the arrays in increasing order of x and y subscripts. If width is negative, then (abs width) is used as the width, but the processing of the x direction is done backwards, starting with the highest value of x and working down. If height is negative it is treated analogously. When bitblt'ing an array to itself, when the two rectangles overlap, it may be necessary to work backwards to achieve effects such as shifting the entire array downwards by a certain number of rows. Note that negativity of width or height does not affect the (x,y) coordinates specified by the arguments, which are still the top-left corner even if bitblt starts at some other corner.

If the two arrays are of different types, bitblt works bit-wise and not element-wise. That is, if you bitblt from an art-2b array into an art-4b array, then two elements of the from-array will correspond to one element of the to-array.

If bitblt goes outside the bounds of the source array, it wraps around. This allows such operations as the replication of a small stipple pattern through a large array. If bitblt goes outside the bounds of the destination array, it signals an error.

If src is an element of the source rectangle, and dst is the corresponding element of the destination rectangle, then bitblt changes the value of dst to (boole alu src dst). See the boole function (page 114). There are symbolic names for some of the most useful alu functions; they are tv:alu-seta (plain copy), tv:alu-ior (inclusive or), tv:alu-xor (exclusive or), and tv:alu-andca (and with complement of source).

bitblt is written in highly-optimized microcode and goes very much faster than the same thing written with ordinary aref and aset operations would. Unfortunately this causes bitblt to have a couple of strange restrictions. Wrap-around does not work correctly if from-array is an indirect array with an index-offset. bitblt will signal an error if the first dimensions of from-array and to-array are not both integral multiples of the machine word length. For art-1b arrays, the first dimension must be a multiple of 32., for art-2b arrays it must be a multiple of 16., etc.

%blt (page 206) is often useful for copying parts of arrays. It can be used to shift a part of an array either up or down.

8.8 Order of Array Elements

Currently, multi-dimensional arrays are stored in column-major order rather than row-major order as in Maclisp. Row-major order means that successive memory locations differ in the last subscript, while column-major order means that successive memory locations differ in the first subscript. However, as part of the adoption of Common Lisp, the Lisp machine will switch to the more standard row-major order. This change will take place a few months from now.

array-index-order

Variable

If this variable is non-nil, arrays are stored in row-major order (last subscript varies fastest). Otherwise, they are stored in column-major order. The default value of this symbol is nil.

Most user code has no need to know about which order array elements are stored in. There are three known reasons to care: use of multidimensional indirect arrays; paging efficiency (if you want to reference every element in a multi-dimensional array and move linearly through memory to improve locality of reference, you must vary the first subscript fastest rather than the last, in column-major order); and access to the tv screen or to arrays of pixels copied to or from the screen with bitblt. The latter is the most important one.

The bits on the screen are actually stored in rows, which means that the dimension that varies fastest has to be the horizontal position. As a result, if arrays are stored in row-major order, the horizontal position must be the second subscript, but if arrays are stored in column-major order, the horizontal position must be the first subscript. To ease the conversion of code that uses arrays of pixels, several bridging functions are provided:

make-pixel-array width height &rest options

This is like make-array except that the dimensions of the array are width and height, in whichever order is correct. width will be the dimension in the subscript that varies fastest in memory, and height will be the other dimension. options are passed along to make-array to specify everything but the size of the array.

pixel-array-width array

Returns the extent of array, a two-dimensional array, in the dimension that varies faster through memory. For a screen array, this will always be the width.

pixel-array-height array

Returns the extent of *array*, a two-dimensional array, in the dimension that varies slower through memory. For a screen array, this will always be the height.

ar-2-reverse array horizontal-index vertical-index

Returns the element of array at horizontal-index and vertical-index. horizontal-index will be used as the subscript in whichever dimension varies faster through memory.

as-2-reverse newvalue array horizontal-index vertical-index

Stores newvalue into the element of array at horizontal-index and vertical-index. horizontal-index will be used as the subscript in whichever dimension varies faster through memory.

By replacing calls to make-array, array-dimension-n, aref and aset with these functions, you can trivially change your code (without changing the order of arguments) so that it will work no matter what order array elements are stored in, and still display properly on the screen. When the Big Change happens, you will not even need to recompile your program.

8.9 Matrices and Systems of Linear Equations

The functions in this section perform some useful matrix operations. The matrices are represented as two-dimensional Lisp arrays. These functions are part of the mathematics package rather than the kernel array system, hence the "math:" in the names.

math:multiply-matrices matrix-1 matrix-2 & optional matrix-3

Multiplies *matrix-1* by *matrix-2*. If *matrix-3* is supplied, multiply-matrices stores the results into *matrix-3* and returns *matrix-3*; otherwise it creates an array to contain the answer and returns that. All matrices must be two-dimensional arrays, and the first dimension of *matrix-2* must equal the second dimension of *matrix-1*.

math:invert-matrix matrix & optional into-matrix

Computes the inverse of *matrix*. If *into-matrix* is supplied, stores the result into it and returns it; otherwise it creates an array to hold the result and returns that, *matrix* must be two-dimensional and square. The Gauss-Jordan algorithm with partial pivoting is used. Note: if you want to solve a set of simultaneous equations, you should not use this function; use math:decompose and math:solve (see below).

math:transpose-matrix matrix & optional into-matrix

Transposes *matrix*. If *into-matrix* is supplied, stores the result into it and returns it; otherwise it creates an array to hold the result and returns that. *matrix* must be a two-dimensional array. *into-matrix*, if provided, must be two-dimensional and have sufficient dimensions to hold the transpose of *matrix*.

math:determinant matrix

Returns the determinant of matrix. matrix must be a two-dimensional square matrix.

The next two functions are used to solve sets of simultaneous linear equations. math:decompose takes a matrix holding the coefficients of the equations and produces the LU decomposition; this decomposition can then be passed to math:solve along with a vector of right-hand sides to get the values of the variables. If you want to solve the same equations for many different sets of right-hand side values, you only need to call math:decompose once. In terms of the argument names used below, these two functions exist to solve the vector equation A = b for x. A is a matrix. b and x are vectors.

math:decompose a &optional lu ps

Computes the LU decomposition of matrix a. If lu is non-nil, stores the result into it and returns it; otherwise it creates an array to hold the result, and returns that. The lower triangle of lu, with ones added along the diagonal, is L, and the upper triangle of lu is U, such that the product of L and U is a. Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting is used. The lu array is permuted by rows according to the permutation array ps, which is also produced by this function; if the argument ps is supplied, the permutation

array is stored into it; otherwise, an array is created to hold it. This function returns two values, the LU decomposition and the permutation array.

math:solve lu ps b &optional x

This function takes the LU decomposition and associated permutation array produced by math: decompose and solves the set of simultaneous equations defined by the original matrix a and the right-hand sides in the vector b. If x is supplied, the solutions are stored into it and it is returned; otherwise an array is created to hold the solutions and that is returned. b must be a one-dimensional array.

math:list-2d-array array

Returns a list of lists containing the values in *array*, which must be a two-dimensional array. There is one element for each row; each element is a list of the values in that row.

math:fill-2d-array array list

This is the opposite of math:list-2d-array. *list* should be a list of lists, with each element being a list corresponding to a row. *array*'s elements are stored from the list. Unlike fillarray (see page 134), if *list* is not long enough, math:fill-2d-array "wraps around", starting over at the beginning. The lists which are elements of *list* also work this way.

math:singular-matrix (sys:arithmetic-error error)

Condition

This is signaled when any of the matrix manipulation functions in this section has trouble because of a singular matrix. (In some functions, such as math:determinant, a singular matrix is not a problem.)

The :matrix operation on the condition instance returns the matrix which is singular.

8.10 Planes

A plane is effectively an array whose bounds, in each dimension, are plus-infinity and minus-infinity; all integers are legal as indices. Planes may be of any rank. When you create a plane, you do not need to specify any size, just the rank. You also specify a default value. At that moment, every component of the plane has that value. As you can't ever change more than a finite number of components, only a finite region of the plane need actually be stored. When you refer to an element for which space has not actually been allocated, you just get the default value.

The regular array accessing functions don't work on planes. You can use make-plane to create a plane, plane-aref or plane-ref to get the value of a component, and plane-aset or plane-store to store into a component. array-rank will work on a plane.

A plane is actually stored as an array with a leader. The array corresponds to a rectangular, aligned region of the plane, containing all the components in which a plane-store has been done (and, usually, others which have never been altered). The lowest-coordinate corner of that rectangular region is given by the plane-origin in the array leader. The highest-coordinate corner can be found by adding the plane-origin to the array-dimensions of the array. The plane-

default is the contents of all the elements of the plane that are not actually stored in the array. The plane-extension is the amount to extend a plane by in any direction when the plane needs to be extended. The default is 32.

If you never use any negative indices, then the plane-origin will be all zeroes and you can use regular array functions, such as aref and aset, to access the portion of the plane that is actually stored. This can be useful to speed up certain algorithms. In this case you can even use the bitblt function on a two-dimensional plane of bits or bytes, provided you don't change the plane-extension to a number that is not a multiple of 32.

make-plane rank & rest options

Creates and returns a plane. rank is the number of dimensions. options is a list of alternating keyword symbols and values. The allowed keywords are:

:type

The array type symbol (e.g. art-1b) specifying the type of the array out of which the plane is made.

:default-value The default component value as explained above.

:extension

The amount by which to extend the plane, as explained above.

Example:

(make-plane 2 ':type 'art-4b ':default-value 3) creates a two-dimensional plane of type art-4b, with default value 3.

plane-origin plane

A list of numbers, giving the lowest coordinate values actually stored.

plane-default plane

This is the contents of the infinite number of plane elements that are not actually stored.

plane-extension plane

The amount to extend the plane by, in any direction, when plane-store is done outside of the currently-stored portion.

```
plane-aref plane &rest subscripts
plane-ref plane subscripts
```

These two functions return the contents of a specified element of a plane. They differ only in the way they take their arguments; plane-aref wants the subscripts as arguments, while plane-ref wants a list of subscripts.

```
plane-aset datum plane & rest subscripts
plane-store datum plane subscripts
```

These two functions store *datum* into the specified element of a plane, extending it if necessary, and return *datum*. They differ only in the way they take their arguments; plane-aset wants the subscripts as arguments, while plane-store wants a list of subscripts.

8.11 Maclisp Array Compatibility

The functions in this section are provided only for Maclisp compatibility and should not be used in new programs.

Fixnum arrays do not exist (however, see Zetalisp's small-positive-integer arrays). Flonum arrays exist but you do not use them in the same way; no declarations are required or allowed. "Un-garbage-collected" arrays do not exist. Readtables and obarrays are represented as arrays, but Zetalisp does not use special array types for them. See the descriptions of read (page 383) and intern (page 512) for information about readtables and obarrays (packages). There are no "dead" arrays, nor are Multics "external" arrays provided.

The arraycall function exists for compatibility but should not be used (see aref, page 128.)

Subscripts are always checked for validity, regardless of the value of *rset and whether the code is compiled or not. However, in a multi-dimensional array, an error is caused only if the subscripts would have resulted in a reference to storage outside of the array. For example, if you have a 2 by 7 array and refer to an element with subscripts 3 and 1, no error will be caused despite the fact that the reference is invalid; but if you refer to element 1 by 100, an error will be caused. In other words, subscript errors will be caught if and only if they refer to storage outside the array; some errors are undetected, but they will only clobber (alter randomly) some other element of the same array, not something completely unpredictable.

Currently, multi-dimensional arrays are stored in column-major order rather than row-major order as in Maclisp. See section 8.8, page 137 for further discussion of this issue.

loadarrays and dumparrays are not provided. However, arrays can be put into QFASL files; see section 16.8, page 245.

The *rearray function is not provided, since not all of its functionality is available in Zetalisp. Its most common uses are implemented by adjust-array-size.

In Maclisp, arrays are usually kept on the array property of symbols, and the symbols are used instead of the arrays. In order to provide some degree of compatibility for this manner of using arrays, the array, *array, and store functions are provided, and when arrays are applied to arguments, the arguments are treated as subscripts and apply returns the corresponding element of the array.

array "e symbol type &eval &rest dims

This creates an art-q type array in default-array-area with the given dimensions. (That is, dims is given to make-array as its first argument.) type is ignored. If symbol is nil, the array is returned; otherwise, the array is put in the function cell of symbol, and symbol is returned.

*array symbol type &rest dims

This is just like array, except that all of the arguments are evaluated.

store array-ref x

Special Form

store stores x into the specified array element. array-ref should be a form which references an array by calling it as a function (aref forms are not acceptable). First x is evaluated, then array-ref is evaluated, and then the value of x is stored into the array cell last referenced by a function call, presumably the one in array-ref.

xstore x array-ref

This is just like **store**, but it is not a special form; this is because the arguments are in the other order. This function only exists for the compiler to compile the **store** special form into, and should never be used by programs.

arraycall ignored array & rest subscripts

(arraycall t array sub1 sub2...) is the same as (aref array sub1 sub2...). It exists for Maclisp compatibility.