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I have not been deluged with submissions for this column. I've gotten a few, but not enough to make it easy to put out another issue each quarter. Let me therefore repeat my charter:

The (algorithms) department consists of articles that fit into one or more of three broad categories:

- Annotated implementations of interesting and relevant algorithms; they should make particularly good or novel use of the unique features of the Lisp family of programming languages (e.g., closures, continuations, code as data, polymorphism),
- Annotated implementations of algorithms whose subject matter is the Lisp family of languages (e.g., code analysis tools, iteration facilities, generic arithmetic), and
- Discussion of performance issues, benchmarking, or implementation experiences for interesting algorithms written in or about the Lisp family of languages.

If you've got a piece of code that seems like it might be appropriate for inclusion here, or if you've written an article on such an algorithm or piece of code, please send it along to one of the addresses given above. If I agree that it's appropriate and it's a complete article, I'll print it in place of the column, as I did last issue. If it's not so polished, or even if it's simply a modestly commented piece of raw seething Lisp code, I'll write a column around it, as I did two issues ago and do this issue. In fact, a major portion of this issue's column was generated from an electronic mail discussion; the ideas weren't even polished enough to be real working code yet!

So give your code, ideas, or article a chance at a spot in-this column; we could be reading about your code next issue!

Our topic for this issue is the setf facility of Common Lisp, the mechanism by which socalled "generalized variables" can be read and written.

Surely all Common Lisp programmers are aware of the existence of the setf macro itself and most of its cousins, such as incf, push, and pop, but dramatically fewer hackers have ventured much further into the details of the facility. Probably, several of you have used the short form of defsetf to associate a "setting" function with a particular "getting" function. A somewhat smaller group have used either the longer form of defsetf, to define a more complex setter macro, or define-modifymacro, to create new macros like incf and decf. It seems, however, that very few people have plunged into the depths of true "setf methods", those groups of five values passed around by constructs like define-setf-method and get-setf-method.

In this column, we take a trip into the detailed depths of setf methods, noting along the way just a few of the odd and marvelous things that can be accomplished with them.

We'll start with a couple of new macros, implemented in Common Lisp by Rick Harris, that use generalized variables in new ways. Locf creates "locatives", anonymous handles through which you can get and set the contents of any generalized-variable reference. Letf binds generalized variables in much the same way that let binds special variables.

Then we'll move on to creating new kinds of generalized variables. I'll show useful setf methods for expressions involving such operators as cons, list, and quote; these enable, among other things, a pattern-matching assignment statement using backquote. Finally, we'll see how a proper setf method for values would yield a kind of "multiple-value-setf" if only setf itself had been slightly more broadly defined.

Before we see our first sights, however, let's recall the major points of the discussion on pages 104-107 of Common LISP: The Language. Given a particular generalized-variable reference, an expression that extracts a value from some location, we can derive a corresponding "setf method". The setf method explains how to store into that location and also how to evaluate the subexpressions of the reference form. The subexpression information is needed to properly implement expressions like this:

(incf (car (foo)))

A naive way to expand this expression is

(rplaca (foo) (1+ (car (foo))))

but this is incorrect if the function foo has sideeffects; foo is called too many times. Thus, the setf method for (car (foo)) must explain somehow that (foo) is an expression to be evaluated only once. A correct expansion would look something like this:

```
(let* ((tv (foo))
            (sv (1+ (car tv))))
            (progn
                (rplaca tv sv)
                sv))
```

The information used by the implementation of incf to produce such an expansion is the setf method of the form (car (foo)).

One of the things that is "generalized" in a "generalized variable" is that is need not contain just one value. Since the value of a generalized-variable reference is provided by a more-orless arbitrary expression, and since expression can return multiple values, generalized variables can "contain" multiple values. The structure of setf methods is defined so as to account for this possibility. A setf method is represented as a set of five values:

- A list of temporary variables.
- A list of *value forms*, subexpressions of the generalized-variable reference.
- A list of *store variables*, more temporary variables.
- A storing form, evaluated to update the generalized variable.
- An accessing form, evaluated to fetch the value(s) of the generalized variable.

The idea is that, to do anything with the generalized variable, one should first bind the *temporary variables* to the results of the *value forms*; there must be the same number of each. Within those bindings, then, one can evaluate the accessing form as often as desired to fetch the (then current) value(s) of the generalized variable. In order to update the generalized variable, one must also bind the store variables to the value(s) one wishes to store; within all of the bindings, then, one evaluates the storing form to actually perform the modification. The storing form should return the value(s) that was (were) stored.

I realize that this all sounds very complex, but it's not really that bad. Let's look at a couple of concrete examples, beginning with the expression (car (foo)) from above. The only subexpression is (foo), so we'll only need a single temporary variable; call it tv. This generalized variable, the car slot of whatever (foo) returns, can only accept a single value, so we'll have just one store variable; call it sv. The storing form should put sv into the car of tv and then return sv; the expression

(progn (rplaca tv sv) sv)

does that. Finally, the *accessing form* simply fetches the car of tv:

(car tv)

Thus, a correct setf method for the generalized-variable reference (car (foo)) is the following:

- (tv)
- ((foo))
- (sv)
- (progn (rplaca tv sv) sv)
- (car tv)

If it looks like there are too many parentheses in the second item above, recall that it is the *value forms*, a *list* of subexpressions. By looking for these items in the expansion given for incf above, one can begin to get an idea of how such macros are implemented.

It should be noted that setf methods usually use gensymed variable names, rather than tv and sv, to avoid the possibility of naming conflicts. I'll continue to use more readable names in the examples, though, so as not to further complicate things.

For a second example of a setf method, suppose that in a particular window system the function window-size takes a window as an argument and returns two values, real numbers representing the height and width of that window, respectively. Suppose further that windows are represented by defstruct-defined structures with two fields named width and height, among others. Thus, window-size could be implemented as follows:

```
(defun window-size (w)
  (values
     (window-height w)
     (window-width w)))
```

Let's now design the setf method for an example use of window-size, say (window-size (frotz)). As before, there is only one subexpression, so we have just one temporary variable, called tv as before. For symmetry with what window-size returns, however, we assume that we get two values to store, the new height and width. Thus, we need two store variables this time, one to hold each value; call them sv1 and sv2. The storing form should set both height and width appropriately and return those same values:

```
(values
  (setf (window-height tv) sv1)
  (setf (window-width tv) sv2))
```

Finally, the accessing form is again simple, just (window-size tv). The complete setf method for (window-size (frotz)) is thus these five values:

- (tv)
- ((frotz))

Figure 1: An implementation of the setf macro of Common Lisp

- (sv1 sv2)
- (values

(setf (window-height tv) sv1)
(setf (window-width tv) sv2))

• (window-size (frotz))

Now that we have some understanding of what's in a setf method, let's look at some macros that use them, beginning with setf itself. There are two functions in Common Lisp that return setf methods:

- get-setf-method
- øget-setf-method-multiple-value

Both of these take a single argument, the generalized-variable reference whose setf method is desired.¹ They each return the five values comprising the setf method for the given form. The only difference between the two is in their treatment of setf methods with more than one store variable. Because for many macros it only makes sense for a single value to be expected (incf is such a macro), it was decided that there was a need for a function that checked the setf method before returning it, checking that exactly one store variable was provided; get-setf-method is that function. The other function, get-setf-methodmultiple-value, is less discriminating; it returns the setf method regardless of the number of store variables.

The convenience of get-setf-method's builtin check is nice, but unfortunately the designers went one step further: they erroneously decided that there were no macros in Common Lisp itself for which multiple store variables made sense. This means that none of the setf-like macros in Common Lisp accept generalized variables containing more than one value, like our window-size function above. Even the simple expression

```
(setf (window-size win)
      (values h w))
```

is illegal in Common Lisp as defined in the silver book. I'll have more to say about this near the end of the article; for now, let's look at setf as currently defined.

The implementation of setf is quite simple; see Figure 1. After dealing with the case where more than one place/value pair was given,² we merely call get-setf-method to analyze the

¹Actually, in the version of Common Lisp being standardized by ANSI, these functions may have an optional second argument, the & ONVIRONMONT in which any macros should be expanded during the search for a sotf-able generalized-variable reference. I will ignore this issue in this article.

²The astute (or perhaps obscure) reader will have noticed that this implementation does not arrange for (sotf) to evaluate to nil, as required by the specification. I leave this "generalization" to the reader.

Figure 2: Implementation of locf.

generalized-variable reference and then put the pieces of the setf method together in a straightforward manner. We construct a let* in which the *temporary variables* are bound to the *value* forms and the single store variable is bound to the given expression. Within these bindings, we simply evaluate the storing form to effect the assignment. As an example, the form (setf (car (foo)) (bar)) would macro-expand into this:

Let's move on now to the first of our new uses for this machinery, a Common Lisp implementation of the locf macro from Symbolics Zetalisp, sent to me by Rick Harris from the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. The idea of locf is that it maps a generalized-variable reference into a so-called "locative" for that location. The function location-contents takes a locative and returns the contents of the corresponding generalized variable. To set that generalized variable, one uses setf of location-contents. With such a facility, one could, for example, rewrite a macro like incf as a function:

```
(defun increment (loc)
   (incf (location-contents loc))
```

Let x and loc be defined as follows:

(setq x (cons 1 2) loc (locf (car x)))

After evaluating (increment loc) a couple of times, the value of x would be $(3 \cdot 2)$. In effect, locf creates an anonymous handle on a particular generalized variable, in this case the car of x. This sort of thing is handy when your program must work with many types of data and you don't want to write a lot of special-purpose code. Instead of passing the actual data objects around, you create and pass locatives to the relevant slots in them. The receiving code can manipulate the slot without knowing what kind of object it's in.

Enough motivation, let's look at the implementation. The essential idea is that locf creates a structure containing two functions, one that returns the value of the generalized variable and one that sets that value. These functions are closures created from the information in the sotf method of the given form; see Figure 2. Note that the value forms are evaluated at the time the locative is created, not every time it's used; this ensures that any side-effects they might have are not duplicated. The locative structure type is defined by defstruct in the obvious way:

```
(defstruct locative
    access-fn
    modify-fn)
```

The function location-contents merely funcalls the access function of the given locative.

```
(defun location-contents (locative)
(funcall (locative-access-fn locative)))
```

```
(defsetf location-contents (locative) (new-value)
  (funcall (locative-modify-fn locative) new-value))
```

Figure 3: Implementation of the operations on locatives.

```
(defun execute-process (process)
  (let ((machine (find-free-machine)))
      (letf (( (current-process machine) (process-id process)))
        (run process machine))))
```

Figure 4: A more-or-less typical use of letf.

The setf method for location-contents is about as simple; we funcall the modify-fn instead, passing along the new value for the location. See Figure 3 for the details.

I'm honor-bound to mention a few things about this implementation. The most important is that I've left out some pieces of Rick's code in order to simplify the presentation. There are a few ways in which what he wrote is more efficient and more debuggable than what I've shown here. Also, for compatibility with the original Zetalisp construct, he treats places of the form (cdr ...) as a nonconsing special case. His complete source is given at the end of the article.

It also bears mentioning that a Common Lisp implementation of locatives cannot be as efficient as in Zetalisp, in which they are represented as immediate pointers to memory cells. On the other hand, the Zetalisp implementation can't handle every kind of generalized variable, so perhaps the advantages balance out somewhat. In any case, before using this Common Lisp locf one should be aware that the performance characteristics will be radically different from Zetalisp's construct.

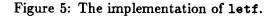
The other setf method client we'll look at was also programmed by Rick Harris and is also taken in part from Zetalisp; it is the letf construct for "flynamically binding" arbitrary generalized variables.

You've almost certainly had a use for this at some point, even if you weren't aware of it at the time. There's some slot in a structure or some such that you want to have a different value during the execution of some piece of code and you want to restore the old value when you're done. So what do you do? You bind a new variable to the old value, put the new value in the location, and execute the relevant code inside an unwind-protect that puts the old value back at the end. Letf encapsulates this idiom in a convenient notation through the use of setf methods. Figure 4 shows a typical use of the macro.

As with other binding forms, like lot, the lotf construct can take an arbitrary number of place/value pairs to bind. All of the values to be bound are computed before any of them are assigned, as with lot. The implementation is somewhat more complex than that of locf, almost entirely because of the arbitrary number of generalized-variable references; see Figure 5.

For each binding in the letf form, we call get-setf-method to analyze the generalizedvariable reference and accumulate the results in

```
(defmacro letf (bindings &body body)
   (let ((tvar-list nil)
         (val-list nil)
         (svar-list nil)
         (store-list nil)
         (access-list nil)
         (bound-exprs (mapcar #'cadr bindings))
         (save-vars (mapcar #'(lambda (ignore) (gensym)) bindings)))
      (dolist (binding bindings)
         (multiple-value-bind (tvars vals svars store access)
                              (get-setf-method (car binding))
            (setq tvar-list (nconc tvar-list tvars))
            (setq val-list (nconc val-list vals))
            (setq svar-list (nconc svar-list svars))
            (setq store-list (nconc store-list (list store)))
            (setq access-list (nconc access-list (list access))))))
      '(let* (,@(mapcar #'list tvar-list val-list)
              ,@(mapcar #'list save-vars access-list))
          (unwind-protect
                (let ,(mapcar #'list svar-list bound-exprs)
                   ,@store-list
                   ,@body)
            (let ,(mapcar #'list svar-list save-vars)
                ,@store-list)))))
```



several lists. The expansion first binds all of the temporary variables to all of their respective value forms, and then saves the initial values of all of the generalized variables in gensymed variables. Within an unwind-protect, the bound value expressions are evaluated and bound to the various store variables and all of the storing forms executed. This gets everything ready to evaluate the body of the original letf. Finally, the clean-up part of the unwind-protect again binds the store variables, this time to the variables holding the saved values of the bound locations, and within those bindings evaluates the storing forms again to restore the old values of the generalized variables.

Well, that's a bit of a mouthful, so let's look

at the expansion of an example that uses our setf method for (car (foo)) from before. The letf form

```
(letf (( (car (foo)) (bar) ))
  (body-stuff))
```

expands into a form like this:

```
(let* ((tv (foo))
        (#:g1 (car tv)))
   (unwind-protect
        (let ((sv (bar)))
            (progn (rplaca tv sv) sv)
                (body-stuff))
        (let ((sv #:g1))
            (progn (rplaca tv sv) sv))))
```

Sure enough, this saves the old value of the car of (foo), puts (bar) in there during the execution of the body, and restores the old value upon exit, just like the doctor ordered.

Again, I've changed Rick's code to simplify the presentation and, again, you can see his more complete implementation of the Zetalisp original at the end of the article. There is one significant difference between this lotf and the one in Zetalisp, when used in a multiprocessing Lisp implementation. In Zetalisp, the old value is restored every time there's a context switch to allow some other process to run and the new value is put back when control returns to the binding process. In this way, the bindings made by letf are identical to normal special variable bindings. Since Common Lisp doesn't say anything about multiple processes, we can't portably implement that special behavior. For single-process applications, though, this letf can be used pretty much everywhere that Zetalisp's can.

Let's move on now to consider new kinds of generalized variables. All of those defined in Common Lisp are simple data structure accessors, like car, gethash, symbol-plist, etc. This isn't a requirement for all generalized variables, though. The contract of a generalized variable is simply that it must behave like a variable: after storing a set of values into it, evaluating the access form must yield the "same" values. I put "same" in quotes here because there isn't a consistent view of the kind of equality to use here. For most of the built-in generalized variables, like car and gethash, a predicate like eql is probably intended, but for others, like subseq, none of the Common Lisp equality predicates is appropriate. The notion of "sameness" is dependent on the kind of generalized variable.

This "variable-like" behavior, though, is the entire requirement on a new kind of generalized variable. As Jonathan Rees mentioned to me, for example, such variables might not have anything to do with the memory of the running Lisp system. Here are some compelling examples of this sort of generalized variable:

Operations on generalized variables also need not be computationally cheap. For example, suppose that the function mvmult multiplies a matrix by a vector, yielding a new vector. Then the form

(setf (mvmult A x) b)

might solve systems of linear equations in order to find x, given A and b. The possibilities are truly endless.

One interesting new kind of generalized variable, suggested to me by Kent Pitman, is *value constructors*, like cons. What should an expression like (cons a b) *mean* as a generalizedvariable reference? Well, since it behaves like a variable, we know that after evaluating an expression like

(setf (cons a b) (foo))

the value of (cons a b) will be the "same" as whatever foo returned. If we let "same" mean equal here, then a must now hold the car of foo's result and b must hold the cdr. Thus, assigning to a generalized-variable reference of the form

(cons place₁ place₂)

should *destructure* the assigned value into the two *places*. How handy! But can we implement this behavior in Common Lisp? It turns out that it isn't very difficult at all.

The only direct way to add a new setf method to Common Lisp is with the definesetf-method form. It has this syntax:

Figure 6: A simplified setf method definition for cons.

```
(define-setf-method cons (x y)
  (let ((svar (gensym)))
     (multiple-value-bind (x-tvars x-vals x-svars x-store x-access)
                           (get-setf-method x)
         (multiple-value-bind (y-tvars y-vals y-svars y-store y-access)
                              (get-setf-method y)
           (values
               (append x-tvars y-vars)
                                                    ; temporary variables
               (append x-vals y-vals)
                                                   ; value forms
               (list svar)
                                                    ; store variables
               (let ((,(car x-svars) (car ,svar)) ; storing form
                      (,(car y-svars) (cdr ,svar)))
                   ,x-store
                   ,y-store
                   ,svar)
               (cons ,x-access ,y-access)))))
                                                    ; accessing form
```

Figure 7: The complete setf method definition for cons.

where pattern is a defmacro-style argument list. This tells the setf facility to call this code whenever it needs the setf method for a generalized-variable reference whose car is the symbol name. The body should return five values, the ones we've been using all along to represent setf methods.

We'll begin with a simplification of the real setf method for cons; we'll assume for the moment that *place*₁ and *place*₂ have to be simple variables. Thus, we're only going to deal with generalized-variable references like (cons a b) and not more complex uses like

```
(cons (aref x 12),
      (gethash 17 ht))
```

For this simple case, the setf method definition is easy to write; it appears in Figure 6.

There can't be any subexpressions with sideeffects, so we don't need any *temporary variables* or *value forms*. We use gensym to get a fresh store variable and then it's easy to write the storing form; it simply assigns the car and cdr of the value to x and y. We also have to remember to return the stored value from the storing form. The accessing form is trivial, identical to the original reference.

So the easy case is easy, but what must be done to accommodate the general case, hairy references like the one involving aref and gethash above? Since we've constructed a new generalized-variable reference (using cons) out of two others (using aref and gethash), we should expect that we'll construct a new setf method out of two others. We'll need to call get-setfmethod to analyze the two subforms of cons for us; the details appear in Figure 7.

The subexpressions of a generalized-variable reference using cons are those of the two arguments. Thus, the *temporary variables* and *value* forms for our setf method are simply the concatenation of those for the subforms x and y. The store variable is as before and, in a sense, so is the storing form. We must first set up the bindings of the store variables for the subforms, but then it's just as in the simple case above; we store into x and y (we have to use their storing forms instead of simple setqs) and finally return the value that was stored. Similarly, our accessing form is like the one in the simple case except that we use the accessing forms of x and y.

This fully general **setf** method for **cons** allows us to do some complex kinds of destructuring:

(setf (cons a (cons b (cons c d))) '(1 2 3 4))

assigns 1 to a, 2 to b, 3 to c, and the list (4) to d. We could go further and define setf methods for the other value constructors of Common Lisp, like vector and the constructor functions defined by defstruct. There's one constructor that's particularly amusing in this context: backquote.

Consider the expression '(a,b c) as a generalized-variable reference for a moment. After evaluating the odd-looking assignment

(setf '(a ,b c) (foo))

the expression '(a ,b c) should evaluate to the result of calling foo. For this to be true, foo must have returned a list of length 3 whose first element is the symbol a, whose second element was stored into the variable b and whose third element is the symbol c. But what if the result of foo isn't a list, or that list is not three elements long, or the first and third elements aren't a and c? Then surely an error should be signalled since the assignment cannot be carried out correctly, right? In a way, this would amount to a kind of "pattern-matching" assignment statement, a useful addition to the language. Let's look at how we could achieve this.

First, what is the expansion of an expression like '(a,bc)? Common Lisp does not specify this exactly, but on most systems backquoted expressions expand into normal expressions made out of operators like cons, list, list*, and quote. For example, in Xerox Lisp, '(a,bc) expands into (list 'a b 'c). Thus, in that particular implementation, we would be concerned with the setf methods of list and quote.

Any call to list can be rewritten as a set of nested calls to cons, whose setf method we've already defined. Fortunately, it's easy to take advantage of this to define a setf method for list, as shown in Figure 8. We simply return the setf method for the rewritten expression instead of computing one ourselves. There's a problem here, though. When you rewrite (list 'a b 'c) in this way, you get

```
(cons (quote a)
    (cons b
        (cons (quote c)
        nil)))
```

We were about to define a setf method for quote, but what about that nil down there at the end? We will end up asking for a setf method for it and setf is likely to think it's just a simple variable, which is just the wrong thing. We'll come back to this in a moment.

Figure 8: The setf method definition for list.

```
(defun fancy-get-setf-method (form)
   (if (constantp form)
       (let ((svar (gensym)))
          (values
             nil
                                        ; temporary variables
             nil
                                        ; value forms
             (list svar)
                                        ; store variables
             (progn
                                        ; storing form
                 (assert (equal ,form ,svar) ()
                    "pattern-matching failed: "S should have been "S"
                    ,svar ,form)
                 .form)
             form))
                                       ; accessing form
       (get-setf-method form)))
```

Figure 9: An enhanced version of get-setf-method

The setf method for quote is a bit stranger. After evaluating

(setf (quote a) (foo))

we need (quote a) to yield the same value that foo returned. That is, we need foo to return the symbol a. We don't need to do any actual assignments to make this true, we just have to check the given value. If sv were our store variable, then this would make a good storing form:

```
(progn
  (assert (equal sv 'a) ()
    ""S should be "S" sv 'a)
    'a)
```

This sotf behavior shouldn't be peculiar to quote, though; the sotf method for every constant expression should be like this, including that pesky nil from above. The problem with this observation is that Common Lisp doesn't have a way for us to specify a soff method for expressions like 17 and "a string".

In order to accomplish our desired setf behavior for backquoted expressions, we'll have to substitute our own function in place of getsetf-method. Fortunately, constant expressions are only useful as generalized-variable references when they're arguments to value constructors. Since we're writing all of those setf method definitions, we can simply have them call our function to do their analysis instead of get-setf-method. I've called this new function fancy-get-setf-method; its definition is simple and appears in Figure 9.

We now have everything in place to compute

```
(let* ((#:g32 (foo)))
  (let ((#:g33 (car #:g32))
        (#:g34 (cdr #:g32)))
    (progn
      (assert (equal 'a #:g33) ()
              "pattern-matching failed: "S should have been "S"
              #:g33 'a)
      #:g33)
   (let ((#:g35 (car #:g34))
          (#:g36 (cdr #:g34)))
      (setq b #:g35)
      (let ((#:g37 (car #:g36))
            (#:g38 (cdr #:g36)))
        (progn
          (assert (equal 'c #:g37) ()
                  "pattern-matching failed: "S should have been "S"
                  #:g37 'c)
         #:g37)
        (progn
         (assert (equal nil #:g38) ()
                  "pattern-matching failed: "S should have been "S"
                  #:g38 nil)
         #:g38)
       #:g36)
     #:g34)
   #:g32))
```

Figure 10: The macroexpansion of (setf '(a, b c) (foo)).

the expansion of our original pattern-matching assignment statement; see Figure 10. Pretty amazing, eh? Looking at it makes one realize that it might be worth putting that assert expression into a separate function. If you squint hard enough, you can actually find the assignment to b there in the middle of the code.

For our final stop of this whirlwind tour of setf method applications, let's consider one last kind of constructor, the values function. This is somewhat like the others, but it has an arbitrary number of subforms, each of which should be a generalized-variable reference, and it involves the use of multiple store variables. The code appears in Figure 11. The part that deals with analyzing the arbitrary number of argument places is almost identical to that part of the implementation of letf; the five values of each constituent setf method are accumulated in lists for later use. The setf method itself has all of the *temporary variables* and *value forms* from the arguments, as in the definition for cons.

We need as many store variables as there are arguments to the values form, since we'll be doing that many assignments. The storing form simply sets up all of the bindings needed by the storing forms for all of the arguments and then executes those forms one after another, finally returning all of the values that were stored. As in the cons case, the accessing form is straight-

```
(define-setf-method values (&rest places)
  (let ((tvar-list nil)
       (val-list nil)
       (svar-list nil)
       (store-list nil)
       (access-list nil)
       (my-svars (mapcar #'(lambda (x) (gensym)) places)))
    (dolist (place places)
       (multiple-value-bind (tvars vals svars store access)
                             (fancy-get-setf-method place)
          (setq tvar-list (nconc tvar-list tvars))
          (setq val-list (nconc val-list vals))
          (setq svar-list (nconc svar-list svars))
          (setq store-list (nconc store-list (list store)))
          (setq access-list (nconc access-list (list access)))))
    (values
       tvar-list
                                         ; temporary variables
       val-list
                                         ; value forms
                                         ; store variables
       my-svars
       '(let* ,(mapcar #'list
                                         ; storing form
                        svar-list my-svars)
            ,@store-list
           (values ,my-svars))
        (values ,@access-list))))
                                         ; accessing form
```

Figure 11: A complete setf method definition for values.

forward.

Unfortunately, as was mentioned much earlier, we can't use this nice setf method with any of the macros in Common Lisp, since it usually includes more than one *store variable*. There is some reason to hope that this will be changed in the version of the language being standardized by ANSI, though, so it may yet find acceptance. If so, we would be able to use it to say

```
(setf (values (car a)
                (gethash b 'c)
                (aref d 13))
        (some-hairy-computation))
```

which stores the first value returned by some-

hairy-computation into the car of a, the second into the hash table b, and the third into the array d. In effect, this gives us a general multiple-value-setf form all as a part of the normal setf macro with which we're so familiar.

Well, I hope I've led you on an interesting and comprehensible trip into the possibilities inherent in the setf facility of Common Lisp. As a final, intriguing example, I leave you with this piece of code, enabled by our labors here:

(pop (list* a b c))

After writing the **setf** method for **list***, you might enjoy figuring out just what this sometimes useful idiom does.

```
;;;; LOCF Implementation by Richard Harris, RPI
;;; "locf access-form
                                           Масто
        Takes a form that accesses some cell and produces a corresponding
;;;
        form to create a locative pointer to that cell. Examples:
;;;
;;;
            (locf a)
                              ==> #<Locative to L>
:::
            (locf (aref q 2)) ==> #<Locative to (AREF Q 2)>"
:::
(defstruct (locative
             (:constructor make-locative (access modify name))
             (:print-function print-locative))
  access
 modify
 name)
(defun print-locative (locative stream depth)
  (declare (ignore depth))
  (format stream "#<Locative to "S>" (locative-name locative)))
(defmacro locf (setf-form)
  (if (and (consp setf-form)
           (eq 'cdr (car setf-form)))
      (cadr setf-form)
      (multiple-value-bind (vars vals stores store-form access-form)
                           (get-setf-method setf-form)
        '(let ,(mapcar #'list vars vals)
           (make-locative
             #'(lambda ()
                 ,access-form)
            #'(lambda ,stores
                 ,store-form
                 ,(car stores))
             '.setf-form)))))
(proclaim '(inline location-contents))
(defun location-contents (locative)
 (typecase locative
   (cons
      (cdr locative))
   (locative
     (funcall (locative-access locative)))
   (t
      (error ""S is not a locative" locative))))
(defsetf location-contents (locative) (value)
 '(typecase ,locative
    (cons
       (setf (cdr ,locative) ,value))
    (locative
      (funcall (locative-modify,locative),value))
    (t
      (error ""S is not a locative" ,locative))))
```

```
;;;; LETF Implementation by Richard Harris, RPI
;;; The following is really a cross between the (Symbolics) functions letf
;;; and let-globally:
;;;
;;; "letf places-and-values body...
                                                 Special form
        Just like let, except that it can bind any storage cells rather than
:::
;;;
        just variables."
;;;
;;; "let-globally ((var value)...) body...
                                                 Special form
        Similar in form to let. The difference is that let-globally does not
;;;
        bind the variables; instead, it saves the old values and sets the
:::
        variables, and sets up an unwind-protect to set them back."
;;;
:::
;;; This difference is important (only) in a multiple-process Lisp system.
(defmacro letf (bindings &body forms)
  (let ((tvars nil)
        (tvals nil)
        (store-vars nil)
        (store-forms nil)
        (access-forms nil)
        (value-forms nil)
        (save-vars nil))
    (dolist (binding bindings)
      (let ((setf-form (if (atom binding) binding (car binding)))
            (value-form (if (atom binding) nil
                                                   (cadr binding))))
        (multiple-value-bind (vars vals stores store-form access-form)
                             (get-setf-method setf-form)
          (setq tvars (nconc tvars vars))
          (setq tvals (nconc tvals vals))
          (setq store-vars (nconc store-vars stores))
          (setq store-forms (nconc store-forms (list store-form)))
          (setq access-forms (nconc access-forms (list access-form)))
          (setq value-forms (nconc value-forms (list value-form)))
          (setq save-vars (nconc save-vars (list (gensym)))))))
    (let ,(mapcar #'list tvars tvals)
       (let ,(mapcar #'list save-vars access-forms)
         (unwind-protect
              (progn
                (let ,(mapcar #'list store-vars value-forms)
                  ,@store-forms)
                (forms)
           (let ,(mapcar #'list store-vars save-vars)
             ,@store-forms))))))
(defmacro letf* (bindings &body forms)
 (if (null (cdr bindings))
      '(letf ,bindings
          ,¢forms)
      (letf (,(car bindings))
          (letf* ,(cdr bindings)
             (forms))))
```