Very important concept

- We know function bodies can use any bindings in scope
- But now that functions can be passed around: In scope where?

Where the function was defined (not where it was called)

- This semantics is called lexical scope
- There are lots of good reasons for this semantics (why)
  - Discussed after explaining what the semantics is (what)
  - Later in course: implementing it (how)
- Must “get this” for homework, exams, and competent programming

Example

Demonstrates lexical scope even without higher-order functions:

```
(* 1 *) val x = 1
(* 2 *) fun f y = x + y
(* 3 *) val x = 2
(* 4 *) val y = 3
(* 5 *) val z = f (x + y)
```

- Line 2 defines a function that, when called, evaluates body \(x+y\) in environment where \(x\) maps to 1 and \(y\) maps to the argument
- Call on line 5:
  - Looks up \(f\) to get the function defined on line 2
  - Evaluates \(x+y\) in current environment, producing 5
  - Calls the function with 5, which evaluates the body in the old environment, producing 6

Closures

How can functions be evaluated in old environments that aren’t around anymore?
- The language implementation keeps them around as necessary

Can define the semantics of functions as follows:

- A function value has two parts
  - The code (obviously)
  - The environment that was current when the function was defined
- This is a “pair” but unlike ML pairs, you cannot access the pieces
- All you can do is call this “pair”
- This pair is called a function closure
- A call evaluates the code part in the environment part (extended with the function argument)

Example

```
(* 1 *) val x = 1
(* 2 *) fun f y = x + y
(* 3 *) val x = 2
(* 4 *) val y = 3
(* 5 *) val z = f (x + y)
```

- Line 2 creates a closure and binds \(f\) to it:
  - Code: “take \(y\) and have body \(x+y\)”
  - Environment: “\(x\) maps to 1”
  - (Plus whatever else is in scope, including \(f\) for recursion)
- Line 5 calls the closure defined in line 2 with 5
  - So body evaluated in environment “\(x\) maps to 1” extended with “\(y\) maps to 5”

Coming up:

Now you know the rule: lexical scope

Next steps:

- (Silly) examples to demonstrate how the rule works with higher-order functions
- Why the other natural rule, dynamic scope, is a bad idea
- Powerful idioms with higher-order functions that use this rule
  - Passing functions to iterators like filter
  - Next lecture: Several more idioms
The rule stays the same

A function body is evaluated in the environment where the function was defined (created)
   – Extended with the function argument

Nothing changes to this rule when we take and return functions
   – But “the environment” may involve nested let-expressions, not just the top-level sequence of bindings

Makes first-class functions much more powerful
   – Even if may seem counterintuitive at first

Example: Returning a function

```plaintext
(* 1 *) val x = 1
(* 2 *) fun f y =
(* 2a *) let val x = y+1
(* 2b *) in fn z => x+y+z end
(* 3 *) val x = 3
(* 4 *) val g = f 4
(* 5 *) val y = 5
(* 6 *) val z = g 6
```

• Trust the rule: Evaluating line 4 binds to `g` to a closure:
  – Code: “take `z` and have body `x+y+z`”
  – Environment: “`y` maps to 4, `x` maps to 5 (shadowing), …”
  – So this closure will always add 9 to its argument
• So line 6 binds 15 to `z`

Example: Passing a function

```plaintext
(* 1 *) fun f g = (* call arg with 2 *)
(* 1a *) let val x = 3
(* 1b *) in g 2 end
(* 2 *) val x = 4
(* 3 *) fun h y = x + y
(* 4 *) val z = f h
```

• Trust the rule: Evaluating line 3 binds `h` to a closure:
  – Code: “take `y` and have body `x+y`”
  – Environment: “`x` maps to 4, `f` maps to a closure, …”
  – So this closure will always add 4 to its argument
• So line 4 binds 6 to `z`
  – Line 1a is as stupid and irrelevant as it should be

Why lexical scope?

1. Function meaning does not depend on variable names used
  Example: Can change body of `f` to use `q` everywhere instead of `x`
    – Lexical scope: it cannot matter
    – Dynamic scope: depends how result is used

```plaintext
fun f y =
  let val x = y+1
  in fn z => x+y+z end
```

Example: Can remove unused variables
  – Dynamic scope: but maybe some `g` uses it (weird)

```plaintext
fun f g =
  let val x = 3
  in g 2 end
```

2. Functions can be type-checked and reasoned about where defined
  Example: Dynamic scope tries to add a string and an unbound variable to 6

```plaintext
val x = 1
fun f y =
  let val x = y+1
  in fn z => x+y+z end
val x = "hi"
val g = f 7
val z = g 4
```
### Why lexical scope?

3. Closures can easily store the data they need  
   – Many more examples and idioms to come

```haskell
fun greaterThanX x = fn y => y > x
fun filter (f,xs) =  
  case xs of  
    [] => []  
    | x::xs => if f x  
      then x::(filter(f,xs))  
      else filter(f,xs)

fun noNegatives xs = filter(greaterThanX ~1, xs)
fun allGreater (xs,n) = filter(fn x => x>n ,xs)
```

### Does dynamic scope exist?

- Lexical scope for variables is definitely the right default  
  – Very common across languages
- Dynamic scope is occasionally convenient in some situations  
  – So some languages (e.g., Racket) have special ways to do it  
  – But most do not bother
- If you squint some, exception handling is more like dynamic scope:  
  – `raise e` transfers control to the current innermost handler  
  – Does not have to be syntactically inside a handle expression  
  (and usually is not)

### When things evaluate

**Things we know:**
  - A function body is not evaluated until the function is called  
  - A function body is evaluated every time the function is called  
  - A variable binding evaluates its expression when the binding is evaluated, not every time the variable is used

With closures, this means we can avoid repeating computations that do not depend on function arguments  
  – Not so worried about performance, but good example to emphasize the semantics of functions

### Recomputation

These both work and rely on using variables in the environment

```haskell
fun allShorterThan1 (xs,s) =  
  filter(fn x => String.size x < String.size s, xs)
fun allShorterThan2 (xs,s) =  
  let val i = String.size s  
  in filter(fn x => String.size x < i, xs) end
```

The first one computes `String.size` once per element of `xs`  
The second one computes `String.size` once per list  
  – Nothing new here: let-bindings are evaluated when encountered and function bodies evaluated when called

### Another famous function: Fold

**fold** (and synonyms / close relatives `reduce`, `inject`, etc.) is another very famous iterator over recursive structures

Accumulates an answer by repeatedly applying `f` to answer so far  
- `fold(f,acc,[x1,x2,x3,x4])` computes `f(f(f(f(acc,x1),x2),x3),x4)`

```haskell
fun fold (f,acc,xs)=  
  case xs of  
    [] => acc  
    | x::xs => fold(f, f(acc,x), xs)

val fold = fn : ('a * 'b -> 'a) * 'a * 'b list -> 'a
```

### Why iterators again?

- These “iterator-like” functions are not built into the language  
  – Just a programming pattern  
  – Though many languages have built-in support, which often allows stopping early without resorting to exceptions
- This pattern separates recursive traversal from data processing  
  – Can reuse same traversal for different data processing  
  – Can reuse same data processing for different data structures  
  – In both cases, using common vocabulary concisely communicates intent
Examples with fold

These are useful and do not use “private data”

fun f1 xs = fold((fn (x,y) => x+y), 0, xs)
fun f2 xs = fold((fn (x,y) => x andalso y>=0),
  true, xs)

These are useful and do use “private data”

fun f3 (xs,hi,lo) =
  fold(fn (x,y) =>
    x + (if y >= lo andalso y <= hi
       then 1
       else 0)),
  0, xs)
fun f4 (g,xs) = fold(fn (x,y) => x andalso g y),
   true, xs)

Iterators made better

- Functions like map, filter, and fold are much more powerful thanks to closures and lexical scope
- Function passed in can use any “private” data in its environment
- Iterator “doesn’t even know the data is there” or what type it has