# 10. Functions

Functions are the basic building blocks of Lisp programs. This chapter describes the functions in Zetalisp that are used to manipulate functions. It also explains how to manipulate special forms and macros.

This chapter contains internal details intended for those writing programs to manipulate programs as well as material suitable for the beginner. Feel free to skip sections that look complicated or uninteresting when reading this for the first time.

## 10.1 What Is a Function?

There are many different kinds of functions in Zetalisp. Here are the printed representations of examples of some of them:

```
foo
(lambda (x) (car (last x)))
(named-lambda foo (x) (car (last (x))))
(subst (x) (car (last x)))
#<dtp-fef-pointer append 1424771>
#<dtp-u-entry last 270>
#<dtp-closure 1477464>
```

We will examine these and other types of functions in detail later in this chapter. There is one thing they all have in common: a function is a Lisp object that can be applied to arguments. All of the above objects may be applied to some arguments and will return a value. Functions are Lisp objects and so can be manipulated in all the usual ways; you can pass them as arguments, return them as values, and make other Lisp objects refer to them.

## 10.2 Function Specs

The name of a function does not have to be a symbol. Various kinds of lists describe other places where a function can be found. A Lisp object that describes a place to find a function is called a *function spec*. ("Spec" is short for "specification".) Here are the printed representations of some typical function specs:

```
foo
(:property foo bar)
(:method tv:graphics-mixin :draw-line)
(:internal foo 1)
(:within foo bar)
(:location #<dtp-locative 7435216>)
```

Function specs have two purposes: they specify a place to remember a function, and they serve to name functions. The most common kind of function spec is a symbol, which specifies that the function cell of the symbol is the place to remember the function. We will see all the kinds of function spec, and what they mean, shortly. Function specs are not the same thing as functions. You cannot, in general, apply a function spec to arguments. The time to use a function spec is when you want to do something to the function, such as define it, look at its

definition, or compile it.

Some kinds of functions remember their own names, and some don't. The "name" remembered by a function can be any kind of function spec, although it is usually a symbol. In the examples of functions in the previous section, the one starting with the symbol named-lambda, the one whose printed representation included dtp-fef-pointer, and the dtp-u-entry remembered names (the function specs foo, append, and last respectively). The others didn't remember their names.

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To define a function spec means to make that function spec remember a given function. This is done with the fdefine function; you give fdefine a function spec and a function, and fdefine remembers the function in the place specified by the function spec. The function associated with a function spec is called the *definition* of the function spec. A single function can be the definition of more than one function spec at the same time, or of no function specs.

To define a function means to create a new function and define a given function spec as that new function. This is what the defun special form does. Several other special forms, such as defmethod (page 334) and defselect (page 167), do this too.

These special forms that define functions usually take a function spec, create a function whose name is that function spec, and then define that function spec to be the newly-created function. Most function definitions are done this way, and so usually if you go to a function spec and see what function is there, the function's name will be the same as the function spec. However, if you define a function named foo with defun, and then define the symbol bar to be this same function, the name of the function is unaffected; both foo and bar are defined to be the same function, and the name of that function is foo, not bar.

A function spec's definition in general consists of a basic definition surrounded by encapsulations. Both the basic definition and the encapsulations are functions, but of recognizably different kinds. What defun creates is a basic definition, and usually that is all there is. Encapsulations are made by function-altering functions such as trace, breakon and advise. When the function is called, the entire definition, which includes the tracing and advice, is used. If the function is "redefined" with defun, only the basic definition is changed; the encapsulations are left in place. See the section on encapsulations, section 10.10, page 175.

A function spec is a Lisp object of one of the following types:

a symbol

The function is remembered in the function cell of the symbol. See page 98 for an explanation of function cells and the primitive functions to manipulate them.

(:property symbol property)

The function is remembered on the property list of the symbol; doing (get symbol property) returns the function. Storing functions on property lists is a frequently-used technique for dispatching (that is, deciding at run-time which function to call, on the basis of input data).

(:method flavor-name operation)

(:method flavor-name method-type operation)

(:method flavor-name method-type operation suboperation)

The function is remembered inside internal data structures of the flavor system and is

called automatically as part of handling the operation operation on instances of flavorname. See the chapter on flavors (chapter 20, page 321) for details.

## (:handler *flavor-name operation*)

This is a name for the function actually called when an *operation* message is sent to an instance of the flavor *flavor-name*. The difference between :handler and :method is that the handler may be a method inherited from some other flavor or a *combined method* automatically written by the flavor system. Methods are what you define in source files; handlers are not. Note that redefining or encapsulating a handler affects only the named flavor, not any other flavors built out of it. Thus :handler function specs are often used with trace (see page 588), breakon (page 591), and advise (page 593).

## (:select-method function-spec operation)

This function spec assumes that the definition of *function-spec* is a select-method object (see page 163) containing an alist of operation names and functions to handle them, and refers to one particular element of that alist: the one for operation *operation*.

The function is remembered in that alist element and is called when *function-spec*'s definition is called with first argument *operation*.

:select-method function specs are most often used implicitly through defselect. One of the things done by

```
(defselect foo
  (:win (x) (cons 'win x))
  ...)
```

is to define the function spec (:select-method foo :win).

#### (:lambda-macro name)

This is a name for the function that expands the lambda macro name.

## (:location pointer)

The function is stored in the cdr of *pointer*, which may be a locative or a list. This is for pointing at an arbitrary place that there is no other way to describe. This form of function spec isn't useful in defun (and related special forms) because the reader has no printed representation for locative pointers and always creates new lists; these function specs are intended for programs that manipulate functions (see section 10.8, page 169).

### (:within within-function function-to-affect)

This refers to the meaning of the symbol function-to-affect, but only where it occurs in the text of the definition of within-function. If you define this function spec as anything but the symbol function-to-affect itself, then that symbol is replaced throughout the definition of within-function by a new symbol, which is then defined as you specify. See the section on si:rename-within encapsulations (section 10.10.1, page 179) for more information.

It is rarely useful to define a :within function spec by hand, but often useful to trace or advise one. For example,

```
(breakon '(:within myfunction eval))
```

allows you to break when eval is called from myfunction. Simply doing (breakon 'eval) will probably blow away your machine.

#### (:internal function-spec number)

Some Lisp functions contain internal functions, created by (function (lambda ...)) forms. These internal functions need names when compiled, but they do not have symbols as names; instead they are named by :internal function-specs. *function-spec* is the name of the containing function. *number* is a sequence number; the first internal function the compiler comes across in a given function will be numbered 0, the next 1, etc. Internal functions are remembered inside the compiled function object of their containing function.

```
Here is an example defining a function whose name is not a symbol:
    (defun (:property foo bar-maker) (thing &optional kind)
        (set-the 'bar thing (make-bar 'foo thing kind)))
This puts a function on foo's bar-maker property. Now you can say
    (funcall (get 'foo 'bar-maker) 'baz)
```

Unlike the other kinds of function spec, a symbol can be used as a function. If you apply a symbol to arguments, the symbol's function definition is used instead. If the definition of the first symbol is another symbol, the definition of the second symbol is used, and so on, any number of times. But this is an exception; in general, you can't apply function specs to arguments.

A keyword symbol that identifies function specs (i.e., that may appear in the car of a list which is a function spec) is identified by a sys:function-spec-handler property whose value is a function that implements the various manipulations on function specs of that type. The interface to this function is internal and not documented in this manual.

For compatibility with Maclisp, the function-defining special forms defun, macro, and defselect (and other defining forms built out of them, such as defunp and defmacro) will also accept a list

symbol must not be one of the keyword symbols that identify a function spec, since that would be ambiguous.

## **10.3 Simple Function Definitions**

defun Special Form

defun is the usual way of defining a function that is part of a program. A defun form looks like:

```
(defun name lambda-list
  body...)
```

name is the function spec you wish to define as a function. The *lambda-list* is a list of the names to give to the arguments of the function. Actually, it is a little more general than that; it can contain *lambda-list keywords* such as &optional and &rest. (These keywords are explained in section 3.2, page 21 and other keywords are explained in section 10.7, page 168.) See page 166 for some additional syntactic features of defun.

defun creates a list that looks like

```
(named-lambda name lambda-list body...)
```

and puts it in the function cell of *name*. *name* is now defined as a function and can be called by other forms.

Examples:

addone is a function which expects a number as an argument, and returns a number one larger. foo is a complicated function that takes one required argument, two optional arguments, and any number of additional arguments that are given to the function as a list named e.

A declaration (a list starting with declare) can appear as the first element of the body. It is equivalent to a local-declare (see page 233) surrounding the entire defun form. For example,

(It is preferable because the editor expects the open parenthesis of a top-level function definition to be the first character on a line, which isn't possible in the second form without incorrect indentation.)

A documentation string can also appear as the first element of the body (following the declaration, if there is one). (It shouldn't be the only thing in the body; otherwise it is the value returned by the function and so is not interpreted as documentation. A string as an element of a body other than the last element is only evaluated for side-effect, and since evaluation of strings has no side effects, they aren't useful in this position to do any computation, so they are interpreted as documentation.) This documentation string becomes part of the function's debugging info and can be obtained with the function documentation (see page 172). The first line of the string should be a complete sentence that makes sense read by itself, since there are two editor commands to get at the documentation, one of which is "brief" and prints only the first line. Example:

```
(defun my-append (&rest lists)
   "Like append but copies all the lists.
This is like the Lisp function append, except that
append copies all lists except the last, whereas
this function copies all of its arguments
including the last one."
   ...)
```

#### defunp

Macro

Usually when a function uses prog, the prog form is the entire body of the function; the definition of such a function looks like (defun name arglist (prog varlist ...)). Although the use of prog is generally discouraged, prog fans may want to use this special form. For convenience, the defunp macro can be used to produce such definitions. A defunp form such as

```
(defunp fctn (args)
form1
form2
...
formn)
expands into
(defun fctn (args)
(prog ()
form1
form2
...
(return formn)))
```

You can think of defunp as being like defun except that you can return out of the middle of the function's body.

For more information on defining functions, and other ways of doing so, see section 10.6, page 165.

# 10.4 User Operations on Functions

Here is a list of the various things a user (as opposed to a program) is likely to want to do to a function. In all cases, you specify a function spec to say where to find the function.

To print out the definition of the function spec with indentation to make it legible, use grindef (see page 426). This works only for interpreted functions. If the definition is a compiled function, it can't be printed out as Lisp code, but its compiled code can be printed by the disassemble function (see page 641).

To find out about how to call the function, you can ask to see its documentation or its argument names. (The argument names are usually chosen to have mnemonic significance for the caller). Use arglist (page 172) to see the argument names and documentation (page 172) to see the documentation string. There are also editor commands for doing these things: the Control-Shift-D and Meta-Shift-D commands are for looking at a function's documentation, and

Control-Shift-A is for looking at an argument list.

Control-Shift-A and Control-Shift-D do not ask for the function name; they act on the function that is called by the innermost expression which the cursor is inside. Usually this is the function that will be called by the form you are in the process of writing. They are available in the rubout handler as well.

You can see the function's debugging info alist by means of the function debugging-info (see page 172).

When you are debugging, you can use trace (see page 588) to obtain a printout or a break loop whenever the function is called. You can use breakon (see page 591) to cause the error handler to be entered whenever the function is called; from there, you can step through further function calls and returns. You can customize the definition of the function, either temporarily or permanently, using advise (see page 593).

#### 10.5 Kinds of Functions

There are many kinds of functions in Zetalisp. This section briefly describes each kind of function. Note that a function is also a piece of data and can be passed as an argument, returned, put in a list, and so forth.

There are four kinds of functions, classified by how they work.

First, there are *interpreted* functions: you define them with defun, they are represented as list structure, and they are interpreted by the Lisp evaluator.

Secondly, there are *compiled* functions: they are defined by compile or by loading a QFASL file, they are represented by a special Lisp data type, and they are executed directly by the microcode. Similar to compiled functions are microcode functions, which are written in microcode (either by hand or by the micro-compiler) and executed directly by the hardware.

Thirdly, there are various types of Lisp object that can be applied to arguments, but when they are applied they dig up another function somewhere and apply it instead. These include dtp-select-method, closures, instances, and entities.

Finally, there are various types of Lisp object that, when used as functions, do something special related to the specific data type. These include arrays and stack-groups.

## 10.5.1 Interpreted Functions

An interpreted function is a piece of list structure that represents a program according to the rules of the Lisp interpreter. Unlike other kinds of functions, interpreted functions can be printed out and read back in (they have a printed representation that the reader understands), can be pretty-printed (see page 426), and can be examined with the usual functions for list-structure manipulation.

There are four kinds of interpreted functions: lambdas, named-lambdas, substs, and named-substs. A lambda function is the simplest kind. It is a list that looks like this:

```
(lambda lambda-list form1 form2...)
```

The symbol lambda identifies this list as a lambda function. *lambda-list* is a description of what arguments the function takes; see section 3.2, page 21 for details. The *forms* make up the body of the function. When the function is called, the argument variables are bound to the values of the arguments as described by *lambda-list*, and then the forms in the body are evaluated, one by one. The value of the function is the value of its last form.

A named-lambda is like a lambda but contains an extra element in which the system remembers the function's name, documentation, and other information. Having the function's name there allows the error handler and other tools to give the user more information. You would not normally write a named-lambda yourself; named-lambda exists so that defun can use it. A named-lambda function looks like this:

```
(named-lambda name lambda-list body forms...)
```

If the *name* slot contains a symbol, it is the function's name. Otherwise it is a list whose car is the name and whose cdr is the function's debugging information alist. See debugging-info, page 172. Note that the name need not be a symbol; it can be any function spec. For example,

```
(defun (foo bar) (x)
        (car (reverse x)))
will give foo a bar property whose value is
        (named-lambda ((:property foo bar)) (x) (car (reverse x)))
```

A subst is just like a lambda as far as the interpreter is concerned. It is a list that looks like this:

```
(subst lambda-list form1 form2...)
```

The difference between a subst and a lambda is the way they are handled by the compiler. A call to a normal function is compiled as a *closed subroutine*; the compiler generates code to compute the values of the arguments and then apply the function to those values. A call to a subst is compiled as an *open subroutine*; the compiler incorporates the body forms of the subst into the function being compiled, substituting the argument forms for references to the variables in the subst's *lambda-list*. This is a simple-minded but useful facility for *open* or *in-line coded* functions. It is simple-minded because the argument forms can be evaluated multiple times or out of order, and so the semantics of a subst may not be the same in the interpreter and the compiler. substs are described more fully on page 255, with the explanation of defsubst.

A named-subst is the same as a subst except that it has a name just as a named-lambda does. It looks like

```
(named-subst name lambda-list form1 form2 ...) where name is interpreted the same way as in a named-lambda.
```

## 10.5.2 Lambda Macros

Lambda macros may appear in functions where lambda would have previously appeared. When the compiler or interpreter detects a function whose car is a lambda macro, they "expand" the macro in much the same way that ordinary Lisp macros are expanded—the lambda macro is called with the function as its argument and is expected to return another function as its value. The definition of a lambda macro (that is, the function which expands it) may be accessed with the (:lambda-macro name) function spec.

The value returned by the lambda macro expander function may be any valid function. Usually it is a list starting with lambda, subst, named-lambda or named-subst, but it could also be another use of a lambda macro, or even a compiled function.

#### lambda-macro name lambda-list &body body

Special Form

Analogously with macro, defines a lambda macro to be called *name*. *lambda-list* should consist of one variable, which will be the function that caused the lambda macro to be called. The lambda macro must return a function. For example:

```
(lambda-macro ilisp (x) '(lambda (&optional ,@(second x) &rest ignore) . ,(cddr x)))
```

defines a lambda macro called ilisp which can be used to define functions that accept arguments like a standard Interlisp function: all arguments are optional and extra arguments are ignored. A typical use would be:

```
(fun-with-functional-arg #'(ilisp (x y z) (list x y z)))
```

This passes to fun-with-functional-arg a function which will ignore extra arguments beyond the third, and will default x, y and z to nil.

#### deflambda-macro

Special Form

deflambda-macro is like defmacro, but defines a lambda macro instead of a normal macro. Here is how ilisp could be defined using deflambda-macro:

```
(deflambda-macro ilisp (argument-list &body body)
  '(lambda (&optional ,@argument-list &rest ignore) . ,body))
```

### deflambda-macro-displace

Special Form

deflambda-macro-displace is like defmacro-displace, but defines a lambda macro instead of a normal macro.

**deffunction** function-spec lambda-macro-name lambda-list &body Special Form body

deffunction defines a function with a definition that uses an arbitrary lambda macro instead of lambda. It takes arguments like defun, expect that the argument immediatly following the function specifier is the name of the lambda macro to be used. deffunction expands the lambda macro immediatly, so the lambda macro must have been previously defined.

For example:

```
(deffunction some-interlisp-like-function ilisp (x y z)
  (list x y z))
```

would define a function called some-interlisp-like-function with the definition (ilisp (x y z) (list x y z)).

(defun foo ...) could be considered an abbreviation for (deffunction foo lambda ...)

## **10.5.3 Compiled Functions**

There are two kinds of compiled functions: *macrocoded* functions and *microcoded* functions. The Lisp compiler converts lambda and named-lambda functions into macrocoded functions. A macrocoded function's printed representation looks like:

```
#<dtp-fef-pointer append 1424771>
```

This type of Lisp object is also called a "Function Entry Frame", or "FEF" for short. Like "car" and "cdr", the name is historical in origin and doesn't really mean anything. The object contains Lisp Machine machine code that does the computation expressed by the function; it also contains a description of the arguments accepted, any constants required, the name, documentation, and other things. Unlike Maclisp "subr-objects", macrocoded functions are full-fledged objects and can be passed as arguments, stored in data structure, and applied to arguments.

The printed representation of a microcoded function looks like:

```
#<dtp-u-entry last 270>
```

Most microcompiled functions are basic Lisp primitives or subprimitives written in Lisp Machine microcode. You can also convert your own macrocode functions into microcode functions in some circumstances, using the micro-compiler.

## 10.5.4 Other Kinds of Functions

A closure is a kind of function that contains another function and a set of special variable bindings. When the closure is applied, it puts the bindings into effect and then applies the other function. When that returns, the closure bindings are removed. Closures are made with the function closure. See chapter 11, page 180 for more information. Entities are slightly different from closures; see section 11.4, page 185.

A select-method (dtp-select-method) is an alist of symbols and functions. When one is called the first argument is looked up in the alist to find the particular function to be called. This function is applied to the rest of the arguments. The alist may have a list of symbols in place of a symbol, in which case the associated function is called if the first argument is any of the symbols on the list. If cdr of last of the alist is not nil, it is a *default handler* function, which gets called if the message key is not found in the alist. Select-methods can be created with the defselect special form (see page 167). If the select-method is the definition of a function-spec, the individual functions in the alist can be referred to using :select-method function specs (see page 156).

An instance is a message-receiving object that has both a state and a table of message-handling functions (called *methods*). Refer to the chapter on flavors (chapter 20, page 321) for further information.

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An array can be used as a function. The arguments to the array are the indices and the value is the contents of the element of the array. This works this way for Maclisp compatibility and is not recommended usage. Use aref (page 128) instead.

A stack group can be called as a function. This is one way to pass control to another stack group. See chapter 12, page 186.

## **10.5.5** Special Forms and Functions

The special forms of Zetalisp, such as quote, let and cond, are actually implemented with an unusual sort of function.

First, let's restate the outline of how the evaluator works. When the evaluator is given a list whose first element is a symbol, the form may be a function form, a special form, or a macro form (see page 14). If the definition of the symbol is a function, then the function is just applied to the result of evaluating the rest of the subforms. If the definition is a cons whose car is macro, then it is a macro form; these are explained in chapter 17, page 248. What about special forms?

A special form is implemented by a function that is flagged to tell the evaluator to refrain from evaluating some or all of the arguments to the function. Such functions make use of the lambda-list keyword &quote.

The evaluator, on seeing the &quote in the lambda list of an interpreted function (or something equivalent in a compiled function) skips the evaluation of the arguments to which the &quote applies. Aside from that, it calls the function normally.

For example, quote could be defined as

(defun quote (&quote arg) arg)

Evaluation of (quote x) would see the &quote in the definition, applying to the first argument, so it would refrain from evaluating that argument and would pass the function definition of quote the object x rather than the value of x. From then on, the definition of quote executed in the normal fashion, so it returns x.

&quote applies to all the following arguments, but it can be cancelled with &eval. A simple setq that accepted only one variable and one value could be defined as follows:

```
(defun setq (&quote variable &eval value)
  (set variable value))
```

The actual definition of setq is more complicated and uses a lambda list (&quote &rest variables-and-values). Then it must go through the rest-argument, evaluating every other element.

The definitions of special forms are designed with the assumption that they will be called by eval. It does not usually make much sense to call one with funcall or apply. apply does not evaluate any arguments; its second argument is composed of values of arguments rather than

expressions for them. So there is no way for apply to refrain from evaluating them. Most special forms explicitly call eval on some of their arguments, or parts of them, and if called with apply or funcall they will *still* do so. This is usually useless, so calling special forms with apply or funcall should be avoided. Encapsulations can do this successfully, because they can arrange that quoted arguments are quoted also on entry to the encapsulation.

It is possible to define your own special form using &quote. Macros can also be used to accomplish the same thing. It is preferable to implement language extensions as macros rather than special forms, because macros directly define a Lisp-to-Lisp translation and therefore can be understood by both the interpreter and the compiler. Special forms, on the other hand, only extend the interpreter. The compiler has to be modified in an *ad hoc* way to understand each new special form so that code using it can be compiled. For example, it would not work for a compiled function to call the interpreted definition of setq; the set in that definition would not be able to act on local variables of the compiled function.

Since all real programs are eventually compiled, writing your own special functions is strongly discouraged. The purpose of &quote is to be used in the system's own standard special forms.

(In fact, many of the special forms in Zetalisp are actually implemented as macros, rather than as special functions. They're implemented this way because it's easier to write a macro than to write both a new special function and a new *ad hoc* module in the compiler. However, they're sometimes documented in this manual as special forms, rather than macros, because you should not in any way *depend* on the way they are implemented; they might be reimplemented as special functions at any time.)

## 10.6 Function-Defining Special Forms

defun is a special form that is put in a program to define a function. defsubst and macro are others. This section explains how these special forms work, how they relate to the different kinds of functions, and how they interface to the rest of the function-manipulation system.

Function-defining special forms typically take as arguments a function spec and a description of the function to be made, usually in the form of a list of argument names and some forms that constitute the body of the function. They construct a function, give it the function spec as its name, and define the function spec to be the new function. Different special forms make different kinds of functions. defun makes a named-lambda function, and defsubst makes a named-subst function. macro makes a macro; though the macro definition is not really a function, it is like a function as far as definition handling is concerned.

These special forms are used in writing programs because the function names and bodies are constants. Programs that define functions usually want to compute the functions and their names, so they use fdefine. See page 169.

All of these function-defining special forms alter only the basic definition of the function spec. Encapsulations are preserved. See section 10.10, page 175.

The special forms only create interpreted functions. There is no special way of defining a compiled function. Compiled functions are made by compiling interpreted ones. The same special

form that defines the interpreted function, when processed by the compiler, yields the compiled function. See chapter 16, page 228 for details.

Note that the editor understands these and other "defining" special forms (e.g. defmethod, defvar, defmacro, defstruct, etc.) to some extent, so that when you ask for the definition of something, the editor can find it in its source file and show it to you. The general convention is that anything that is used at top level (not inside a function) and starts with def should be a special form for defining things and should be understood by the editor. defprop is an exception.

The defun special form (and the defunp macro which expands into a defun) are used for creating ordinary interpreted functions (see page 157).

For Maclisp compatibility, a type symbol may be inserted between name and lambda-list in the defun form. The following types are understood:

expr

The same as no type.

fexpr

&quote and &rest are prefixed to the lambda list.

macro

A macro is defined instead of a normal function.

If lambda-list is a non-nil symbol instead of a list, the function is recognized as a Maclisp lexpr and it is converted in such a way that the arg, setarg, and listify functions can be used to access its arguments (see page 31).

The defsubst special form is used to create substitutible functions. It is used just like defun but produces a list starting with named-subst instead of one starting with named-lambda. The named-subst function acts just like the corresponding named-lambda function when applied, but it can also be open-coded (incorporated into its callers) by the compiler. See page 255 for full information.

The macro special form is the primitive means of creating a macro. It gives a function spec a definition that is a macro definition rather than a actual function. A macro is not a function because it cannot be applied, but it can appear as the car of a form to be evaluated. Most macros are created with the more powerful defmacro special form. See chapter 17, page 248.

The defselect special form defines a select-method function. See page 167.

Unlike the above special forms, the next two (deff and def) do not create new functions. They simply serve as hints to the editor that a function is being stored into a function spec here, and therefore if someone asks for the source code of the definition of that function spec, this is the place to look for it.

def

Special Form

If a function is created in some strange way, wrapping a def special form around the code that creates it informs the editor of the connection. The form

```
(def function-spec
```

form1 form2...)

simply evaluates the forms form1, form2, etc. It is assumed that these forms will create or obtain a function somehow, and make it the definition of function-spec.

Alternatively, you could put (def function-spec) in front of or anywhere near the forms which define the function. The editor only uses it to tell which line to put the cursor on.

## deff function-spec definition-creator

Special Form

deff is a simplified version of def. It evaluates the form *definition-creator*, which should produce a function, and makes that function the definition of *function-spec*, which is not evaluated. deff is used for giving a function spec a definition which is not obtainable with the specific defining forms such as defun and macro. For example,

```
(deff foo 'bar)
```

will make foo equivalent to bar, with an indirection so that if bar changes foo will likewise change;

```
(deff foo (function bar))
```

copies the definition of bar into foo with no indirection, so that further changes to bar will have no effect on foo.

**Macro** 

This macro turns into nil, doing nothing. It exists for the sake of the @ listing generation program, which uses it to declare names of special forms that define objects (such as functions) that @ should cross-reference.

## defun-compatibility x

This function is used by defun and the compiler to convert Maclisp-style lexpr, fexpr, and macro defuns to Zetalisp definitions. x should be the cdr of a (defun ...) form. defun-compatibility will return a corresponding (defun ...) or (macro ...) form, in the usual Zetalisp format. You shouldn't ever need to call this yourself.

defselect Special Form

defselect defines a function which is a select-method. This function contains a table of subfunctions; when it is called, the first argument, a symbol on the keyword package called the *operation*, is looked up in the table to determine which subfunction to call. Each subfunction can take a different number of arguments and have a different pattern of &optional and &rest arguments. defselect is useful for a variety of "dispatching" jobs. By analogy with the more general message-passing facilities described in chapter 20, page 321, the subfunctions are called *methods* and the list of arguments is sometimes called a *message*.

```
The special form looks like

(defselect (function-spec default-handler no-which-operations)

(operation (args...)

body...)

(operation (args...)

body...)
```

function-spec is the name of the function to be defined. default-handler is optional; it must be a symbol and is a function which gets called if the select-method is called with an unknown operation. If default-handler is unsupplied or nil, then an unknown operation causes an error with condition name sys:unclaimed-message (see page 342).

Normally a method for the operation :which-operations is generated automatically based on the set of existing methods. The :which-operations operation takes no arguments and returns a list of all the operations in the defselect. If *no-which-operations* is non-nil, no :which-operations method is created; however, you can supply one yourself.

If function-spec is a symbol, and default-handler and no-which-operations are not supplied, then the first subform of the defselect may be just function-spec by itself, not enclosed in a list.

The remaining subforms in a defselect are the clauses, each defining one method. *operation* is the operation to be handled by this clause or a list of several operations to be handled by the same clause. *args* is a lambda-list; it should not include the first argument, which is the operation. *body* is the body of the function.

A clause can instead look like:

(operation . symbol)

In this case, *symbol* is the name of a function that is to be called when the *operation* operation is performed. It will be called with the same arguments as the select-method, including the operation symbol itself.

The individual methods of the defselect can be examined, redefined, traced, etc. using select-method function specs (see page 156).

## 10.7 Lambda-List Keywords

This section documents all the keywords that may appear in the "lambda-list" (argument list) (see section 3.2, page 21) of a function, a macro, or a special form. Some of them are allowed everywhere, while others are only allowed in one of these contexts; those are so indicated.

#### lambda-list-keywords

Variable

The value of this variable is a list of all of the allowed "&" keywords. Some of these are obsolete and don't do anything; the remaining ones are listed below.

Separates the required arguments of a function from the optional arguments. See section 3.2, page 21.

&rest Separates the required and optional arguments of a function from the rest argument. There may be only one rest argument. See page 23 for full information about rest arguments. See section 3.2, page 21.

&key Separates the positional arguments and rest argument of a function from the keyword arguments. See section 3.2, page 21.

## &allow-other-keys

In a function that accepts keyword arguments, says that keywords that are not recognized are allowed. They and the corresponding values are ignored, as far as keyword arguments are concerned, but they do become part of the rest argument, if there is one.

&aux Separates the arguments of a function from the auxiliary variables. Following &aux you can put entries of the form

(variable initial-value-form)

or just variable if you want it initialized to nil or don't care what the initial value

is.

&special Declares the following arguments and/or auxiliary variables to be special within

the scope of this function.

&local Turns off a preceding &special for the variables that follow.

&functional Preceding an argument, tells the compiler that the value of this argument will be

a function. When a caller of this function is compiled, if it passes a quoted constant argument that looks like a function (a list beginning with the symbol lambda), the compiler will know that it is intended to be a function rather than a

list that happens to start with that symbol, and will compile it.

&quote Declares that the following arguments are not to be evaluated. This is how you

create a special function. See the caveats about special forms on page 165.

&eval Turns off a preceding &quote for the arguments which follow.

&list-of This is for macros defined by defmacro only. Refer to page 268.

&body This is for macros defined by defmacro only. It is similar to &rest, but declares

to grindef and the code-formatting module of the editor that the body forms of a

special form follow and should be indented accordingly. Refer to page 268.

## 10.8 How Programs Manipulate Function Specs

fdefine function-spec definition & optional (carefully nil) (no-query nil)

This is the primitive used by defun and everything else in the system to change the definition of a function spec. If *carefully* is non-nil, which it usually should be, then only the basic definition is changed; the previous basic definition is saved if possible (see undefun, page 171), and any encapsulations of the function such as tracing and advice are carried over from the old definition to the new definition. *carefully* also causes the user to be queried if the function spec is being redefined by a file different from the one that defined it originally. However, this warning is suppressed if either the argument *no-query* is non-nil, or if the global variable inhibit-fdefine-warnings is t.

If fdefine is called while a file is being loaded, it records what file the function definition came from so that the editor can find the source code.

If function-spec was already defined as a function, and carefully is non-nil, the function-spec's :previous-definition property is used to save the previous definition. This property is used by the undefun function (page 171), which restores the previous definition. The properties for different kinds of function specs are stored in different places; when a function spec is a symbol its properties are stored on the symbol's property list.

defun and the other function-defining special forms all supply t for *carefully* and nil or nothing for *no-query*. Operations that construct encapsulations, such as trace, are the only ones which use nil for *carefully*.

## si:record-source-file-name name & optional (type defun) no-query

Record a definition of *name*, of type *type*. *type* should be defun to record a function definition; then *name* is a function spec. *type* can also be defvar, defflavor, defresource, defsignal or anything else you want to use.

The value of sys:fdefine-file-pathname is assumed to be the generic pathname of the file the definition is coming from, or nil if the definition is not from a file. If a definition of the same *name* and *type* has already been seen but not in the same file, and *no-query* is nil, a condition is signaled and then the user is queried.

If si:record-source-file-name returns nil, it means that the user or a condition handler said the redefinition should not be performed.

## sys:fdefine-file-pathname

Variable

While the system is loading a file, this is the generic pathname for the file. The rest of the time it is nil. fdefine uses this to remember what file defines each function.

## si:get-source-file-name function-spec & optional type

Returns the generic pathname for the file in which function-spec received a definition of type type. If type is nil, the most recent definition is used, regardless of its type.

function-spec really is a function spec only if type is defun; for example, if type is defvar, function-spec is a variable name. Other types that are used by the system are defflavor and defstruct.

This function returns the generic pathname of the source file. To obtain the actual source file pathname, use the :source-pathname operation (see page 469).

A second value is returned, which is the type of the definition that was reported.

### si:get-all-source-file-names function-spec

Returns a list describing the generic pathnames of all the definitions this function-spec has received, of all types. The list is an alist whose elements look like

(type pathname...)

## sys:redefinition (sys:warning)

Condition Flavor

This condition, which is not an error, is signaled by si:record-source-file-name when something is redefined by a different file. The handler for this condition can control what is done about the redefinition.

The condition instance provides the operations :name, :definition-type, :old-pathname and :new-pathname. :name and :definition-type return the *name* and *type* arguments to si:record-source-file-name. :old-pathname and :new-pathname return two generic pathnames saying where the old definition was and where this one is. The new pathname may be nil, meaning that the redefinition is being done by the user, not in any file.

Two proceed types are available, :proceed and :inhibit-definition. The first tells si:record-source-file-name to return t, the second tells it to return nil. If the condition is not handled at all, the user is queried or warned according to the value of inhibit-fdefine-warnings.

## inhibit-fdefine-warnings

Variable

This variable is normally nil. Setting it to t prevents si:record-source-file-name from warning you and asking about questionable redefinitions such as a function being redefined by a different file than defined it originally, or a symbol that belongs to one package being defined by a file that belongs to a different package. Setting it to :just-warn allows the warnings to be printed out, but prevents the queries from happening; it assumes that your answer is "yes", i.e. that it is all right to redefine the function.

## fset-carefully symbol definition & optional force-flag

This function is obsolete. It is equivalent to (fdefine symbol definition t force-flag)

#### fdefinedp function-spec

This returns t if function-spec has a definition, nil if it does not.

#### fdefinition function-spec

This returns function-spec's definition. If it has none, an error occurs.

## fdefinition-location function-spec

This returns a locative pointing at the cell which contains *function-spec*'s definition. For some kinds of function specs, though not for symbols, this can cause data structure to be created to hold a definition. For example, if *function-spec* is of the :property kind, then an entry may have to be added to the property list if it isn't already there. In practice, you should write (locf (fdefinition *function-spec*)) instead of calling this function explicitly.

## fundefine function-spec

Removes the definition of *function-spec*. For symbols this is equivalent to fmakunbound. If the function is encapsulated, fundefine removes both the basic definition and the encapsulations. Some types of function specs (:location for example) do not implement fundefine. fundefine on a :within function spec removes the replacement of *function-to-affect*, putting the definition of *within-function* back to its normal state. fundefine on a :method function spec removes the method completely, so that future messages will be handled by some other method (see the flavor chapter).

## undefun function-spec

If *function-spec* has a saved previous basic definition, this interchanges the current and previous basic definitions, leaving the encapsulations alone. If *function-spec* has no saved previous definition, undefun asks the user whether to make it undefined.

This undoes the effect of redefining a function. See also uncompile (page 228).

### si:function-spec-get function-spec indicator

Returns the value of the *indicator* property of *function-spec*, or nil if it doesn't have such a property.

## si:function-spec-putprop function-spec value indicator

Gives function-spec an indicator property whose value is value.

## si:function-spec-lessp function-spec1 function-spec2

Compares the two function specs with an ordering that is useful in sorting lists of function specs for presentation to the user.

## si:function-parent function-spec

If function-spec does not have its own definition, textually speaking, but is defined as part of the definition of something else, this function returns the function spec for that something else. For example, if function-spec is an accessor function for a defstruct, the value returned is the name of the defstruct.

The intent is that if the caller has not been able to find the definition of function-spec in a more direct fashion, it can try looking for the definition of the function-parent of function-spec. This is used by the editor's Meta-. command.

## 10.9 How Programs Examine Functions

These functions take a function as argument and return information about that function. Some also accept a function spec and operate on its definition. The others do not accept function specs in general but do accept a symbol as standing for its definition. (Note that a symbol is a function as well as a function spec).

## documentation function

Given a function or a function spec, this finds its documentation string, which is stored in various different places depending on the kind of function. If there is no documentation, nil is returned.

#### debugging-info function

This returns the debugging info alist of function, or nil if it has none.

### arglist function & optional real-flag

arglist is given a function or a function spec, and returns its best guess at the nature of the function's lambda-list. It can also return a second value which is a list of descriptive names for the values returned by the function.

If function is a symbol, arglist of its function definition is used.

If the *function* is an actual lambda-expression, its cadr, the lambda-list, is returned. But if *function* is compiled, arglist attempts to reconstruct the lambda-list of the original definition, using whatever debugging information was saved by the compiler. Sometimes the actual names of the bound variables are not available, and arglist uses the symbol si:\*unknown\* for these. Also, sometimes the initialization of an optional parameter is too complicated for arglist to reconstruct; for these it returns the symbol si:\*hairy\*.

Some functions' real argument lists are not what would be most descriptive to a user. A function may take a rest argument for technical reasons even though there are standard meanings for the first elements of that argument. For such cases, the definition of the

function can specify, with a local declaration, a value to be returned when the user asks about the argument list. Example:

```
(defun foo (&rest rest-arg)
  (declare (arglist x y &rest z))
....)
```

real-flag allows the caller of arglist to say that the real argument list should be used even if a declared argument list exists. Note that while normally declares are only for the compiler's benefit, this kind of declare affects all functions, including interpreted functions.

arglist cannot be relied upon to return the exactly correct answer, since some of the information may have been lost. Programs interested in how many and what kind of arguments there are should use args-info instead. In general arglist is to be used for documentation purposes, not for reconstructing the original source code of the function.

When a function returns multiple values, it is useful to give the values names so that the caller can be reminded which value is which. By means of a return-list declaration in the function's definition, entirely analogous to the arglist declaration above, you can specify a list of mnemonic names for the returned values. This list will be returned by arglist as the second value.

```
(arglist 'arglist)
=> (function & optional real-flag) and (arglist return-list)
```

## function-name function & optional try-flavor-name

Returns the name of the function function, if that can be determined. If function does not describe what its name is, function itself is returned.

If *try-flavor-name* is non-nil, then if *function* is a flavor instance (which can, after all, be used as a function), then the flavor name is returned. If the optional argument is nil, flavor instances are treated as anonymous.

#### eh:arg-name function arg-number

Returns the name of argument number arg-number in function function. Returns nil if the function doesn't have such an argument, or if the name is not recorded. &rest arguments are not obtained with arg-number; use rest-arg-name to obtain the name of function's &rest argument, if any.

### eh:rest-arg-name function

Returns the name of the rest argument of function function, or nil if function does not have one.

## eh:local-name function local-number

Returns the name of local variable number local-number in function function. If local-number is zero, this gets the name of the rest arg in any function that accepts a rest arg. Returns nil if the function doesn't have such a local.

## args-info function

args-info returns a fixnum called the "numeric argument descriptor" of the *function*, which describes the way the function takes arguments. This descriptor is used internally by the microcode, the evaluator, and the compiler. *function* can be a function or a function spec.

The information is stored in various bits and byte fields in the fixnum, which are referenced by the symbolic names shown below. By the usual Lisp Machine convention, those starting with a single "%" are bit-masks (meant to be logand'ed or bit-test'ed with the number), and those starting with "%%" are byte descriptors (meant to be used with ldb or ldb-test).

Here are the fields:

## %%arg-desc-min-args

This is the minimum number of arguments that may be passed to this function, i.e. the number of required parameters.

### %%arg-desc-max-args

This is the maximum number of arguments that may be passed to this function, i.e. the sum of the number of required parameters and the number of optional parameters. If there is a rest argument, this is not really the maximum number of arguments that may be passed; an arbitrarily-large number of arguments is permitted, subject to limitations on the maximum size of a stack frame (about 200 words).

### %arg-desc-evaled-rest

If this bit is set, the function has a rest argument, and it is not quoted.

### %arg-desc-quoted-rest

If this bit is set, the function has a rest argument, and it is quoted. Most special forms have this bit.

### %arg-desc-fef-quote-hair

If this bit is set, there are some quoted arguments other than the rest argument (if any), and the pattern of quoting is too complicated to describe here. The ADL (Argument Description List) in the FEF should be consulted. This is only for special forms.

## %arg-desc-interpreted

This function is not a compiled-code object, and a numeric argument descriptor cannot be computed. Usually args-info will not return this bit, although %args-info will.

### %arg-desc-fef-bind-hair

There is argument initialization, or something else too complicated to describe here. The ADL (Argument Description List) in the FEF should be consulted.

Note that %arg-desc-quoted-rest and %arg-desc-evaled-rest cannot both be set.

### %args-info function

This is an internal function; it is like args-info but does not work for interpreted functions. Also, *function* must be a function, not a function spec. It exists because it has to be in the microcode anyway, for apply and the basic function-calling mechanism.

## 10.10 Encapsulations

The definition of a function spec actually has two parts: the *basic definition*, and *encapsulations*. The basic definition is what is created by functions like defun, and encapsulations are additions made by trace or advise to the basic definition. The purpose of making the encapsulation a separate object is to keep track of what was made by defun and what was made by trace. If defun is done a second time, it replaces the old basic definition with a new one while leaving the encapsulations alone.

Only advanced users should ever need to use encapsulations directly via the primitives explained in this section. The most common things to do with encapsulations are provided as higher-level, easier-to-use features: trace (see page 588), breakon (see page 591) and advise (see page 593).

The actual definition of the function spec is the outermost encapsulation; this contains the next encapsulation, and so on. The innermost encapsulation contains the basic definition. The way this containing is done is as follows. An encapsulation is actually a function whose debugging info alist contains an element of the form

(si:encapsulated-definition uninterned-symbol encapsulation-type)

The presence of such an element in the debugging info alist is how you recognize a function to be an encapsulation. An encapsulation is usually an interpreted function (a list starting with named-lambda) but it can be a compiled function also, if the application which created it wants to compile it.

uninterned-symbol's function definition is the thing that the encapsulation contains, usually the basic definition of the function spec. Or it can be another encapsulation, which has in it another debugging info item containing another uninterned symbol. Eventually you get to a function which is not an encapsulation; it does not have the sort of debugging info item which encapsulations all have. That function is the basic definition of the function spec.

Literally speaking, the definition of the function spec is the outermost encapsulation, period. The basic definition is not the definition. If you are asking for the definition of the function spec because you want to apply it, the outermost encapsulation is exactly what you want. But the basic definition can be found mechanically from the definition, by following the debugging info alists. So it makes sense to think of it as a part of the definition. In regard to the function-defining special forms such as defun, it is convenient to think of the encapsulations as connecting between the function spec and its basic definition.

An encapsulation is created with the macro si:encapsulate.

## si:encapsulate

Macro

A call to si:encapsulate looks like

(si:encapsulate function-spec outer-function type body-form extra-debugging-info)

All the subforms of this macro are evaluated. In fact, the macro could almost be replaced with an ordinary function, except for the way *body-form* is handled.

function-spec evaluates to the function spec whose definition the new encapsulation should become. *outer-function* is another function spec, which should often be the same one. Its only purpose is to be used in any error messages from si:encapsulate.

type evaluates to a symbol which identifies the purpose of the encapsulation and says what the application is. For example, that could be advise or trace. The list of possible types is defined by the system because encapsulations are supposed to be kept in an order according to their type (see si:encapsulation-standard-order, page 177). type should have an si:encapsulation-grind-function property which tells grindef what to do with an encapsulation of this type.

body-form evaluates to the body of the encapsulation-definition, the code to be executed when it is called. Backquote is typically used for this expression; see section 17.2.2, page 251. si:encapsulate is a macro because, while body is being evaluated, the variable si:encapsulated-function is bound to a list of the form (function uninterned-symbol), referring to the uninterned symbol used to hold the prior definition of function-spec. If si:encapsulate were a function, body-form would just get evaluated normally by the evaluator before si:encapsulate ever got invoked, and so there would be no opportunity bind body-form si:encapsulated-function. The form should to '(apply, si:encapsulated-function arglist) somewhere if the encapsulation is to live up to its name and truly serve to encapsulate the original definition. (The variable arglist is bound by some of the code which the si:encapsulate macro produces automatically. When the body of the encapsulation is run arglist's value will be the list of the arguments which the encapsulation received.)

extra-debugging-info evaluates to a list of extra items to put into the debugging info alist of the encapsulation function (besides the one starting with si:encapsulated-definition, which every encapsulation must have). Some applications find this useful for recording information about the encapsulation for their own later use.

If compile-encapsulations-flag is non-nil, the encapsulation is compiled before it is installed. The encapsulations on a particular function spec can be compiled by calling compile-encapsulations. See page 229. Compiled encapsulations can still be unencapsulated since the information needed to do so is stored in the debugging info alist, which is preserved by compilation. However, applications which wish to modify the code of the encapsulations they previously created must check for encapsulations that have been compiled and uncompile them. This can be done by finding the sys:interpreted-definition entry in the debugging info alist, which is present in all compiled functions except those made by file-to-file compilation.

When a special function is encapsulated, the encapsulation is itself a special function with the same argument quoting pattern. Therefore, when the outermost encapsulation is started, each argument has been evaluated or not as appropriate. Because each encapsulation calls the prior definition with apply, no further evaluation takes place, and the basic definition of the special form also finds the arguments evaluated or not as appropriate. The basic definition may call eval on some of these arguments or parts of them; the encapsulations should not.

Macros cannot be encapsulated, but their expander functions can be; if the definition of function-spec is a macro, then si:encapsulate automatically encapsulates the expander function instead. In this case, the definition of the uninterned symbol is the original macro definition, not just the original expander function. It would not work for the encapsulation to apply the macro definition. So during the evaluation of body-form, si:encapsulated-function is bound to the form (cdr (function uninterned-symbol)), which extracts the expander function from the prior definition of the macro.

Because only the expander function is actually encapsulated, the encapsulation does not see the evaluation or execution of the expansion itself. The value returned by the encapsulation is the expansion of the macro call, not the value computed by the expansion.

It is possible for one function to have multiple encapsulations, created by different subsystems. In this case, the order of encapsulations is independent of the order in which they were made. It depends instead on their types. All possible encapsulation types have a total order and a new encapsulation is put in the right place among the existing encapsulations according to its type and their types.

#### si:encapsulation-standard-order

Variable

The value of this variable is a list of the allowed encapsulation types, in the order in which the encapsulations are supposed to be kept (innermost encapsulations first). If you want to add new kinds of encapsulations, you should add another symbol to this list. Initially its value is

#### (advise breakon trace si:rename-within)

advise encapsulations are used to hold advice (see page 593). breakon encapsulations are used for implementing breakon (see page 591). trace encapsulations are used for implementing tracing (see page 588). si:rename-within encapsulations are used to record the fact that function specs of the form (:within within-function altered-function) have been defined. The encapsulation goes on within-function (see section 10.10.1, page 179 for more information).

Every symbol used as an encapsulation type must be on the list si:encapsulation-standard-order. In addition, it should have an si:encapsulation-grind-function property whose value is a function that grindef will call to process encapsulations of that type. This function need not take care of printing the encapsulated function because grindef will do that itself. But it should print any information about the encapsulation itself which the user ought to see. Refer to the code for the grind function for advise to see how to write one.

To find the right place in the ordering to insert a new encapsulation, it is necessary to parse existing ones. This is done with the function si:unencapsulate-function-spec.

# si:unencapsulate-function-spec function-spec & optional encapsulation-types

This takes one function spec and returns another. If the original function spec is undefined, or has only a basic definition (that is, its definition is not an encapsulation), then the original function spec is returned unchanged.

If the definition of *function-spec* is an encapsulation, then its debugging info is examined to find the uninterned symbol that holds the encapsulated definition and the encapsulation type. If the encapsulation is of a type that is to be skipped over, the uninterned symbol replaces the original function spec and the process repeats.

The value returned is the uninterned symbol from inside the last encapsulation skipped. This uninterned symbol is the first one that does not have a definition that is an encapsulation that should be skipped. Or the value can be *function-spec* if *function-spec*'s definition is not an encapsulation that should be skipped.

The types of encapsulations to be skipped over are specified by *encapsulation-types*. This can be a list of the types to be skipped, or nil meaning skip all encapsulations (this is the default). Skipping all encapsulations means returning the uninterned symbol that holds the basic definition of *function-spec*. That is, the *definition* of the function spec returned is the *basic definition* of the function spec supplied. Thus,

encapsulation-types can also be a symbol, which should be an encapsulation type; then we skip all types that are supposed to come outside of the specified type. For example, if encapsulation-types is trace, then we skip all types of encapsulations that come outside of trace encapsulations, but we do not skip trace encapsulations themselves. The result is a function spec that is where the trace encapsulation ought to be, if there is one. Either the definition of this function spec is a trace encapsulation, or there is no trace encapsulation anywhere in the definition of function-spec, and this function spec is where it would belong if there were one. For example,

finds the place where a trace encapsulation ought to go and makes one unless there is already one there.

eliminates any trace encapsulation by replacing it by whatever it encapsulates. (If there is no trace encapsulation, this code changes nothing.)

These examples show how a subsystem can insert its own type of encapsulation in the proper sequence without knowing the names of any other types of encapsulations. Only the variable si:encapsulation-standard-order, which is used by si:unencapsulate-function-spec, knows the order.

## 10.10.1 Rename-Within Encapsulations

One special kind of encapsulation is the type si:rename-within. This encapsulation goes around a definition in which renamings of functions have been done.

How is this used?

If you define, advise, or trace (:within foo bar), then bar gets renamed to altered-bar-within-foo wherever it is called from foo, and foo gets a si:rename-within encapsulation to record the fact. The purpose of the encapsulation is to enable various parts of the system to do what seems natural to the user. For example, grindef (see page 426) notices the encapsulation, and so knows to print bar instead of altered-bar-within-foo when grinding the definition of foo.

Also, if you redefine foo, or trace or advise it, the new definition gets the same renaming done (bar replaced by altered-bar-within-foo). To make this work, everyone who alters part of a function definition should pass the new part of the definition through the function si:rename-within-new-definition-maybe.

#### si:rename-within-new-definition-maybe function-spec new-structure

Given *new-structure*, which is going to become a part of the definition of *function-spec*, perform on it the replacements described by the si:rename-within encapsulation in the definition of *function-spec*, if there is one. The altered (copied) list structure is returned.

It is not necessary to call this function yourself when you replace the basic definition because fdefine with *carefully* supplied as t does it for you. si:encapsulate does this to the body of the new encapsulation. So you only need to call si:rename-within-new-definition-maybe yourself if you are rplacing part of the definition.

For proper results, *function-spec* must be the outer-level function spec. That is, the value returned by si:unencapsulate-function-spec is *not* the right thing to use. It will have had one or more encapsulations stripped off, including the si:rename-within encapsulation if any, and so no renamings will be done.