

Tcl Programming

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0.1 Tcl: the Tool Command language

0.1.1 Introduction

So what is Tcl?

The name Tcl is derived from "Tool Command Language" and is pronounced "tickle". Tcl is a radically simple open-source interpreted programming language that provides common facilities such as variables, procedures, and control structures as well as many useful features that are not found in any other major language. Tcl runs on almost all modern operating systems such as Unix, Macintosh, and Windows (including Windows Mobile).

While Tcl is flexible enough to be used in almost any application imaginable, it does excel in a few key areas, including: automated interaction with external programs, embedding as a library into application programs, language design, and general scripting.

Tcl was created in 1988 by John Ousterhout and is distributed under a BSD style license¹ (which allows you everything GPL does, plus closing your source code). The current stable version, in February 2008, is 8.5.1 (8.4.18 in the older 8.4 branch).

The first major GUI extension that works with Tcl is Tk, a toolkit that aims to rapid GUI development. That is why Tcl is now more commonly called Tcl/Tk.

The language features far-reaching introspection, and the syntax, while simple², is very different from the Fortran/Algol/C++/Java world. Although Tcl is a string based language

¹ http://www.tcl.tk/software/tcltk/license_terms.html

² <http://wiki.tcl.tk/10259>

there are quite a few object-oriented extensions for it like `Snit`³, `incr Tcl`⁴, and `XOTcl`⁵ to name a few.

Tcl was originally developed as a reusable command language for experimental computer aided design (CAD) tools. The interpreter is implemented as a C library that could be linked into any application. It is very easy to add new functions to the Tcl interpreter, so it is an ideal reusable "macro language" that can be integrated into many applications.

However, Tcl is a programming language in its own right, which can be roughly described as a cross-breed between

- LISP/Scheme (mainly for it's tail-recursion capabilities),
- C (control structure keywords, expr syntax) and
- Unix shells (but with more powerful structuring).

One language, many styles

Although a language where "everything is a command" appears like it must be "imperative" and "procedural", the flexibility of Tcl allows one to use functional or object-oriented styles of programming very easily. See "Tcl examples" below for ideas what one can do.

Also, it is very easy to implement other programming languages (be they (reverse) polish notation, or whatever) in Tcl for experimenting. One might call Tcl a "CS Lab". For instance, here's how to compute the average of a list of numbers in Tcl (implementing a J-like functional language - see *Tacit programming* below):

```
Def mean = fork /. sum llength
```

or, in a RPN language similar to FORTH or Postscript,

```
mean dup sum swap size double / ;
```

while a more traditional, "procedural" approach would be

```
proc mean list {
    set sum 0.
    foreach element $list {set sum [expr {$sum + $element}]}
    return [expr {$sum / [llength $list]}]
}
```

Here is yet another style (not very fast on long lists, but depends on nothing but Tcl). It works by building up an expression, where the elements of the lists are joined with a plus sign, and then evaluating that:

```
proc mean list {expr double([join $list +])/[llength $list]}
```

3 <http://tmm1.sourceforge.net/doc/tcllib/snitfaq.html>
 4 <http://incrtcl.sourceforge.net/itcl/>
 5 <http://media.wu-wien.ac.at/>

From Tcl 8.5, with math operators exposed as commands, and the `expand` operator, this style is better:

```
proc mean list {expr {[tcl::mathop::+ {*}$list]/double([length $list])}}
```

or, if you have imported the `tcl::mathop` operators, just

```
proc mean list {expr {[+ {*}$list]/double([length $list])}}
```

Note that all of these are in Tcl, just that the first two require some additional code to implement *Def* resp. *!'*

A more practical aspect is that Tcl is very open for "language-oriented programming" - when solving a problem, specify a (little) language which most simply describes and solves that problem - then go implement that language...

Why should I use Tcl?

Good question. The general recommendation is: "Use the best tool for the job". A good craftsman has a good set of tools, and knows how to use them best.

Tcl is a competitor to other scripting languages like awk, Perl, Python, PHP, Visual Basic, Lua, Ruby, and whatever else will come along. Each of these has strengths and weaknesses, and when some are similar in suitability, it finally becomes a matter of taste.

Points in favour of Tcl are:

- simplest syntax (which can be easily extended)
- cross-platform availability: Mac, Unix, Windows, ...
- strong internationalization support: everything is a Unicode string
- robust, well-tested code base
- the Tk GUI toolkit speaks Tcl natively
- BSD license, which allows open-source use like GPL, as well as closed-source
- a very helpful community, reachable via newsgroup, Wiki, or chat :)

Tcl is not the best solution for every problem. It is however a valuable experience to find out what is possible with Tcl.

Example: a tiny web server

Before spoon-feeding the bits and pieces of Tcl, a slightly longer example might be appropriate, just so you get the feeling how it looks. The following is, in 41 lines of code, a complete little web server that serves static content (HTML pages, images), but also provides a subset of CGI functionality: if an URL ends with *.tcl*, a Tcl interpreter is called with it, and the results (a dynamically generated HTML page) served.

Note that no extension package was needed - Tcl can, with the **socket** command, do such tasks already pretty nicely. A socket is a channel that can be written to with **puts**. The **fcopy** copies asynchronously (in the background) from one channel to another, where the source is either a process pipe (the "exec tclsh" part) or an open file.

This server was tested to work pretty well even on 200MHz Windows 95 over a 56k modem, and serving several clients concurrently. Also, because of the brevity of the code, this is an educational example for how (part of) HTTP works.

```
# DustMotePlus - with a subset of CGI support
set root      c:/html
set default  index.htm
set port      80
set encoding  iso8859-1
proc bgerror msg {puts stdout "bgerror: $msg\n$::errorInfo"}
proc answer {sock host2 port2} {
    fileevent $sock readable [list serve $sock]
}
proc serve sock {
    fconfigure $sock -blocking 0
    gets $sock line
    if {[fblocked $sock]} {
        return
    }
    fileevent $sock readable ""
    set tail /
    regexp {(/[~?]*)(\[~ ]*)?} $line -> tail args
    if {[string match */ $tail]} {
        append tail $::default
    }
    set name [string map {%20 " " .. NOTALLOWED} $::root$tail]
    if {[file readable $name]} {
        puts $sock "HTTP/1.0 200 OK"
        if {[file extension $name] eq ".tcl"} {
            set ::env(QUERY_STRING) [string range $args 1 end]
            set name [list |tclsh $name]
        } else {
            puts $sock "Content-Type: text/html;charset=$::encoding\n"
        }
        set inchan [open $name]
        fconfigure $inchan -translation binary
        fconfigure $sock -translation binary
        fcopy $inchan $sock -command [list done $inchan $sock]
    } else {
        puts $sock "HTTP/1.0 404 Not found\n"
        close $sock
    }
}
proc done {file sock bytes {msg {}}} {
    close $file
    close $sock
}
socket -server answer $port
puts "Server ready..."
vwait forever
```

And here's a little "CGI" script I tested it with (save as time.tcl):

```
# time.tcl - tiny CGI script.
if {[info exists env(QUERY_STRING)]} {
    set env(QUERY_STRING) ""
}
puts "Content-type: text/html\n"
puts "<html><head><title>Tiny CGI time server</title></head>
<body><h1>Time server</h1>
Time now is: [clock format [clock seconds]]
<br>
Query was: $env(QUERY_STRING)
<hr>
```

```
<a href=index.htm>Index</a>
</body></html>"
```

Where to get Tcl/Tk

On most Linux systems, Tcl/Tk is already installed. You can find out by typing *tclsh* at a console prompt (xterm or such). If a "%" prompt appears, you're already set. Just to make sure, type *info pa* at the % prompt to see the patchlevel (e.g. 8.4.9) and *info na* to see where the executable is located in the file system.

Tcl is an open source project. The sources are available from <http://tcl.sourceforge.net/> if you want to build it yourself.

For all major platforms, you can download a binary **ActiveTcl** distribution from ActiveState⁶. Besides Tcl and Tk, this also contains many popular extensions - it's called the canonical "Batteries Included" distribution.

Alternatively, you can get Tclkit⁷: a Tcl/Tk installation wrapped in a single file, which you don't need to unwrap. When run, the file mounts itself as a virtual file system, allowing access to all its parts.

January 2006, saw the release of a new and promising one-file vfs distribution of Tcl; **eTcl**. Free binaries for Linux, Windows, and Windows Mobile 2003 can be downloaded from <http://www.evolane.com/software/etcl/index.html>. Especially on PocketPCs, this provides several features that have so far been missing from other ports: sockets, window "retreat", and can be extended by providing a startup script, and by installing pure-Tcl libraries.

First steps

To see whether your installation works, you might save the following text to a file *hello.tcl* and run it (type *tclsh hello.tcl* at a console on Linux, double-click on Windows):

```
package require Tk
pack [label .1 -text "Hello world!"]
```

It should bring up a little grey window with the greeting.

To make a script directly executable (on Unix/Linux, and Cygwin on Windows), use this first line (the # being flush left):

```
#!/usr/bin/env tclsh
```

or (in an older, deprecated tricky style):

```
#!/bin/sh
# the next line restarts using tclsh \
exec tclsh "$0" "${1+"$@"}
```

⁶ <http://www.activestate.com/Products/Download/Download.plex?id=ActiveTcl>

⁷ <http://www.equi4.com/tclkit.html>

This way, the shell can determine which executable to run the script with.

An even simpler way, and highly recommended for beginners as well as experienced users, is to start up tclsh or wish interactively. You will see a % prompt in the console, can type commands to it, and watch its responses. Even error messages are very helpful here, and don't cause a program abort - don't be afraid to try whatever you like! Example:

```
$ tclsh
```

info patchlevel

```
8.4.12
```

expr 6*7

```
42
```

expr 42/0

```
divide by zero
```

You can even write programs interactively, best as one-liners:

```
proc ! x {expr {$x<=2? $x: $x*![incr x -1]}}  
! 5
```

```
120
```

For more examples, see the chapter "A quick tour".

0.1.2 Syntax

Syntax is just the rules how a language is structured. A simple syntax of English could say (ignoring punctuation for the moment):

- A text consists of one or more sentences
- A sentence consists of one or more words

Simple as this is, it also describes Tcl's syntax very well - if you say "script" for "text", and "command" for "sentence". There's also the difference that a Tcl word can again contain a script or a command. So

```
if {$x < 0} {set x 0}
```

is a command consisting of three words: *if*, a condition in braces, a command (also consisting of three words) in braces.

Take this for example

is a well-formed Tcl command: it calls *Take* (which must have been defined before) with the three arguments "this", "for", and "example". It is up to the command how it interprets its arguments, e.g.

```
puts acos(-1)
```

will write the string "acos(-1)" to the stdout channel, and return the empty string "", while

```
expr acos(-1)
```

will compute the arc cosine of -1 and return 3.14159265359 (an approximation of π), or

```
string length acos(-1)
```

will invoke the *string* command, which again dispatches to its *length* sub-command, which determines the length of the second argument and returns 8.

Quick summary

A Tcl **script** is a string that is a sequence of commands, separated by newlines or semicolons.

A **command** is a string that is a list of words, separated by blanks. The first word is the name of the command, the other words are passed to it as its arguments. In Tcl, *"everything is a command"* - even what in other languages would be called declaration, definition, or control structure. A command can interpret its arguments in any way it wants - in particular, it can implement a different language, like *expr*.

A **word** is a string that is a simple word, or one that begins with { and ends with the matching } (braces), or one that begins with " and ends with the matching ". Braced words are not evaluated by the parser. In quoted words, substitutions can occur before the command is called:

- $\$[A-Za-z0-9_]+$ substitutes the value of the given variable. Or, if the variable name contains characters outside that regular expression, another layer of bracing helps the parser to get it right:

```
puts "Guten Morgen, ${Schüler}!"
```

If the code would say $\$Schüler$, this would be parsed as the value of variable $\$Sch$, immediately followed by the constant string *üler*.

- (Part of) a word can be an embedded script: a string in [] brackets whose contents are evaluated as a script (see above) before the current command is called.

In short: Scripts and commands contain words. Words can again contain scripts and commands. (This can lead to words more than a page long...)

Arithmetic and logic expressions are not part of the Tcl language itself, but the language of the **expr** command (also used in some arguments of the **if**, **for**, **while** commands) is basically equivalent to C's expressions, with infix operators and functions. See separate chapter on *expr* below.

The man page: 11 rules

Here is the complete manpage for Tcl (8.4) with the "endekalogue", the 11 rules. (From 8.5 onward there is a twelfth rule regarding the `{*}` feature).

The following rules define the syntax and semantics of the Tcl language:

(1) Commands A Tcl script is a string containing one or more commands. Semi-colons and newlines are command separators unless quoted as described below. Close brackets are command terminators during command substitution (see below) unless quoted.

(2) Evaluation A command is evaluated in two steps. First, the Tcl interpreter breaks the command into words and performs substitutions as described below. These substitutions are performed in the same way for all commands. The first word is used to locate a command procedure to carry out the command, then all of the words of the command are passed to the command procedure. The command procedure is free to interpret each of its words in any way it likes, such as an integer, variable name, list, or Tcl script. Different commands interpret their words differently.

(3) Words Words of a command are separated by white space (except for newlines, which are command separators).

(4) Double quotes If the first character of a word is double-quote (") then the word is terminated by the next double-quote character. If semi-colons, close brackets, or white space characters (including newlines) appear between the quotes then they are treated as ordinary characters and included in the word. Command substitution, variable substitution, and backslash substitution are performed on the characters between the quotes as described below. The double-quotes are not retained as part of the word.

(5) Braces If the first character of a word is an open brace ({) then the word is terminated by the matching close brace (}). Braces nest within the word: for each additional open brace there must be an additional close brace (however, if an open brace or close brace within the word is quoted with a backslash then it is not counted in locating the matching close brace). No substitutions are performed on the characters between the braces except for backslash-newline substitutions described below, nor do semi-colons, newlines, close brackets, or white space receive any special interpretation. The word will consist of exactly the characters between the outer braces, not including the braces themselves.

(6) Command substitution If a word contains an open bracket ([) then Tcl performs command substitution. To do this it invokes the Tcl interpreter recursively to process the characters following the open bracket as a Tcl script. The script may contain any number of commands and must be terminated by a close bracket (`]). *The result of the script (i.e. the result of its last command) is substituted into the word in place of the brackets and all of the characters between them. There may be any number of command substitutions in a single word. Command substitution is not performed on words enclosed in braces.*

(7) Variable substitution If a word contains a dollar-sign (\$) then Tcl performs variable substitution: the dollar-sign and the following characters are replaced in the word by the value of a variable. Variable substitution may take any of the following forms:

\$name

Name is the name of a scalar variable; the name is a sequence of one or more characters that are a letter, digit, underscore, or namespace separators (two or more colons).

`$name(index)`

Name gives the name of an array variable and index gives the name of an element within that array. Name must contain only letters, digits, underscores, and namespace separators, and may be an empty string. Command substitutions, variable substitutions, and backslash substitutions are performed on the characters of index.

`${name}`

Name is the name of a scalar variable. It may contain any characters whatsoever except for close braces. There may be any number of variable substitutions in a single word. Variable substitution is not performed on words enclosed in braces.

(8) Backslash substitution If a backslash (`\`) appears within a word then backslash substitution occurs. In all cases but those described below the backslash is dropped and the following character is treated as an ordinary character and included in the word. This allows characters such as double quotes, close brackets, and dollar signs to be included in words without triggering special processing. The following table lists the backslash sequences that are handled specially, along with the value that replaces each sequence.

`\a`

Audible alert (bell) (0x7).

`\b`

Backspace (0x8).

`\f`

Form feed (0xc).

`\n`

Newline (0xa).

`\r`

Carriage-return (0xd).

`\t`

Tab (0x9).

`\v`

Vertical tab (0xb).

`\<newline>whiteSpace`

A single space character replaces the backslash, newline, and all spaces and tabs after the newline. This backslash sequence is unique in that it is replaced in a separate pre-pass before the command is actually parsed. This means that it will be replaced even when it occurs between braces, and the resulting space will be treated as a word separator if it isn't in braces or quotes.

`\\`

Literal backslash (`\`), no special effect.

`\ooo`

The digits `ooo` (one, two, or three of them) give an eight-bit octal value for the Unicode character that will be inserted. The upper bits of the Unicode character will be 0.

`\xhh`

The hexadecimal digits `hh` give an eight-bit hexadecimal value for the Unicode character that will be inserted. Any number of hexadecimal digits may be present; however, all but the last two are ignored (the result is always a one-byte quantity). The upper bits of the Unicode character will be 0.

`\uhhhh`

The hexadecimal digits `hhhh` (one, two, three, or four of them) give a sixteen-bit hexadecimal value for the Unicode character that will be inserted.

Backslash substitution is not performed on words enclosed in braces, except for backslash-newline as described above.

(9) Comments If a hash character (`#`) appears at a point where Tcl is expecting the first character of the first word of a command, then the hash character and the characters that follow it, up through the next newline, are treated as a comment and ignored. The comment character only has significance when it appears at the beginning of a command.

(10) Order of substitution Each character is processed exactly once by the Tcl interpreter as part of creating the words of a command. For example, if variable substitution occurs then no further substitutions are performed on the value of the variable; the value is inserted into the word verbatim. If command substitution occurs then the nested command is processed entirely by the recursive call to the Tcl interpreter; no substitutions are performed before making the recursive call and no additional substitutions are performed on the result of the nested script. Substitutions take place from left to right, and each substitution is evaluated completely before attempting to evaluate the next. Thus, a sequence like

```
set y [set x 0][incr x][incr x]
```

will always set the variable `y` to the value, 012.

(11) Substitution and word boundaries Substitutions do not affect the word boundaries of a command. For example, during variable substitution the entire value of the variable becomes part of a single word, even if the variable's value contains spaces.

Comments

The first rule for comments is simple: comments start with `#` where the first word of a command is expected, and continue to the end of line (which can be extended, by a trailing backslash, to the following line):

```
# This is a comment \
```

```
going over three lines \  
with backslash continuation
```

One of the problems new users of Tcl meet sooner or later is that comments behave in an unexpected way. For example, if you comment out part of code like this:

```
# if {$condition} {  
    puts "condition met!"  
# }
```

This happens to work, but any unbalanced braces in comments may lead to unexpected syntax errors. The reason is that Tcl's grouping (determining word boundaries) happens before the `#` characters are considered.

To add a comment behind a command on the same line, just add a semicolon:

```
puts "this is the command" ;# that is the comment
```

Comments are only taken as such where a command is expected. In data (like the comparison values in `switch`), a `#` is just a literal character:

```
if $condition {# good place  
    switch -- $x {  
        #bad_place {because switch tests against it}  
        some_value {do something; # good place again}  
    }  
}
```

To comment out multiple lines of code, it is easiest to use "if 0":

```
if 0 {  
    puts "This code will not be executed"  
    This block is never parsed, so can contain almost any code  
    - except unbalanced braces :)  
}
```

0.1.3 Data types

In Tcl, all values are strings, and the phrase "**Everything is a string**" is often used to illustrate this fact. But just as 2 can be used in can be interpreted in English as "the number 2" or "the character representing the number 2", two different functions in Tcl can interpret the same value in two different ways. The command `expr`, for example, interprets "2" as a number, but the command `string length` interprets "2" as a single character. All values in Tcl can be interpreted either as characters or something else that the characters represent. The important thing to remember is that every value in Tcl is a string of characters, and each string of characters might be interpreted as something else, depending on the context. This will become more clear in the examples below. For performance reasons, versions of Tcl since 8.0 keep track of both the string value and how that string value was last interpreted. This section covers the various "types" of things that Tcl values (strings) get interpreted as.

Strings

A string is a sequence of zero or more characters (where all 16-bit Unicodes are accepted in almost all situations, see in more detail below). The size of strings is automatically administered, so you only have to worry about that if the string length exceeds the virtual memory size.

In contrast to many other languages, strings in Tcl don't need quotes for markup. The following is perfectly valid:

```
set greeting Hello!
```

Quotes (or braces) are rather used for grouping:

```
set example "this is one word"
set another {this is another}
```

The difference is that inside quotes, substitutions (like of variables, embedded commands, or backslashes) are performed, while in braces, they are not (similar to single quotes in shells, but nestable):

```
set amount 42
puts "You owe me $amount" ;#--> You owe me 42
puts {You owe me $amount} ;#--> You owe me $amount
```

In source code, quoted or braced strings can span multiple lines, and the physical newlines are part of the string too:

```
set test "hello
world
in three lines"
```

To **reverse a string**, we let an index i first point at its end, and decrementing i until it's zero, append the indexed character to the end of the result res :

```
proc sreverse str {
  set res ""
  for {set i [string length $str]} {$i > 0} {} {
    append res [string index $str [incr i -1]]
  }
  set res
}
```

```
sreverse "A man, a plan, a canal - Panama"
```

```
amanaP - lanac a ,nalp a ,nam A
```

Hex-dumping a string:

```
proc hexdump string {
  binary scan $string H* hex
  regexp -all -inline .. $hex
}
```

```
hexdump hello
```

68 65 6c 6c 6f

Finding a substring in a string can be done in various ways:

```
string first $substr $str ;# returns the position from 0, or -1 if not found
```

```
string match *$substr* $str ;# returns 1 if found, 0 if not
```

```
regexp $substr $str ;# the same
```

The matching is done with exact match in *string first*, with glob-style match in *string match*, and as a regular expression in *regexp*. If there are characters in *substr* that are special to *glob* or regular expressions, using *string first* is recommended.

Lists

Many strings are also well-formed **lists**. Every simple word is a list of length one, and elements of longer lists are separated by whitespace. For instance, a string that corresponds to a list of three elements:

```
set example {foo bar grill}
```

Strings with unbalanced quotes or braces, or non-space characters directly following closing braces, cannot be parsed as lists directly. You can explicitly **split** them to make a list.

The "constructor" for lists is of course called *list*. It's recommended to use when elements come from variable or command substitution (braces won't do that). As Tcl commands are lists anyway, the following is a full substitute for the *list* command:

```
proc list args {set args}
```

Lists can contain lists again, to any depth, which makes modelling of matrixes and trees easy. Here's a string that represents a 4 x 4 unit matrix as a list of lists. The outer braces group the entire thing into one string, which includes the literal inner braces and whitespace, including the literal newlines. The list parser then interprets the inner braces as delimiting nested lists.

```
{{1 0 0 0}  
{0 1 0 0}  
{0 0 1 0}  
{0 0 0 1}}
```

The newlines are valid list element separators, too.

Tcl's list operations are demonstrated in some examples:

```
set      x {foo bar}  
llength $x      ;#--> 2  
lappend x grill ;#--> foo bar grill  
lindex  $x 1    ;#--> bar (indexing starts at 0)  
lsearch $x grill ;#--> 2 (the position, counting from 0)  
lsort   $x      ;#--> bar foo grill
```

```
linsert $x 2 and ;#--> foo bar and grill
lreplace $x 1 1 bar, ;#--> foo bar, and grill
```

To change an element of a list (of a list...) in place, the **lset** command is useful - just give as many indexes as needed:

```
set test {a b} {c d}
```

```
{a b} {c d}
```

```
lset test 1 1 x
```

```
{a b} {c x}
```

The **lindex** command also takes multiple indexes:

```
lindex $test 1 1
```

```
x
```

Example: To find out whether an element is contained in a list (from Tcl 8.5, there's the **in** operator for that):

```
proc in {list el} {expr {[lsearch -exact $list $el] >= 0}}
in {a b c} b
```

```
1
```

```
in {a b c} d
```

```
#ignore this line, which is only here because there is currently a bug in
wikibooks rendering which makes the 0 on the following line disappear when it is
alone
0
```

Example: remove an element from a list variable by value (converse to lappend), if present:

```
proc lremove {_list el} {
  upvar 1 $_list list
  set pos [lsearch -exact $list $el]
  set list [lreplace $list $pos $pos]
}
```

```
set t {foo bar grill}
```

```
foo bar grill
```



```
lremove t bar
```

```
foo grill
```

```
set t
```

```
foo grill
```

A simpler alternative, which also removes all occurrences of *el*:

```
proc lremove {_list el} {
    upvar 1 $_list list
    set list [lsearch -all -inline -not -exact $list $el]
}
```

Example: To draw a random element from a list *L*, we first determine its length (using *llength*), multiply that with a random number > 0.0 and < 1.0 , truncate that to integer (so it lies between 0 and length-1), and use that for indexing (*lindex*) into the list:

```
proc ldraw L {
    lindex $L [expr {int(rand()*[llength $L])}]
}
```

Example: Transposing a matrix (swapping rows and columns), using integers as generated variable names:

```
proc transpose matrix {
    foreach row $matrix {
        set i 0
        foreach el $row {lappend [incr i] $el}
    }
    set res {}
    set i 0
    foreach e [lindex $matrix 0] {lappend res [set [incr i]]}
    set res
}
```

```
transpose {{1 2} {3 4} {5 6}}
```

```
{1 3 5} {2 4 6}
```

Example: pretty-printing a list of lists which represents a table:

```
proc fmtable table {
    set maxs {}
    foreach item [lindex $table 0] {
        lappend maxs [string length $item]
    }
    foreach row [lrange $table 1 end] {
        set i 0
        foreach item $row max $maxs {
```

```

        if {[string length $item]>$max} {
            lset maxs $i [string length $item]
        }
        incr i
    }
}
set head +
foreach max $maxs {append head -[string repeat - $max]-+}
set res $head\n
foreach row $table {
    append res |
    foreach item $row max $maxs {append res [format " %-${max}s |" $item]}
    append res \n
}
append res $head
}

```

Testing:

```

fmtable {
    {1 short "long field content"}
    {2 "another long one" short}
    {3 "" hello}
}

```

```

+---+-----+-----+
| 1 | short           | long field content |
| 2 | another long one | short               |
| 3 |                   | hello               |
+---+-----+-----+

```

Enumerations: Lists can also be used to implement enumerations (mappings from symbols to non-negative integers). Example for a nice wrapper around lsearch/lindex:

```

proc makeEnum {name values} {
    interp alias {} $name: {} lsearch $values
    interp alias {} $name@ {} lindex $values
}

makeEnum fruit {apple blueberry cherry date elderberry}

```

This assigns "apple" to 0, "blueberry" to 1, etc.

```
fruit: date
```

```
3
```

```
fruit@ 2
```

```
cherry
```

Numbers

Numbers are strings that can be parsed as such. Tcl supports integers (32-bit or even 64-bit wide) and "double" floating-point numbers. From Tcl 8.5 on, bignums (integers of arbitrarily large precision) are supported. Arithmetics is done with the **expr** command, which takes basically the same syntax of operators (including ternary $x?y:z$), parens, and math functions as C. See below for detailed discussion of *expr*.

Control the display format of numbers with the **format** command which does appropriate rounding:

```
expr 2/3.
```

```
0.666666666667
```

```
format %.2f [expr 2/3.]
```

```
0.67
```

Up to the 8.4 version (the present version is 8.5), Tcl honored the C convention that an integer starting with 0 is parsed as octal, so

0377 == 0xFF == 255

This changes in 8.5, though - too often people stumbled over "08" meant as hour or month, raised a syntax error, because 8 is no valid octal number. In the future you'd have to write 0o377 if you really mean octal. You can do number base conversions with the *format* command, where the format is %x for hex, %d for decimal, %o for octal, and the input number should have the C-like markup to indicate its base:

```
format %x 255
```

```
ff
```

```
format %d 0xff
```

```
255
```

```
format %o 255
```

```
377
```

```
format %d 0377
```

255

Variables with integer value can be most efficiently modified with the *incr* command:

```
incr i      ;# default increment is 1
incr j 2
incr i -1 ;# decrement with negative value
incr j $j ;# double the value
```

The maximal positive integer can be determined from the hexadecimal form, with a 7 in front, followed by several "F" characters. Tcl 8.4 can use "wide integers" of 64 bits, and the maximum integer there is

```
expr 0x7fffffffffffffff
```

9223372036854775807

Demonstration: one more, and it turns into the minimum integer:

```
expr 0x8000000000000000
```

-9223372036854775808

Bignums: from Tcl 8.5, integers can be of arbitrary size, so there is no maximum integer anymore. Say, you want a big factorial:

```
proc tcl::mathfunc::fac x {expr {$x < 2? 1: $x * fac($x-1)}}
expr fac(100)
```

```
expr fac(100)
```

933262154439441526816992388562667004907159682643816214685929638952175999932299
156089414639761565182862536979208272237582511852109168640000000000000000000000

IEEE special floating-point values: Also from 8.5, Tcl supports a few special values for floating-point numbers, namely *Inf* (infinity) and *NaN* (Not a Number):

```
set i [expr 1/0.]
```

Inf

```
expr {$i+$i}
```

Inf

```
expr {$i+1 == $i}
```

```
1
```

```
set j NaN ;# special because it isn't equal to itself
```

```
NaN
```

```
expr {$j == $j}
```

```
#ignore this line, which is only here because there is currently a bug in  
wikibooks rendering which makes the 0 on the following line disappear when it is  
alone  
0
```

Booleans

Tcl supports booleans as numbers in a similar fashion to C, with 0 being false and any other number being true. It also supports them as the strings "true", "false", "yes" and "no" and few others (see below). The canonical "true" value (as returned by Boolean expressions) is 1.

```
foreach b {0 1 2 13 true false on off no yes n y a} {puts "$b -> [expr  
{${b?1:0}]."}}
```

```
0 -> 0  
1 -> 1  
2 -> 1  
13 -> 1  
true -> 1  
false -> 0  
on -> 1  
off -> 0  
no -> 0  
yes -> 1  
n -> 0  
y -> 1  
expected boolean value but got "a"
```

Characters

Characters are abstractions of writing elements (e.g. letters, digits, punctuation characters, Chinese ideographs, ligatures...). In Tcl since 8.1, characters are internally represented with Unicode, which can be seen as unsigned integers between 0 and 65535 (recent Unicode

versions have even crossed that boundary, but the Tcl implementation currently uses a maximum of 16 bits). Any Unicode U+XXXX can be specified as a character constant with an `\uXXXX` escape. It is recommended to only use ASCII characters (`\u0000-\u007f`) in Tcl scripts directly, and escape all others.

Convert between numeric Unicode and characters with

```
set char [format %c $int]
set int  [scan $char %c]
```

Watch out that int values above 65535 produce 'decreasing' characters again, while negative int even produces two bogus characters. format does not warn, so better test before calling it.

Sequences of characters are called strings (see above). There is no special data type for a single character, so a single character is just a string on length 1 (everything is a string). In UTF-8, which is used internally by Tcl, the encoding of a single character may take from one to three bytes of space. To determine the bytlength of a single character:

```
string bytlength $c ;# assuming [string length $c]=1
```

String routines can be applied to single characters too, e.g `[string toupper]` etc. Find out whether a character is in a given set (a character string) with

```
expr {[string first $char $set]>=0}
```

As Unicodes for characters fall in distinct ranges, checking whether a character's code lies within a range allows a more-or-less rough classification of its category:

```
proc inRange {from to char} {
    # generic range checker
    set int [scan $char %c]
    expr {$int>=$from && $int <= $to}
}
interp alias {} isGreek {}      inRange 0x0386 0x03D6
interp alias {} isCyrillic {}   inRange 0x0400 0x04F9
interp alias {} isHangul {}     inRange 0xAC00 0xD7A3
```

This is a useful helper to convert all characters beyond the ASCII set to their `\u....` escapes (so the resulting string is strict ASCII):

```
proc u2x s {
    set res ""
    foreach c [split $s ""] {
        scan $c %c int
        append res [expr {$int<128? $c :"\u[format %04.4X $int]"}]
    }
    set res
}
```

Internal representation

In the main Tcl implementation, which is written in C, each value has both a string representation (UTF-8 encoded) and a structured representation. This is an implementation detail which allows for better performance, but has no semantic impact on the language.

Tcl tracks both representations, making sure that if one is changed, the other one is updated to reflect the change the next time it is used. For example, if the string representation of a value is "8", and the value was last used as a number in an [expr] command, the structured representation will be a numeric type like a signed integer or a double-precision floating point number. If the value "one two three" was last used in one of the list commands, the structured representation will be a list structure. There are various other "types" on the C side which may be used as the structured representation. As of Tcl 8.5, only the most recent structured representation of a value is stored, and it is replaced with a different representation when necessary. This "dual-porting" of values helps avoid, repeated parsing or "stringification", which otherwise would happen often because each time a value is encountered in source code, it is interpreted as a string prior to being interpreted in its current context. But to the programmer, the view that "everything is a string" is still maintained.

These values are stored in reference-counted structures termed objects (a term that has many meanings). From the perspective of all code that uses values (as opposed to code implementing a particular representation), they are immutable. In practice, this is implemented using a copy-on-write strategy.

0.1.4 Variables

Variables can be local or global, and scalar or array. Their names can be any string not containing a colon (which is reserved for use in namespace separators) but for the convenience of \$-dereference one usually uses names of the pattern [A-Za-z0-9_]+, i.e. one or more letters, digits, or underscores.

Variables need not be declared beforehand. They are created when first assigned a value, if they did not exist before, and can be unset when no longer needed:

```
set foo 42      ;# creates the scalar variable foo
set bar(1) grill ;# creates the array bar and its element 1
set baz $foo   ;# assigns to baz the value of foo
set baz [set foo] ;# the same effect
info exists foo ;# returns 1 if the variable foo exists, else 0
unset foo      ;# deletes the variable foo
```

Retrieving a variable's value with the \$foo notation is only syntactic sugar for [set foo]. The latter is more powerful though, as it can be nested, for deeper dereferencing:

```
set foo 42
set bar foo
set grill bar
puts [set [set [set grill]]] ;# gives 42
```

Some people might expect `$$$grill` to deliver the same result, but it doesn't, because of the Tcl parser. When it encounters the first and second \$ sign, it tries to find a variable name (consisting of one or more letters, digits, or underscores) in vain, so these \$ signs are left literally as they are. The third \$ allows substitution of the variable `grill`, but no backtracking to the previous \$'s takes place. So the evaluation result of `$$$grill` is `$$bar`. Nested [set] commands give the user more control.

Local vs. global

A local variable exists only in the procedure where it is defined, and is freed as soon as the procedure finishes. By default, all variables used in a proc are local.

Global variables exist outside of procedures, as long as they are not explicitly unset. They may be needed for long-living data, or implicit communication between different procedures, but in general it's safer and more efficient to use globals as sparingly as possible. Example of a very simple bank with only one account:

```
set balance 0 ;# this creates and initializes a global variable

proc deposit {amount} {
    global balance
    set balance [expr {$balance + $amount}]
}

proc withdraw {amount} {
    set ::balance [expr {$::balance - $amount}]
}
```

This illustrates two ways of referring to global variables - either with the **global** command, or by qualifying the variable name with the `::` prefix. The variable *amount* is local in both procedures, and its value is that of the first argument to the respective procedure.

Introspection:

```
info vars ;#-- lists all visible variables
info locals
info globals
```

To make all global variables visible in a procedure (not recommended):

```
eval global [info globals]
```

Scalar vs. array

All of the value types discussed above in *Data types* can be put into a scalar variable, which is the normal kind.

Arrays are collections of variables, indexed by a key that can be any string, and in fact implemented as hash tables. What other languages call "arrays" (vectors of values indexed by an integer), would in Tcl rather be lists. Some illustrations:

```
#-- The key is specified in parens after the array name
set capital(France) Paris

#-- The key can also be substituted from a variable:
set country France
puts $capital($country)

#-- Setting several elements at once:
array set capital {Italy Rome Germany Berlin}

#-- Retrieve all keys:
array names capital ;#-- Germany Italy France -- quasi-random order
```



```
#-- Retrieve keys matching a glob pattern:
array names capital F* ;#-- France
```

A fanciful array name is "" (the empty string, therefore we might call this the "anonymous array" :) which makes nice reading:

```
set (example) 1
puts $(example)
```

Note that arrays themselves are not values. They can be passed in and out of procedures not as *\$capital* (which would try to retrieve the value), but by reference. The **dict** type (available from Tcl 8.5) might be better suited for these purposes, while otherwise providing hash table functionality, too.

System variables

At startup, tclsh provides the following global variables:

argc

number of arguments on the command line

argv

list of the arguments on the command line

argv0

name of the executable or script (first word on command line)

auto_index

array with instructions from where to load further commands

auto_oldpath

(same as auto_path ?)

auto_path

list of paths to search for packages

env

array, mirrors the environment variables

errorCode

type of the last error, or {}, e.g. ARITH DIVZERO {divide by zero}

errorInfo

last error message, or {}

tcl_interactive

1 if interpreter is interactive, else 0

tcl_libPath

list of library paths

tcl_library

path of the Tcl system library directory

tcl_patchLevel

detailed version number, e.g. 8.4.11

tcl_platform

array with information on the operating system

tcl_rcFileName

name of the initial resource file

tcl_version

brief version number, e.g. 8.4

One can use temporary environment variables to control a Tcl script from the command line, at least in Unixoid systems including Cygwin. Example scriptlet:

```
set foo 42
if [info exists env(DO)] {eval $env(DO)}
puts foo=$foo
```

This script will typically report

```
foo=42
```

To remote-control it without editing, set the DO variable before the call:

```
DO='set foo 4711' tclsh myscript.tcl
```

which will evidently report

```
foo=4711
```

Dereferencing variables

A *reference* is something that refers, or points, to another something (if you pardon the scientific expression). In C, references are done with **pointers** (memory addresses); in Tcl, references are strings (everything is a string), namely names of variables, which via a hash table can be resolved (dereferenced) to the "other something" they point to:

```
puts foo           ;# just the string foo
puts $foo          ;# dereference variable with name of foo
puts [set foo]     ;# the same
```

This can be done more than one time with nested set commands. Compare the following C and Tcl programs, that do the same (trivial) job, and exhibit remarkable similarity:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void) {
    int i = 42;
    int * ip = &i;
    int ** ipp = &ip;
    int ***ippp = &ipp;
    printf("hello, %d\n", ***ippp);
    return 0;
}
```

...and Tcl:

```
set i 42
set ip i
set ipp ip
set ippp ipp
puts "hello, [set [set [set [set ipp]]]]"
```

The asterisks in C correspond to calls to `set` in Tcl dereferencing. There is no corresponding operator to the C `&` because, in Tcl, special markup is not needed in declaring references. The correspondence is not perfect; there are four `set` calls and only three asterisks. This is because mentioning a variable in C is an implicit dereference. In this case, the dereference is used to pass its value into `printf`. Tcl makes all four dereferences explicit (thus, if you only had 3 `set` calls, you'd see `hello, i`). A single dereference is used so frequently that it is typically abbreviated with `$varname`, e.g.

```
puts "hello, [set [set [set $ipp]]]"
```

has `set` where C uses asterisks, and `$` for the last (default) dereference.

The hashtable for variable names is either global, for code evaluated in that scope, or local to a proc. You can still "import" references to variables in scopes that are "higher" in the call stack, with the `upvar` and `global` commands. (The latter being automatic in C if the names are unique. If there are identical names in C, the innermost scope wins).

Variable traces

One special feature of Tcl is that you can associate traces with variables (scalars, arrays, or array elements) that are evaluated optionally when the variable is read, written to, or unset.

Debugging is one obvious use for that. But there are more possibilities. For instance, you can introduce constants where any attempt to change their value raises an error:

```
proc const {name value} {
    uplevel 1 [list set $name $value]
    uplevel 1 [list trace var $name w {error constant ;#} ]
}

const x 11
incr x
```

```
can't set "x": constant
```

The trace callback gets three words appended: the name of the variable; the array key (if the variable is an array, else ""), and the mode:

- r - read
- w - write
- u - unset

If the trace is just a single command like above, and you don't want to handle these three, use a comment ";#" to shield them off.

Another possibility is tying local objects (or procs) with a variable - if the variable is unset, the object/proc is destroyed/renamed away.

8

0.2 Commands and Functions

0.2.1 Commands

Commands are basically divided into C-defined ones, procedures, and aliases (and, from Tcl 8.5 onwards, ensembles). You can rename any command with

```
rename oldname newname
```

To delete a command (make it no more reachable), use the empty string as new name:

```
rename oldname {}
```

Introspection: Get a list of all defined commands with

```
info commands
```

C-defined commands

These are implemented in C and registered to be available in the Tcl interpreter. They can come from the Tcl core, or a loaded shared library (DLL) - for instance Tk.

To get a list of built-in commands, subtract the result of *info procs* from that of *info commands*:

```
set builtins {}
set procs [info procs]
foreach cmd [info commands] {
    if {[lsearch -exact $procs $cmd] == -1} {lappend builtins $cmd}
}
```

The following C-defined commands are available in a fresh tclsh. For detailed documentation, see the respective man pages, e.g. at <http://www.tcl.tk/man/tcl8.5/TclCmd/> - I will characterize each only very briefly:

after

group of commands for timed events

after *msec ?script?*

waits, or executes the script after, some time

append *varName arg..*

appends the arguments to a string variable

array

group of commands for arrays

binary

group of commands for binary scanning and formatting

break

terminate current loop

case

deprecated, use **switch**

catch *script ?varName?*

catch possible error in *script*

cd *path*

change working directory

clock

group of commands dealing with date and time

close *handle*

closes a channel (file, socket, etc.)

concat *list..*

make one space-separated list of the arguments

continue

start next turn of current loop

encoding

group of commands dealing with character set encoding

eof *handle*

1 if channel is at end of file, else 0

error *message ?info? ?code?*

raise an error with the given message

eval *arg..*

evaluate the arguments as script

exec *file arg..*

execute a separate process

exit *?int?*

terminate this process, return status 0..127

expr *arg..*

arithmetic and logic engine, using C-like syntax and functions (variables referenced with \$name). In addition, from Tcl 8.4 there are *eq* and *ne* operators for string equal or not; from 8.5, also *in* and *ni* operators for list inclusion or not

`expr {"foo" in {foo bar grill}} == 1` The argument to `expr` should in most cases be {braced}. This prevents the Tcl parser from substituting variables in advance, while *expr* itself has to parse the value from the string. In a braced expression *expr* can parse variable references itself, and get their numeric value directly where possible. Much faster, usually. The only exception, where bracing should not be used, is if you want to substitute operators from variables:

```
foreach op {+ - * /} {puts [expr 1 $op 2]}
```

fblocked *handle*

returns 1 if the last input operation exhausted all available input, else 0

fconfigure *handle -option value...*

configure a channel, e.g. its encoding or line-end translation

fcopy *handle1 handle2*

copy data from handle1 to handle2

file

group of commands dealing with files

fileevent

group of commands dealing with events from channels (readable, writable) but not files

flush *handle*

make sure the channel's buffer is written out. Useful after *puts -newline*

for *initbody condition stepbody body*

loop, somehow similar to C's *for*

foreach *varlist list ?varlist list...? body*

loop over one or more lists, The *varlists* can be a single or multiple *varNames*. Example:

```
% foreach {x y} {1 0 1 2 0 2 0 0} {puts "x:$x, y:$y"}
x:1, y:0
x:1, y:2
x:0, y:2
x:0, y:0
```

format *fstring arg..*

put the arguments %-formatted into *fstring*, similar to C's *sprintf()*

gets *handle ?varName?*

read a line from *handle*. If variable is given, assigns the line to it and returns the number of characters read; else returns the line. Guaranteed to be safe against buffer overflows

glob *?-options? pattern..*

list of files matching the glob pattern (which can contain * and ? wildcards)

global *varName..*

declare the given variable(s) as global

history

list the last interactive commands

if *condition ?then? body1 ?elseif condition body2...? ??else? bodyN?*

conditional

incr *varName ?amount?*

increments the integer variable by given amount (defaults to 1). Use negative amount to decrement

info

group of commands for introspection

interp

group of commands for interpreters

join *list ?separator?*

Turn a list into a string, with separator between elements (defaults to " ")

lappend *varName arg..*

appends the arguments to the list variable. Can also be used to make sure a variable exists:

```
lappend x ;# corresponds to: if {[info exists x]} {set x ""}
```

lindex *list int..*

retrieve an element from the list by integer index(es)

linsert *list int arg..*

inserts the arguments at int position into list

list *?arg..?*

creates a list form the arguments

llength *list*

length of the list

load *filename ?name?*

loads a shared library (DLL)

lrange *list from to*

returns a sublist at integer indexes from-to

lreplace *list from to arg..*

replaces the sublist in list with the arguments

lsearch *?-options? list element*

searches the list for the element, returns its integer index, or -1 if not found. Can be used to select a subset of elements from a list (using the -all option)

lset *varName int.. value*

sets an existing element in the named list variable, indexed by integer(s), to the given value

lsort *?-options? list*

sorts the list

namespace

group of commands dealing with namespaces

open *name ?mode ?permissions??*

opens a file or pipe, returns the handle

package

group of commands dealing with packages

pid *?handle?*

returns the id of the current process. Can also return the list of pids for a pipeline given the pipeline channel

proc *name arglist body*

defines a procedure

puts *?-newline? ?channel? string*

outputs a line to the given channel (default stdout) To prevent errors from closed pipe (like *more* or *head*), use

```
proc puts! str {if [catch {puts $str}] exit}
```

pwd

returns the current working directory

read *handle ?int?*

reads int bytes from handle (all if int not given)

regexp *?-options? re string ?varName...?*

regular expression matching of re in string, possibly assigning parenthesized submatches to the given variables

regsub *?-options? re value substring ?varName?*

substitutes occurrences of the regular expression re in value with substring. If varName is given, assigns the new value to it, and returns the number of substitutions; else returns the new value

rename *cmdName1 cmdName2*

renames a command from cmdName1 to cmdName2, or deletes cmdName1 if cmdName2 is {}

return *?value?*

exits from the current proc or sourced script

scan *string format ?varName...?*

extracts values by %-format in string to the given variables. Similar to C's sscanf()

seek *channelId offset ?origin?*

moves pointer in file to the given position

set *varName ?value?*

sets variable to value if given, and returns the variable's value

socket *?-myaddr addr? ?-myport myport? ?-async? host port*

open the client side of a TCP connection as a channel

socket *-server command ?-myaddr addr? port*

open the server side of a TCP connection, register a handler callback command for client requests

source *filename*

evaluate the contents of the given file

split *list ?charset?*

splits a string into a list, using any of the characters in charset string as delimiters (defaults to " ")

string

group of commands dealing with strings

subst *?-options? string*

performs command, variable, and/or backslash substitutions in string

switch *?-options? ?-? value alternatives*

performs one of the alternatives if the value matches

tell *handle*

return the byte position inside a file

time *body ?int?*

runs the body for int times (default 1), returns how many microseconds per iteration were used

trace

group of commands to tie actions to variables or commands

unset *varName..*

delete the given variable(s)

update *?idletasks?*

services events

uplevel *?level? body*

evaluates the body up in the call stack

upvar *?level? varName localVarName...*

ties the given variables up in the call stack to the given local variables. Used for calling by reference, e.g. for arrays

variable *varName ?value ?varName value...??*

declare the variables as being non-local in a namespace

vwait *varName*

suspend execution until the given variable has changed. Starts event loop, if not active yet

while *condition body*

performs body as long as condition is not 0

Procedures

Procedures in Tcl cover what other languages call procedures, subroutines, or functions. They always return a result (even if it is the empty string ""), so to call them functions might be most appropriate. But for historical reasons, the Tcl command to create a function is called **proc** and thus people most often call them procedures.

```
proc name argumentlist body
```

Examples:

```
proc sum {a b} {return [expr {$a+$b}]}
```

The *return* is redundant, as the proc returns anyway when reaching its end, and returning its last result: `proc sum {a b} {expr {$a+$b}}`

The following variant is more flexible, as it takes any number of arguments (the special argument name *args* collects all remaining arguments into a list, which is the value of the parameter *args*):

```
proc sum args {
    set res 0
    foreach arg $args {set res [expr {$res + $arg}]}
    return $res
}
```

An elegant but less efficient alternative builds a string by *joining* the *args* with plus signs, and feeds that to *expr*:

```
proc sum args {expr [join $args +]}
```

If an argument in a proc definition is a list of two elements, the second is taken as default value if not given in the call ("Sir" in this example): `proc greet {time {person Sir}} {return "good $time, $person"}`

```
% greet morning John
good morning, John
% greet evening
good evening, Sir
```

Introspection: Get the names of all defined procedures with

```
info procs
```

There are also **info** subcommands to get the argument list, and possible default arguments, and body of a proc. The following example combines them to recreate the textual form of a proc, given its name (*corp* being *proc* in reverse):

```
proc corp name {
  set argl {}
  foreach arg [info args $name] {
    if [info default $name $arg def] {lappend arg $def}
    lappend argl $arg
  }
  list proc $name $argl [info body $name]
}
```

Using **rename**, you can overload any command, including the C-coded ones. First rename the original command to something else, then reimplement it with the same signature, where ultimately the original is called. Here is for instance an overloaded *proc* that reports if a procedure is defined more than once with same name:

```
rename proc _proc
_proc proc {name argl body} {
  if {[info procs $name] eq $name} {
    puts "proc $name redefined in [info script]"
  }
  _proc $name $argl $body
}
```

Named arguments: Arguments to commands are mostly by position. But it's very easy to add the behavior known from Python or Ada, that arguments can be named in function calls, which documents the code a bit better, and allows any order of arguments.

The idea (as found in Welch's book) is to use an array (here called "" - the "anonymous array") keyed by argument names. Initially, you can set some default values, and possibly override them with the args of the proc (which has to be paired, i.e. contain an even number of elements):

```
proc named {args defaults} {
  upvar 1 "" ""
  array set "" $defaults
  foreach {key value} $args {
    if {![info exists ($key)]} {
      set names [lsort [array names ""]]
      error "bad option '$key', should be one of: $names"
    }
    set ($key) $value
  }
}
```

Usage example:

```

proc replace {s args} {
  named $args {-from 0 -to end -with ""}
  string replace $s ${-from} ${-to} ${-with}
}

```

Testing:

```

% replace suchenwirth -from 4 -to 6 -with xx
suchxxirth
% replace suchenwirth -from 4 -to 6 -witha xx
bad option '-witha', should be one of: -from -to -with

```

Argument passing by name or value

Normally, arguments to commands are passed by value (as constants, or with \$ prefixed to a variable name). This securely prevents side-effects, as the command will only get a copy of the value, and not be able to change the variable.

However, sometimes just that is wanted. Imagine you want a custom command to set a variable to zero. In this case, at call time specify the name of the variable (without \$), and in the proc use **upvar** to link the name (in the scope "1 up", i.e. the caller's) to a local variable. I usually put a "_" before arguments that are variable names (e.g. `_var`), and *upvar* to the same name without "_" (e.g. `var`):

```

% proc zero _var {upvar 1 $_var var; set var 0}

```

```

% set try 42
42
% zero try
0
% set try
0

```

If you often use call by reference, you could indicate such arguments with a special pattern (e.g. `&arg`) and have the following code generate the necessary **upvars**: `proc use_refs {char &} {`

```

  foreach v [uplevel 1 {info locals}] {
    if [string match $char* $v] {
      uplevel 1 "upvar 1 \${$v} [string range $v 1 end]"
    }
  }
}

```

That's all. This command is preferably called first inside a proc, and upvars all arguments that begin with a specific character, the default being "&" - it runs code like

```
upvar 1 ${&foo} foo
```

in the caller's scope. Testing:

```
proc test_refs {a &b} {
  use_refs
  puts a=$a,b=$b
  set b new_value
}
% set bar 42
42
% test_refs foo bar
a=foo,b=42
```

So the values of a (by value) and b (by reference) are readable; and the side effect of changing b in the caller did also happen:

```
% set bar
new_value
```

Variable scope

Inside procedures, variables are by default local. They exist only in the proc, and are cleared up on *return*. However, you can tie local variables to others higher in the call stack (e.g. in the caller), up to the topmost global scope. Examples:

```
proc demo arg {
  global g
  set g 0 ;# will effect a lasting change in g
  set local 1 ;# will disappear soon
  set ::anotherGlobal 2 ;# another way to address a global variable
  upvar 1 $arg myArg ;# make myArg point at a variable 1-up
  set myArg 3 ;# changes that variable in the calling scope
}
```

Aliases

One can also define a command as an alias to a sequence of one or more words, which will be substituted for it before execution. (The funny {} arguments are names of the source and target interpreter, which typically is the current one, named by the empty string {} or ""). Examples:

```
interp alias {} strlen {} string length
interp alias {} cp {} file copy -force
```

Introspection: Get the names of all defined aliases with

```
interp aliases
```

0.2.2 Advanced concepts

Interpreters

Tcl being an interpreted (plus on-the-fly byte-compiled) language, an interpreter is of course a central kind of object. Every time Tcl is running, at least one interpreter is running, who takes scripts and evaluates them.

One can also create further "slave" interpreters to encapsulate data and processes, which again can have their "sub-slaves", etc., ultimately forming a tree hierarchy. Examples:

```
% interp create helper
helper
% helper eval {expr 7*6}
42
% interp delete helper
% helper eval {expr 1+2}
invalid command name "helper"
```

By deleting an interpreter, all its global (and namespaced) variables are freed too, so you can use this for modularisation and encapsulation, if needed.

In particular, **safe interpreters** have intentionally limited capabilities (for instance, access to the file system or the Web) so that possibly malicious code from over the Web cannot create major havoc.

Introspection: The following command lists the sub-interpreters ("slaves") of the current interpreter:

```
% interp slaves
```

Ensembles

Ensembles, (from Tcl 8.5 on), are commands that are composed out of sub-commands according to a standard pattern. Examples include Tcl's built-in **chan** and **clock** commands. Dispatching of subcommands, as well as informative error message for non-existing subcommands, is built-in. Subcommands are in a *dict* structure called "-map", with alternating name and action. Very simple example: namespace ensemble create -name foo -map \ {bar {puts Hello} grill {puts World}} creates a command *foo* that can be called like

```
% foo bar
Hello
% foo grill
```

```
World
% foo help
unknown or ambiguous subcommand "help": must be foo, or bar
```

Obviously, ensembles are also a good base for implementing object orientation, where the command is the name of the objects, and the map contains its methods.

Introspection: Serialize an ensemble's map with

```
namespace ensemble configure $name -map
```

Namespaces

Namespaces are containers for procedures, non-local variables, and other namespaces. They form a tree structure, with the root at the global namespace named "::". Their names are built with :: as separators too, so `::foo::bar` is a child of `::foo`, which is a child of `::` (similar to pathnames on Unix, where `/` is the separator as well as the root).

In a nutshell, a namespace is a separate area, or *scope*, where procedures and variables are visible and private to that scope.

To create a namespace, just *evaluate* some script (which may be empty) in it:

```
namespace eval ::foo {}
```

Now you can use it to define procedures or variables:

```
proc ::foo::test {} {puts Hello!}
set  ::foo::var 42
```

To get rid of a namespace (and clean up all its variables, procs, and child namespaces):

```
namespace delete ::foo
```

Introspection:

```
namespace children ::
info var namespace::*
info commands namespace::*
```

The following code gives an approximate size in bytes consumed by the variables and children of a Tcl namespace (of which `::`, the global namespace, is of particular interest - all the (grand)*children are also added). If you call this proc repeatedly, you can observe whether data are piling up:


```

proc namespace'size ns {
    set sum [expr wide(0)]
    foreach var [info vars ${ns}::*] {
        if {[info exists $var]} {
            upvar #0 $var v
            if {[array exists v]} {
                incr sum [string bytelength [array get v]]
            } else {
                incr sum [string bytelength $v]
            }
        }
    }
    foreach child [namespace children $ns] {
        incr sum [namespace'size $child]
    }
    set sum
}

```

Usage example:

```

% puts [namespace'size ::]
179914

```

Threads

Tcl users have traditionally been skeptical about threads (lightweight concurrent sub-processes) - the event loop model has proved pretty powerful, and simpler to debug. Originally from Tk, the event loop has moved into Tcl and serves

- fileevents (more on channels than real files)
- timed events
- UI events (mouse or keyboard actions by the user)

However, there is a growing tendency to enable threads in Tcl builds. The underlying model is that every thread runs in an interpreter of its own, so it is mostly encapsulated from the rest of the world. Communication between threads must be done with explicit methods.

0.2.3 Packages and extensions

Packages are Tcl's recommended way to modularize software, especially supportive libraries. The user most often uses the command

```

package require name ?version?

```

One can write packages in pure Tcl, or as wrappers for extensions which come with one or more compiled shared libraries (plus optionally one or more Tcl scripts). Popular extensions are:

- BWidget (adds useful widgets to Tk - more below)
- Expect (supports remote execution over networks)

- `Img` (adds support of additional image file formats to `Tk`)
- `snack` (sound input/output)
- `Snit` (OO extension, with support for "megawidgets" in `Tk`)
- `sqlite` (a tiny yet powerful SQL database)
- `tcllib` (a collection of pure-Tcl packages - see below)
- `TclOO` (the canonical object-orientation extension from 8.5)
- `tcltcc` (a built-in C compiler - see below)
- `TclX` (collection of system-related extensions, like signal handling)
- `tdom` (XML parser, SAX or DOM, with XPath query support)
- `Tk` (the cross-platform GUI toolkit, see below)
- `tkcon` (a vastly extended console)
- `XOTcl` (advanced dynamic OO extension)

A little example package

The following script creates the trivial but educational package `futil`, which in a namespace of the same name implements two procs for reading and writing complete text files, and the little introspection helper function, `futil::?`. The command to register the package (`package provide`) is executed only after all went well - this way, buggy source code, which raises an error during package require, will not be registered. (Other bugs you'd have to spot and fix for yourself...)

Common Tcl distribution practice has the good habit of profound testing, typically in a separate test directory. On the other hand, including a self-test in the same file with the code makes editing easier, so after the `package provide` comes a section only executed if this file is sourced as a top-level script, which exercises the commands defined in `futil`. Whether the string read should be equal to the string written is debatable - the present implementation appends `\n` to the string if it doesn't end in one, because some tools complain or misbehave if they don't see a final newline.

If the tests do not run into an error either, even the required construction of a package index is fired - assuming the simplified case that the directory contains only one package. Otherwise, you'd better remove these lines, and take care of index creation yourself.

A script that uses this package will only have to contain the two lines

```
lappend ::auto_path <directory of this file>
package require futil
```

You can even omit the first line, if you install (copy) the directory with the source and `pkgIndex.tcl` below `${tcl_install_directory}/lib`. }

```
namespace eval futil {
    set version 0.1
}
```

But now back to the single script that makes up the package (it would make sense to save it as `futil.tcl`). We provide a `read` and a `write` function in the `futil` namespace, plus a little

introspection function `?` that returns the names of available functions:

```

proc futil::read {filename} {
    set fp [open $filename]
    set string [::read $fp] ;# prevent name conflict with itself
    close $fp
    return $string
}
proc futil::write {filename string} {
    set fp [open $filename w]
    if {[string index $string end!="\n"]} {append string \n}
    puts -nonewline $fp $string
    close $fp
}
proc futil::? {} {lsort [info procs ::futil::*]}
# If execution comes this far, we have succeeded ;-)
package provide futil $futil::version

```

```

# Self-test code if {[info ex argv0] && [file tail [info script]] == [file tail $argv0]} { puts
"package futil contains [futil::?]" set teststring { This is a teststring in several lines...} puts
teststring:$teststring futil::write test.tmp $teststring set string2 [futil::read test.tmp] puts
string2:$string2 puts "strings are [expr {$teststring==$string2? {}:{not}}] equal"

```

```

file delete test.tmp ;# don't leave traces of testing

```

```

# Simple index generator, if the directory contains only this package
pkg_mkIndex -verbose [file dirn [info scr]] [file tail [info scr]]
}

```

Tcllib

Tcllib is a collection of packages in pure Tcl. It can be obtained from sourceForge, but is also part of ActiveTcl. The following list of contained packages may not be complete, as Tcllib is steadily growing...

- aes - Advanced Encryption Standard.
- asn - asn.1 BER encoder/decoder
- http/autopproxy - code to automate the use of HTTP proxy servers
- base64 - Base64 encoding and decoding of strings and files.
- bee - BitTorrent serialization encoder/decoder.
- bibtex - Neil Madden's parser for bibtex files. Not fully complete yet, therefore not set for installation.
- calendar - Calendar operations (see also tcllib calendar module).
- cmdline - Various form of command line and option processing.
- comm - Socket based interprocess communication. Emulates the form of Tk's send command.
- control - procedures for tcl flow structures such as assert, do/until, do/while, no-op
- counter - procedures for counters and histograms
- crc - Computation of various CRC checksums for strings and files.
- csv - manipulate comma separated value data

- des - Data Encryption Standard. `::DES::des` (not yet installed)
- dns - interact with the Domain Name Service. `dns::address`, `dns::cleanup`, `dns::cname`, `dns::configure`, `dns::name`, `dns::reset`, `dns::resolve`, `dns::status`, `dns::wait`,
- doctools - System for writing manpages/documentation in a simple, yet powerful format.
- exif - `exif::analyze` `exif::fieldnames`
- fileutil - Utilities for operating on files, emulating various unix command line applications (`cat`, `find`, `file(type)`, `touch`, ...).
- ftp - Client side implementation of FTP (File Transfer Protocol). In dire need of a rewrite.
- ftpd - Server side implementation of FTP
- grammar_fa - Operations on finite automatons.
- html - generate HTML from a Tcl script. `html::author`, `html::author`, `html::bodyTag`, `html::cell`, `html::checkbox`, `html::checkSet`, `html::checkValue`, `html::closeTag`, `html::default`, `html::description`, `html::description`, `html::end`, `html::eval`, `html::extractParam`, `html::font`, `html::for`, `html::foreach`, `html::formValue`, `html::getFormInfo`, `html::getTitle`, `html::h`, `html::h1`, `html::h2`, `html::h3`, `html::h4`, `html::h5`, `html::h6`, `html::hdrRow`, `html::head`, `html::head`, `html::headTag`, `html::if`, `html::init`, `html::init`, `html::keywords`, `html::keywords`, `html::mailto`, `html::meta`, `html::meta`, `html::minorList`, `html::minorMenu`, `html::openTag`, `html::paramRow`, `html::passwordInput`, `html::passwordInputRow`, `html::radioSet`, `html::radioValue`, `html::refresh`, `html::refresh`, `html::row`, `html::select`, `html::selectPlain`, `html::set`, `html::submit`, `html::tableFromArray`, `html::tableFromList`, `html::tagParam`, `html::textarea`, `html::textInput`, `html::textInputRow`, `html::title`, `html::title`, `html::urlParent`, `html::varEmpty`, `html::while`,
- htmdoc - This is not a true module but the place where tcllib 1.3 installed the tcllib documentation in HTML format.
- htmlparse - procedures to permit limited manipulation of strings containing HTML. `::htmlparse::parse`, `::htmlparse::debugCallback`, `::htmlparse::mapEscapes`, `::htmlparse::2tree`, `::htmlparse::removeVisualFluff`, `::htmlparse::removeFormDefs`,
- ident - RFC 1413 ident client protocol implementation
- imap4 - currently undocumented code for interacting with an IMAP server
- inifile - code to manipulate an initialization file. `::ini::open`, `::ini::close`, `::ini::commit`, `::ini::sections`, `::ini::keys`, `::ini::value`
- dns/ip - Manipulation of IP addresses. `::ip::version`, `::ip::is`, `::ip::normalize`, `::ip::equal`, `::ip::prefix`
- irc - Internet Relay Chat procedures. `irc::config`, `irc::connection`,
- javascript - generate Javascript for including in HTML pages. `javascript::BeginJS`, `javascript::EndJS`, `javascript::MakeMultiSel`, `javascript::MakeClickProc`, `javascript::makeSelectorWidget`, `javascript::makeSubmitButton`, `javascript::makeProtectedSubmitButton`, `javascript::makeMasterButton`, `javascript::makeParentCheckbox`, `javascript::makeChildCheckbox`
- jpeg - edit comment blocks, get image dimensions and information, read exif data of images in the JPG format
- ldap - Client side implementation of LDAP (Lightweight Directory Access Protocol).
- log - general procedures for adding log entries to files `::log::levels`, `::log::logMsg`, `::log::lv2longform`, `::log::lv2color`, `::log::lv2priority`,
- logger - `::logger::walk`, `::logger::services`, `::logger::enable`, `::logger::disable` (part of the log module)

- math - general mathematical procedures. `::math::calculus`, `::math::combinatorics`, `::math::cov`, `::math::fibonacci`, `::math::integrate`, `::math::interpolate`, `::math::max`, `::math::mean`, `::math::min`, `::math::optimize`, `::math::product`, `::math::random`, `::math::sigma`, `::math::statistics`, `::math::stats`, `::math::sum`
- md4 - `::md4::md4`, `::md4::hmac`, `::md4::MD4Init`, `::md4::MD4Update`, `::md4::MD4Final`
- md5 - [fill in the description of this module] `::md5::md5`, `::md5::hmac`, `::md5::test`, `::md5::time`, `::md5::<<<`
- md5crypt - `::md5crypt::md5crypt`, `::md5crypt::aprcrypt`
- mime - `::mime::initialize`, `::mime::parsepart`, `::mime::finalize`, `::smtp::sendmessage`
- multiplexer - [fill in the external interfaces]
- ncgi - procedures for use in a CGI application. `::ncgi::reset`, `::ncgi::urlStub`, `::ncgi::urlStub`
- nntp - routines for interacting with a usenet news server. `::nntp::nntp`, `::nntp::NntpProc`, `::nntp::NntpProc`, `::nntp::okprint`, `::nntp::message`,
- ntp - network time protocol procedure `::ntp::time`
- png - edit comment blocks, get image dimensions and information for Portable Network Graphics format.
- pop3 - Post Office Protocol functions for reading mail from a pop3 server. `::pop3::open`, `::pop3::close`, `::pop3::status`,
- pop3d - Post Office Protocol Server. `pop3d::new`
- profiler - `::profiler::tZero`, `::profiler::tMark`, `::profiler::stats`, `::profiler::Handler`, `::profiler::profProc`, `::profiler::init`
- rc4 - stream encryption. `::rc4::rc4`
- report - format text in various report styles. `::report::report` , `::report::defstyle`, `::report::rmstyle`,
- sha1 - `::sha1::sha1`, `::sha1::hmac`
- smtpd - `::smtpd::start`, `::smtpd::stop`, `::smtpd::configure`, `::smtpd::cget`
- snit - Snit's Not Incr Tcl - OO package. Delegation based. `::snit::type`, `::snit::widget`, `::snit::widgetadaptor`
- soundex::knuth - string matching based on theoretical sound of the letters
- stoop - OO package. `stoop::class`, `stoop::virtual`, `stoop::new`, `stoop::delete`, `stoop::classof`
- struct1 - Version 1 of struct (see below), provided for backward compatibility.
`struct::list`, `::struct::graph`, `::struct::matrix`, `::struct::queue`, `::struct::stack`, `::struct::Tree`, `::struct::record`, `::struct::skiplist`, `::struct::prioqueue`, `new: ::struct::sets`
- tar - untar, list, and stat files in tarballs and create new tarballs
- textutil - Utilities for working with larger bodies of texts. `textutil::expand` - the core for the expand macro processor.
- tie - Persistence for Tcl arrays.
- treeql - Tree Query Language, inspired by COST.
- uri - Handling of uri/urls (splitting, joining, ...)
- uuid - Creation of unique identifiers.

TclOO

TclOO is a loadable package to provide a foundation for object orientation, designed so that specific OO flavors like Itcl, Snit, or XOTcl can build on it. But it's a usable OO system in

itself, offering classes, multiple inheritance, mixins and filters. Here is some example code to give you an impression:

```
#!/usr/bin/env tclsh85 package require TclOO namespace import oo::* class create
Account { constructor { {ownerName undisclosed}} {
```

```
    my variable total overdrawLimit owner
    set total 0
    set overdrawLimit 10
    set owner $ownerName
}
method deposit amount {
    my variable total
    set total [expr {$total + $amount}]
}
method withdraw amount {
    my variable {*}[info object vars [self]] ;# "auto-import" all variables
    if {($amount - $total) > $overdrawLimit} {
        error "Can't overdraw - total: $total, limit: $overdrawLimit"
    }
    set total [expr {$total - $amount}]
}
method transfer {amount targetAccount} {
    my variable total
    my withdraw $amount
    $targetAccount deposit $amount
    set total
}
destructor {
    my variable total
    if {$total} {puts "remaining $total will be given to charity"}
}
}
```

tcltcc

Tcltcc is a loadable package that wraps the Tiny C compiler (tcc) for use with Tcl. It can be used to

- compile C code directly to memory
- produce dynamic loadable libraries (DLLs) or executable files.

Convenience functions generate wrapper code, so that the user needs only write the really substantial C code.

Examples:

Wrap a C function into a Tcl command "on the fly" (here shown in an interactive session):

```
% package require tcc
0.2
% namespace import tcc::*
% cproc sigmsg {int i} char* {return Tcl_SignalMsg(i);}
% sigmsg 4
illegal instruction
```

Produce a DLL with a fast implementation of Fibonacci numbers:

```
% set d [tcc::dll]
% $d ccode {
    static int fib(int n) {return n <= 2? 1 : fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);}
}
% $d cproc fiboy {int n} int {return fib(n);}
% $d write -name fiboy
% load fiboy[info sharedlibextension]
% fiboy 20
6765
```

Produce a tclsh with an extra *square* command:

```
% set code [tcc::wrapCmd square {double x} double x_square {return x*x;}]
% append code {
    int AppInit(Tcl_Interp *interp) {
        int rc;
        rc = Tcl_CreateObjCommand(interp,"square",x_square,NULL,NULL);
        return Tcl_Init(interp);
    }
    int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
        Tcl_Main(argc, argv, AppInit);
        return 0;
    }
}
% tcc $::tcc::dir exe t
% t add_file $::tcc::dir/c/crt1.c
% t add_library tcl8.5
% t compile $code
% t output_file mytclsh.exe
% exec mytclsh.exe {<<puts [square 5]}
25.0
```

Tcltcc is open source, LGPL licensed, available at <http://code.google.com/p/tcltcc/>. The full functionality is at the current early stage (October 2007) only available on Windows 95/XP platforms, but in-memory compilation works on Linux too.

tDOM

tDOM is a popular extension for XML/HTML processing, allowing both SAX-style "on-the-fly" parsing and the DOM approach of representing a whole XML element in memory.

Here is an example of a SAX-style application. The **expat** parser that comes with tDOM is instrumented with callbacks for element start, character data, and processing instructions. Elements, attributes, characters and processing instructions are counted, plus a tally for each element type is done.

```
#!/usr/bin/env tclsh package require tdom #--- Callbacks for certain parser events
proc el {name attlist} { global g incr ::nEl incr ::nAtt [llength $attlist] inc g($name) }
proc ch data { incr ::nChar [string length $data] }
proc pi {target data} { incr ::nPi }
proc inc {varName {increment 1}} {
```

```

upvar 1 $varName var
if {[info exists var]} {set var 0}
incr var $increment
}
#-- "main" loop
if ![length $argv] {puts "usage: $argv0 file..."}
foreach file $argv {
    foreach i {nEl nAtt nChar nPi} {set $i 0} ;# reset counters
    array unset g
    set p [expat -elementstartcommand el \
              -characterdatacommand      ch \
              -processinginstructioncommand pi ]
    if [catch {$p parsefile $file} res] {
        puts "error:$res"
    } else {
        puts "$file:\n$nEl elements, $nAtt attributes, $nChar characters,\
              $nPi processing instructions"
        foreach name [lsort [array names g]] {
            puts [format %-20s%7d $name $g($name)]
        }
    }
    $p free
}
}

```

9

0.3 expr: the arithmetic & logical unit

0.3.1 Overview

Arithmetic and logical operations (plus some string comparisons) are in Tcl concentrated in the **expr** command. It takes one or more arguments, evaluates them as an expression, and returns the result. The language of the **expr** command (also used in condition arguments of the **if**, **for**, **while** commands) is basically equivalent to C's expressions, with infix operators and functions. Unlike C, references to variables have to be done with *\$var*. Examples:

```

set a [expr {($b + sin($c))/2.}]
if {$a > $b && $b > $c} {puts "ordered"}
for {set i 10} {$i >= 0} {incr i -1} {puts $i...} ;# countdown

```

The difference between Tcl syntax and *expr* syntax can be contrasted like this:

```

[f $x $y] ;# Tcl: embedded command
f($x,$y) ;# expr: function call, comma between arguments

```

In another contrast to Tcl syntax, whitespace between "words" is optional (but still recommended for better readability :) And string constants must always be quoted (or

braced if you wish):

```
if {$keyword eq "foo"} ...
```

Then again, Tcl commands can always be embedded into expressions, in square brackets as usual: `proc max {x y} {expr {$x>$y? $x: $y}}`

```
expr {[max $a $b] + [max $c $d]}
```

In expressions with numbers of mixed types, integers are coerced to doubles:

```
% expr 1+2.  
3.0
```

It is important to know that division of two integers is done as integer division:

```
% expr 1/2  
0
```

You get the (probably expected) floating-point division if at least one operand is *double*:

```
% expr 1/2.  
0.5
```

If you want to evaluate a string input by the user, but always use floating-point division, just transform it, before the call to `expr`, by replacing `"/"` with `"*1./"` (multiply with floating-point 1. before every division):

```
expr [string map {/ *1./} $input]
```

0.3.2 Brace your expressions

In most cases it is safer and more efficient to pass a single braced argument to `expr`. Exceptions are:

- no variables or embedded commands to substitute
- operators or whole expressions to substitute

The reason is that the Tcl parser parses unbraced expressions, while `expr` parses that result again. This may result in success for malicious code exploits:

```
% set e {[file delete -force *]}  
% expr $e ;# will delete all files and directories  
% expr {$e} ;# will just return the string value of e
```

That braced expressions evaluate much faster than unbraced ones, can be easily tested: `% proc unbraced x {expr $x*$x} % proc braced x {expr {$x*$x}}`

```
% time {unbraced 42} 1000
197 microseconds per iteration
% time {braced 42} 1000
34 microseconds per iteration
```

The precision of the string representation of floating-point numbers is also controlled by the `tcl_precision` variable. The following example returns nonzero because the second term was clipped to 12 digits in making the string representation:

```
% expr 1./3-[expr 1./3]
3.33288951992e-013
```

while this braced expression works more like expected:

```
% expr {1./3-[expr 1./3]}
0.0
```

0.3.3 Operators

Arithmetic, bitwise and logical operators are like in C, as is the conditional operator found in other languages (notably C):

- `c?a:b` -- if `c` is true, evaluate `a`, else `b`

The conditional operator can be used for compact functional code (note that the following example requires Tcl 8.5 so that `fac()` can be called inside its own definition): `% proc tcl::mathfunc::fac x {expr {$x<2? 1 : $x*fac($x-1)}}`

```
% expr fac(5)
120
```

Arithmetic operators

The arithmetic operators are also like those found in C:

- `+` addition
- `-` (binary: subtraction. unary: change sign)
- `*` multiplication
- `/` (integer division if both operands are integer)
- `%` (modulo, only on integers)
- `**` power (available from Tcl 8.5)

Bitwise operators

The following operators work on integers only:

- & (AND)
- | (OR)
- ^ (XOR)
- ~ (NOT)
- << shift left
- >> shift right

Logical operators

The following operators take integers (where 0 is considered false, everything else true) and return a truth value, 0 or 1:

- && (and)
- || (or)
- ! (not - unary)

Comparison operators

If operands on both side are numeric, these operators compare them as numbers. Otherwise, string comparison is done. They return a truth value, 0 (false) or 1 (true):

- == equal
- != not equal
- > greater than
- >= greater or equal than
- < less than
- <= less or equal than

As truth values are integers, you can use them as such for further computing, as the sign function demonstrates: `proc sgn x {expr {($x>0) - ($x<0)}}`

```
% sgn 42
1
% sgn -42
-1
% sgn 0
0
```

String operators

The following operators work on the string representation of their operands:

- eq string-equal
- ne not string-equal

Examples how "equal" and "string equal" differ:

```
% expr {1 == 1.0}
1
% expr {1 eq 1.0}
0
```

List operators

From Tcl 8.5, the following operators are also available:

- a **in** b - 1 if a is a member of list b, else 0
- a **ni** b - 1 if a is not a member of list b, else 0

Before 8.5, it's easy to write an equivalent function proc in `{list el} {expr {[lsearch -exact $list $el]>=0}}` Usage example:

```
if [in $keys $key] ...
```

which you can rewrite, once 8.5 is available wherever your work is to run, with

```
if {$key in $keys} ...
```

0.3.4 Functions

The following functions are built-in:

- `abs(x)` - absolute value
- `acos(x)` - arc cosine. `acos(-1) = 3.14159265359` (Pi)
- `asin(x)` - arc sine
- `atan(x)` - arc tangent
- `atan2(y,x)`
- `ceil(x)` - next-highest integral value
- `cos(x)` - cosine
- `cosh(x)` - hyperbolic cosine
- `double(x)` - convert to floating-point number
- `exp(x)` - e to the x-th power. `exp(1) = 2.71828182846` (Euler number, e)
- `floor(x)` - next-lower integral value
- `fmod(x,y)` - floating-point modulo
- `hypot(y,x)` - hypotenuse (`sqrt($y*$y+$x*$x)`), but at higher precision)
- `int(x)` - convert to integer (32-bit)
- `log(x)` - logarithm to base e
- `log10(x)` - logarithm to base 10
- `pow(x,y)` - x to the y-th power
- `rand()` - random number > 0.0 and < 1.0
- `round(x)` - round a number to nearest integral value

- `sin(x)` - sine
- `sinh(x)` - hyperbolic sine
- `sqrt(x)` - square root
- `srand(x)` - initialize random number generation with seed `x`
- `tan(x)` - tangent
- `tanh(x)` - hyperbolic tangent
- `wide(x)` - convert to wide (64-bit) integer

Find out which functions are available with *info functions*:

```
% info functions
round wide sqrt sin double log10 atan hypot rand abs acos atan2 srand
sinh floor log int tanh tan asin ceil cos cosh exp pow fmod
```

0.3.5 Exporting expr functionalities

If you don't want to write `expr {$x+5}`¹⁰ every time you need a little calculation, you can easily export operators as Tcl commands:

```
foreach op {+ - * / %} {proc $op {a b} "expr {\$a $op \$b}"}
```

After that, you can call these operators like in LISP:

```
% + 6 7
13
% * 6 7
42
```

Of course, one can refine this by allowing variable arguments at least for `+` and `*`, or the single-argument case for `-`: `proc - {a {b ""}} {expr {$b eq ""? -$a: $a-$b}}`

Similarly, expr functions can be exposed:

```
foreach f {sin cos tan sqrt} {proc $f x "expr {$f($x)}"}
```

In Tcl 8.5, the operators can be called as commands in the `::tcl::mathop` namespace:

```
% tcl::mathop::+ 6 7
13
```

You can import them into the current namespace, for shorthand math commands:

¹⁰ <http://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/expr%20%7B%24x%2B5%7D>

```
% namespace import ::tcl::mathop::*
% + 3 4 ;# way shorter than [expr {3 + 4}]
7
% * 6 7
42
```

0.3.6 User-defined functions

From Tcl 8.5, you can provide procs in the `::tcl::mathfunc` namespace, which can then be used inside *expr* expressions: `% proc tcl::mathfunc::fac x {expr {$x < 2? 1: $x * fac($x-1)}}`

```
% expr fac(100)
933262154439441526816992388562667004907159682643816214685929638952175999932299
156089414639761565182862536979208272237582511852109168640000000000000000000000
```

This is especially useful for recursive functions, or functions whose arguments need some *expr* calculations:

```
% proc ::tcl::mathfunc::fib n {expr {$n<2? 1: fib($n-2)+fib($n-1)}}
```

```
% expr fib(6)
13
```

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0.4 Interaction and debugging

Tcl itself is quite a good teacher. Don't be afraid to do something wrong - it will most often deliver a helpful error message. When `tclsh` is called with no arguments, it starts in an interactive mode and displays a `"%"` prompt. The user types something in and sees what comes out: either the result or an error message.

Trying isolated test cases interactively, and pasting the command into the editor when satisfied, can greatly reduce debugging time (there is no need to restart the application after every little change - just make sure it's the right one, before restarting.)

0.4.1 A quick tour

Here's a commented session transcript:

```
% hello
invalid command name "hello"
```

11 <http://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Category%3A>

OK, so we're supposed to type in a command. Although it doesn't look so, here's one:

```
% hi
    1 hello
    2 hi
```

Interactive tclsh tries to guess what we mean, and "hi" is the unambiguous prefix of the "history" command, whose results we see here. Another command worth remembering is "info":

```
% info
wrong # args: should be "info option ?arg arg ...?"
```

The error message tells us there should be at least one option, and optionally more arguments.

```
% info option
bad option "option": must be args, body, cmdcount, commands, complete, default,
exists, functions, globals, hostname, level, library, loaded, locals,
nameofexecutable,
patchlevel, procs, script, sharedlibextension, tclversion, or vars
```

Another helpful error: "option" is not an option, but the valid ones are listed. To get information about commands, it makes sense to type the following:

```
% info commands
tell socket subst lremove open eof tkcon_tcl_gets pwd glob list exec pid echo
dir auto_load_index time unknown eval lrange tcl_unknown fblocked lsearch gets
auto_import case lappend proc break dump variable llength tkcon auto_execok
return
pkg_mkIndex linsert error bgerror catch clock info split thread_load loadvfs
array
if idebug fconfigure concat join lreplace source fcopy global switch which
auto_qualify
update tclPkgUnknown close clear cd for auto_load file append format tkcon_puts
alias
what read package set unalias pkg_compareExtension binary namespace scan edit
trace seek
while flush after more vwait uplevel continue foreach lset rename tkcon_gets
fileevent
regexp tkcon_tcl_puts observe_var tclPkgSetup upvar unset encoding expr load
regsub history
exit interp puts incr lindex lsort tclLog observe ls less string
```

Oh my, quite many... How many?

```
% llength [info commands]
115
```

Now for a more practical task - let's let Tcl compute the value of Pi.

```
% expr acos(-1)
3.14159265359
```

Hm.. can we have that with more precision?

```
% set tcl_precision 17
17
% expr acos(-1)
3.1415926535897931
```

Back to the first try, where "hello" was an invalid command. Let's just create a valid one:

```
% proc hello {} {puts Hi!}
```

Silently acknowledged. Now testing:

```
% hello
Hi!
```

0.4.2 Errors are exceptions

What in Tcl is called **error** is in fact more like an *exception* in other languages - you can deliberately raise an error, and also **catch** errors. Examples:

```
if {$username eq ""} {error "please specify a user name"}
```

```
if [catch {open $filename w} fp] {
    error "$filename is not writable"
}
```

One reason for errors can be an undefined command name. One can use this playfully, together with *catch*, as in the following example of a multi-loop *break*, that terminates the two nested loops when a matrix element is empty:

```
if [catch {
    foreach row $matrix {
        foreach col $row {
            if {$col eq ""} throw
        }
    }
}] {puts "empty matrix element found"}
```

The *throw* command does not exist in normal Tcl, so it throws an error, which is caught by the *catch* around the outer loop.

The `errorInfo` variable

This global variable provided by Tcl contains the last error message and the traceback of the last error. Silly example:

```
% proc foo {} {bar x}
% proc bar {input} {grill$input}
% foo
invalid command name "grillx"
```

```
% set errorInfo
invalid command name "grillx"
  while executing
    "grill$input"
    (procedure "bar" line 1)
    invoked from within
    "bar x"
    (procedure "foo" line 1)
    invoked from within
    "foo"
```

If no error has occurred yet, *errorInfo* will contain the empty string.

The `errorCode` variable

In addition, there is the *errorCode* variable that returns a list of up to three elements:

- category (POSIX, ARITH, ...)
- abbreviated code for the last error
- human-readable error text

Examples:

```
% open not_existing
couldn't open "not_existing": no such file or directory
% set errorCode
POSIX ENOENT {no such file or directory}
```

```
% expr 1/0
divide by zero
% set errorCode
ARITH DIVZERO {divide by zero}
```

```
% foo
invalid command name "foo"
% set errorCode
NONE
```

0.4.3 Tracing procedure calls

For a quick overview how some procedures are called, and when, and what do they return, and when, the *trace execution* is a valuable tool. Let's take the following factorial function as example: `proc fac x {expr {$x<2? 1 : $x * [fac [incr x -1]]}}` We need to supply a handler that will be called with different numbers of arguments (two on enter, four on leave). Here's a very simple one:

```
proc tracer args {puts $args}
```

Now we instruct the interpreter to trace *enter* and *leave* of *fac*:

```
trace add execution fac {enter leave} tracer
```

Let's test it with the factorial of 7:

```
fac 7
```

which gives, on stdout:

```
{fac 7} enter
{fac 6} enter
{fac 5} enter
{fac 4} enter
{fac 3} enter
{fac 2} enter
{fac 1} enter
{fac 1} 0 1 leave
{fac 2} 0 2 leave
{fac 3} 0 6 leave
{fac 4} 0 24 leave
{fac 5} 0 120 leave
{fac 6} 0 720 leave
{fac 7} 0 5040 leave
```

So we can see how recursion goes down to 1, then returns in backward order, stepwise building up the final result. The 0 that comes as second word in "leave" lines is the return status, 0 being `TCL_OK`.

0.4.4 Stepping through a procedure

To find out how exactly a proc works (and what goes wrong where), you can also register commands to be called before and after a command inside a procedure is called (going down transitively to all called procs). You can use the following *step* and *interact* procedures for this:

```
proc step {name {yesno 1}} {
```

```

set mode [expr {$yesno? "add" : "remove"}]
trace $mode execution $name {enterstep leavestep} interact
}

```

```

proc interact args {
  if {[lindex $args end] eq "leavestep"} {
    puts ==>[lindex $args 2]
    return
  }
  puts -nonewline "$args --"
  while 1 {
    puts -nonewline "> "
    flush stdout
    gets stdin cmd
    if {$cmd eq "c" || $cmd eq ""} break
    catch {uplevel 1 $cmd} res
    if {[string length $res]} {puts $res}
  }
}

```

```

#-----Test case, a simple string reverter:
proc sreverse str {
  set res ""
  for {set i [string length $str]} {$i > 0} {} {
    append res [string index $str [incr i -1]]
  }
  set res
}

```

```

#-- Turn on stepping for sreverse12:
step sreverse
sreverse hello

```

```

#-- Turn off stepping (you can also type this command from inside interact):
step sreverse 0
puts [sreverse Goodbye]

```

The above code gives the following transcript when sourced into a tclsh:

```

{set res {}} enterstep --> ==> {for {set i [string length $str]} {$i > 0} {} { append res
[string index $str [incr i -1]] }} enterstep -->

```

```

{string length hello} enterstep -->
==>5
{set i 5} enterstep -->
==>5
{incr i -1} enterstep -->
==>4
{string index hello 4} enterstep -->
==>o
{append res o} enterstep -->
==>o
{incr i -1} enterstep -->
==>3
{string index hello 3} enterstep -->
==>1
{append res l} enterstep -->
==>ol
{incr i -1} enterstep -->

```

```
==>2
{string index hello 2} enterstep -->
==>1
{append res l} enterstep -->
==>oll
{incr i -1} enterstep -->
==>1
{string index hello 1} enterstep -->
==>e
{append res e} enterstep -->
==>olle
{incr i -1} enterstep -->
==>0
{string index hello 0} enterstep -->
==>h
{append res h} enterstep -->
==>olleh
==>
{set res} enterstep -->
==>olleh
eybdooG
```

0.4.5 Debugging

The simplest way to inspect why something goes wrong is inserting a *puts* command before the place where it happens. Say if you want to see the values of variables *x* and *y*, just insert

```
puts x:$x,y:$y
```

(if the string argument contains no spaces, it needs not be quoted). The output will go to *stdout* - the console from where you started the script. On Windows or Mac, you might need to add the command

```
console show
```

to get the substitute console Tcl creates for you, when no real one is present.

If at some time you want to see details of what your program does, and at others not, you can define and redefine a *dputs* command that either calls *puts* or does nothing: `proc d+ {} {proc dputs args {puts $args}} proc d- {} {proc dputs args {}}`

```
d+ ;# initially, tracing on... turn off with d-
```

For more debugging comfort, add the *proc interact* from above to your code, and put a call to *interact* before the place where the error happens. Some useful things to do at such a debugging prompt:

```
info level 0    ;# shows how the current proc was called
info level      ;# shows how deep you are in the call stack
uplevel 1 ...   ;# execute the ... command one level up, i.e. in the caller of
```

```

the current proc
set ::errorInfo ;# display the last error message in detail

```

0.4.6 Assertions

Checking data for certain conditions is a frequent operation in coding. Absolutely intolerable conditions can just throw an error:

```

if {$temperature > 100} {error "ouch... too hot!"}

```

Where the error occurred is evident from `::errorInfo`, which will look a bit clearer (no mention of the error command) if you code

```

if {$temperature > 100} {return -code error "ouch... too hot!"}

```

If you don't need hand-crafted error messages, you can factor such checks out to an `assert` command:

```

proc assert condition {
  set s "${condition}"
  if {[uplevel 1 expr $s]} {
    return -code error "assertion failed: $condition"
  }
}

```

Use cases look like this:

```

assert {$temperature <= 100}

```

Note that the condition is reverted - as "assert" means roughly "take for granted", the positive case is specified, and the error is raised if it is not satisfied.

Tests for internal conditions (that do not depend on external data) can be used during development, and when the coder is sure they are bullet-proof to always succeed, (s)he can turn them off centrally in one place by defining

```

proc assert args {}

```

This way, assertions are compiled to no bytecode at all, and can remain in the source code as a kind of documentation.

If assertions are tested, it only happens at the position where they stand in the code. Using a trace, it is also possible to specify a condition once, and have it tested whenever a variable's value changes:

```
proc assertt {varName condition} {
    uplevel 1 [list trace var $varName w "assert $condition ;#"]
}
```

The ";#" at the end of the trace causes the additional arguments name element op, that are appended to the command prefix when a trace fires, to be ignored as a comment.

Testing:

```
% assertt list {[llength $list]<10}
% set list {1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8}
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
% lappend list 9 10
can't set "list": assertion failed: 10<10
```

The error message isn't as clear as could be, because the [llength \$list] is already substituted in it. But I couldn't find an easy solution to that quirk in this breakfast fun project - backslashing the \$condition in the assertt code sure didn't help. Better ideas welcome.

To make the assertion condition more readable, we could quote the condition one more time, i.e

```
% assertt list
UNKNOWN TEMPLATE [llength list] < 10

% set list {1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8}
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
% lappend list 9 10
can't set "list": assertion failed: [llength $list]<10
%
```

In this case, when trace trigger fires, the argument for assert is {[llength \$list]<10}.

In any case, these few lines of code give us a kind of bounds checking - the size of Tcl's data structures is in principle only bounded by the available virtual memory, but run-away loops may be harder to debug, compared to a few assertt calls for suspicious variables:

```
assertt aString {[string length $aString]<1024}
```

OR

```
assertt anArray {[array size anArray] < 1024*1024}
```

Tcllib has a control::assert with more bells and whistles.

0.4.7 A tiny testing framework

Bugs happen. The earlier found, the easier for the coder, so the golden rule "Test early. Test often" should really be applied.

One easy way is adding self-tests to a file of Tcl code. When the file is loaded as part of a library, just the proc definitions are executed. If however you feed this file directly to tclsh, that fact is detected, and the "e.g." calls are executed. If the result is not the one expected, this is reported on stdout; and in the end, you even get a little statistics.

Here's a file that implements and demonstrates "e.g.":

```
# PROLOG -- self-test: if this file is sourced at top level: if {[info exists argv0]&&[file tail
[info script]] eq [file tail $argv0]} { set Ntest 0; set Nfail 0 proc e.g. {cmd -> expected}
{ incr ::Ntest catch {uplevel 1 $cmd} res if {$res ne $expected} { puts "$cmd -> $res,
expected $expected" incr ::Nfail } } } else {proc e.g. args {}} ;# does nothing, compiles to
nothing
```

```
## Your code goes here, with e.g. tests following proc sum {a b} {expr {$a+$b}}
```

```
e.g. {sum 3 4} -> 7
```

```
proc mul {a b} {expr {$a*$b}}
```

```
e.g. {mul 7 6} -> 42
```

```
# testing a deliberate error (this way, it passes):
e.g. {expr 1/0} -> "divide by zero"
```

```
## EPILOG -- show statistics:
e.g. {puts "[info script] : tested $::Ntest, failed $::Nfail"} -> ""
```

0.4.8 Guarded proc

In more complex Tcl software, it may happen that a procedure is defined twice with different body and/or args, causing hard-to-track errors. The Tcl command *proc* itself doesn't complain if it is called with an existing name. Here is one way to add this functionality. Early in your code, you overload the proc command like this:

```
rename proc _proc
_proc proc {name args body} {
    set ns [uplevel namespace current]
    if {[info commands $name]!="" || [info commands ${ns}::$name]!=""} {
        puts stderr "warning: [info script] redefines $name in $ns"
    }
    uplevel [list _proc $name $args $body]
}
```

From the time that is sourced, any attempt to override a proc name will be reported to stderr (on Win-wish, it would show on the console in red). You may make it really strict by adding an "exit" after the "puts stderr ...", or throw an error.

Known feature: proc names with wildcards will run into this trap, e.g.

```
proc * args {expr [join $args *]*1}
```

will always lead to a complaint because "*" fits any proc name. Fix (some regsub magic on 'name') left as an exercise.

0.4.9 Windows wish console

While on Unixes, the standard channels *stdin*, *stdout*, and *stderr* are the same as the terminal you started wish from, a Windows *wish* doesn't typically have these standard channels (and is mostly started with double-click anyway). To help this, a console was added that takes over the standard channels (stderr even coming in red, stdin in blue). The console is normally hidden, but can be brought up with the command

```
console show
```

You can also use the partially documented "console" command. "console eval

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¹⁷ Chapter 2 on page 69

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