

Tcl and the Tk Toolkit

Second Edition

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Preface

Tcl and Tk have evolved tremendously since John wrote the first edition of this book. In a “History of Tcl” that John wrote several years ago (<http://www.tcl.tk/about/history.html>), he documented several significant enhancements that occurred:

I joined Sun in May of 1994 and began building a team of Tcl developers . . . The additional resources provided by Sun allowed us to make major improvements to Tcl and Tk. Scott Stanton and Ray Johnson ported Tcl and Tk to Windows and the Macintosh, so that Tcl became an outstanding cross-platform development environment . . . Jacob Levy and Scott Stanton overhauled the I/O system and added socket support, so that Tcl could easily be used for a variety of network applications. Brian Lewis built a bytecode compiler for Tcl scripts, which provided speed-ups of as much as a factor of 10x. Jacob Levy implemented Safe-Tcl, a powerful security model that allows untrusted scripts to be evaluated safely. Jacob Levy and Laurent Demailly built a Tcl plugin, so that Tcl scripts can be evaluated in a web browser, and we created Jacl and TclBlend, which allow Tcl and Java to work closely together. We added many other smaller improvements, such as dynamic loading, namespaces, time and date support, binary I/O, additional file manipulation commands, and an improved font mechanism.

John went on to found the company Scriptics in 1997 to create development tools and provide training and support for Tcl on a commercial basis. I joined Scriptics shortly after its founding and had the pleasure of working with John and many other talented people responsible for the success of Tcl and Tk. During that time, Tcl became the first dynamic language with native Unicode support (for interna-

tionalization), thread safety (for multithreaded applications), and an all-new regular expression package by Henry Spencer that included many new features as well as Unicode support. In 1998, John was recognized for his work on Tcl/Tk with the ACM Software System Award, conferred each year for “a software system that has had a lasting influence.”

After many years of serving as the “benevolent dictator” of Tcl/Tk development, John was ready to focus on other ventures. In 2000, he turned control of Tcl/Tk over to the Tcl Core Team (TCT), a group of Tcl experts who collectively manage the development of Tcl/Tk. The TCT organizes its activities with Tcl Improvement Proposals (TIPs). Each TIP is a short document that describes a particular project, activity, or process. Anyone can write a TIP; the TIP then gets circulated among the Tcl Core Team for discussion and approval. You can learn more about the process at <http://www.tcl.tk/community/coreteam>. The TCT welcomes community involvement in shaping the future of Tcl/Tk.

One of the most exciting developments in recent years is a technology supporting single-file distribution of Tcl runtime environments and Tcl/Tk-based applications through *Starkits* and *Starpacks*; Chapter 14 shows you how to take advantage of this method of distributing your applications. Starkits are based on another powerful innovation, *virtual file systems*, which allows your applications to treat such entities as ZIP archives, FTP sites, HTTP sites, and WebDAV shares as mountable file systems; Chapter 11 describes using this technology. And Tk 8.5 introduced a new set of *themed widgets*, which provide a more modern appearance and consistent look and feel than the classic Tk widgets; Chapter 19 introduces the capabilities of the new themed widgets.

In addition to my coauthors, many other people have contributed to the success of this second edition. Clif Flynt, Jeff Hobbs, Brian Kernighan, Steve Landers, and Mark Roseman all spent significant time and effort on critiquing and improving the technical content. Joe English, Jeff Hobbs, and Don Porter provided valuable insight into several nooks and crannies of Tcl and Tk. Mark Roseman and his TkDocs site (<http://www.tkdocs.com>) provided invaluable insight into themed widgets, styles, and themes. Cameron Laird served as a sounding board for the initial shaping and restructuring of the second edition. At Addison-Wesley, long-suffering Mark Taub and Debra Williams Cauley kept working with me to bring this book to publication, and Michael Thurston helped make my inconsistencies more consistent. Finally, Dean Akamine spent many a long hour on the thankless job of converting files from format to format and helping me to tame FrameMaker. To them and all the others I've negligently forgotten to name, I give my thanks for their help.

Ken Jones
San Francisco, California
April 2009



Preface to the First Edition

Tcl was born of frustration. In the early 1980s my students and I developed a number of interactive tools at the University of California at Berkeley, mostly for integrated circuit design, and we found ourselves spending a lot of time building bad command languages. Each tool needed to have a command language of some sort, but our main interest was in the tool rather than its command language. We spent as little time as possible on the command language and always ended up with a language that was weak and quirky. Furthermore, the command language for one tool was never quite right for the next tool, so we ended up building a new bad command language for each tool. This became increasingly frustrating.

In the fall of 1987 it occurred to me that the solution was to build a reusable command language. If a general-purpose scripting language could be built as a C library package, then perhaps it could be reused for many different purposes in many different applications. Of course, the language would need to be extensible so that each application could add its own specific features to the core provided by the library. In the spring of 1988 I decided to implement such a language, and the result was Tcl.

Tk was also born of frustration. The basic idea for Tk arose in response to Apple's announcement of HyperCard in the fall of 1987. HyperCard generated tremendous excitement because of the power of the system and the way in which it allowed many different interactive elements to be scripted and work together. However, I was discouraged. The HyperCard system had obviously taken a large development effort, and it seemed unlikely to me that a small group such as a university research project could ever mount such a massive effort. This suggested that we would not be able to participate in the development of new forms of interactive software in the future.

I concluded that the only hope for us was a component approach. Rather than building a new application as a self-contained monolith with hundreds of thousands of lines of code, we needed to find a way to divide applications into many smaller reusable components. Ideally each component would be small enough to be implemented by a small group, and interesting applications could be created by assembling components. In this environment it should be possible to create an exciting new application by developing one new component and then combining it with existing components.

The component-based approach requires a powerful and flexible “glue” for assembling the components, and it occurred to me that perhaps a shared scripting language could provide that glue. Out of this thinking grew Tk, an X11 toolkit based on Tcl. Tk allows components to be either individual user-interface controls or entire applications; in either case components can be developed independently and Tcl can be used to assemble the components and communicate between them.

I started writing Tcl and Tk as a hobby in my spare time. As other people began to use the systems I found myself spending more and more time on them, to the point where today they occupy almost all of my waking hours and many of my sleeping ones.

Tcl and Tk have succeeded beyond my wildest dreams. The Tcl/Tk developer community now numbers in the tens of thousands and there are thousands of Tcl applications in existence or under development. The application areas for Tcl and Tk cover virtually the entire spectrum of graphical and engineering applications, including computer-aided design, software development, testing, instrument control, scientific visualization, and multimedia. Tcl is used by itself in many applications, and Tcl and Tk are used together in many others. Tcl and Tk are being used by hundreds of companies, large and small, as well as universities and research laboratories.

One benefit that came as a surprise to me is that it is possible to create interesting graphical user interfaces (GUIs) entirely as Tcl scripts. I had always assumed that every Tcl application would contain some new C code that implements new Tcl commands, plus some Tcl scripts that combine the new commands with the built-in facilities provided by Tcl. However, once a simple Tcl/Tk application called `wish` became available, many people began creating user interfaces by writing Tcl scripts for it, without writing any C code at all! It turned out that the Tcl and Tk commands provide a high-level interface to GUI programming that hides many of the details faced by a C programmer. As a result, it is much easier to learn how to use `wish` than a C-based toolkit, and user interfaces can be written with much less code. Most Tcl/Tk users never write any C code at all and most of the Tcl/Tk applications consist solely of Tcl scripts.

This book is intended as an introduction to Tcl and Tk for programmers who plan to write or modify Tcl/Tk applications. I assume that readers have programmed in C and have at least passing familiarity with a shell such as `sh` or `csh` or `ksh`. I also assume that readers have used the X Window System and are familiar with basic

ideas such as using the mouse, resizing windows, etc. No prior experience with Tcl or Tk is needed in order to read this book, and you need not have written X applications using other toolkits such as Motif.

The book is organized so that you can learn Tcl without learning Tk if you wish. Also, the discussion of how to write Tcl scripts is separate from the discussion of how to use the C library interfaces provided by Tcl and Tk. The first two parts of the book describe Tcl and Tk at the level of writing scripts, and the last part describes the C interfaces for Tcl; if you are like the majority of Tcl/Tk users who only write scripts, you can stop after reading the first two parts.

In spite of my best efforts, I'm sure that there are errors in this edition of the book. I'm interested in hearing about any problems that you encounter, whether they are typos, formatting errors, sections or ideas that are hard to understand, or bugs in the examples. I'll attempt to correct the problems in future printings of the book.

Many people have helped in the creation of this book. First and foremost I would like to thank Brian Kernighan, who reviewed several drafts of the manuscript with almost terrifying thoroughness and uncovered numerous problems both large and small. I am also grateful for the detailed comments provided by the other Addison-Wesley technical reviewers: Richard Blevins, Gerard Holzmann, Curt Horkey, Ron Hutchins, Stephen Johnson, Oliver Jones, David Korn, Bill Leggett, Don Libes, Kent Margraf, Stuart McRobert, David Richardson, Alexei Rodrigues, Gerald Rosenberg, John Slater, and Win Treese. Thanks also to Bob Sproull, who read the next-to-last draft from cover to cover and provided countless bug fixes and suggestions.

I made early drafts of the manuscript available to the Tcl/Tk community via the Internet and received countless comments and suggestions from all over the world in return. I'm afraid that I didn't keep careful enough records to acknowledge all the people who contributed in this way, but the list of contributors includes at least the following people: Marvin Aguero, Miriam Amos Nihart, Jim Anderson, Frederik Anheuser, Jeff Blaine, John Boller, David Boyce, Terry Brannon, Richard Campbell, J. Cazander, Wen Chen, Richard Cheung, Peter Chubb, De Clarke, Peter Collinson, Peter Costantinidis, Alistair Crooks, Peter Davies, Tal Dayan, Akim Demaille, Mark Diekhans, Matthew Dillon, Tuan Doan, Tony Duarte, Paul DuBois, Anton Eliens, Marc R. Ewing, Luis Fernandes, Martin Forssen, Ben Fried, Matteo Frigo, Andrej Gabara, Steve Gaede, Sanjay Ghemawat, Bob Gibson, Michael Halle, Jun Hamano, Stephen Hansen, Brian Harrison, Marti Hearst, Fergus Henderson, Kevin Hendrix, David Herron, Patrick Hertel, Carsten Heyl, Leszek Holenderski, Jamie Honan, Rob W.W. Hooft, Nick Hounsome, Christopher Hylands, Jonathan Jowett, Poul-Henning Kamp, Karen L. Karavanic, Sunil Khatri, Vivek Khera, Jon Knight, Roger Knopf, Ramkumar Krishnan, Dave Kristol, Peter LaBelle, Tor-Erik Larsen, Tom Legrady, Will E. Leland, Kim Lester, Joshua Levy, Don Libes, Oscar Linares, David C.P. Linden, Toumas J. Lukka, Steve Lord, Steve Lumetta, Earlin Lutz, David J. Mackenzie, B.G. Mahesh, John Maline, Graham Mark, Stuart

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Many many people have made significant contributions to the development of Tcl and Tk. Without all of their efforts there would have been nothing of interest to write about in this book. Although I cannot hope to acknowledge all the people who helped to make Tcl and Tk what they are today, I would like to thank the following people specially: Don Libes, for writing the first widely used Tcl application; Mark Diekhans and Karl Lehenbauer, for `TCLX`; Alastair Fyfe, for supporting the early development of Tcl; Mary Ann May-Pumphrey, for developing the original Tcl test suite; George Howlett, Michael McLennan, and Sani Nassif, for the BLT extensions; Kevin Kenny, for showing that Tcl can be used to communicate with almost any imaginable program; Joel Bartlett, for many challenging conversations and for inspiring Tk's canvas widget with his `ezd` program; Larry Rowe, for developing `TCL-DP` and for providing general advice and support; Sven Delmas, for developing the `XF` application builder based on Tk; and Andrew Payne, for the widget tour and for meritorious Tcl evangelism.

Several companies have provided financial support for the development of Tcl and Tk, including Digital Equipment Corporation, Hewlett-Packard Corporation, Sun Microsystems, and Computerized Processes Unlimited. I am particularly grateful to Digital's Western Research Laboratory and its director, Richard Swan, for providing me with a one-day-per-week hideaway where I could go to gather my thoughts and work on Tcl and Tk.

Terry Lessard-Smith and Bob Miller have provided fabulous administrative support for this and all my other projects. I don't know how I would get anything done without them.

Finally, I owe a special debt to my colleague and friend Dave Patterson, whose humor and sage advice have inspired and shaped much of my professional career, and to my wife, Rita, and daughters, Kay and Amy, who have tolerated my workaholic tendencies with more cheer and affection than I deserve.

*John Ousterhout
Berkeley, California
February 1994*



Introduction

This book is about two software packages called Tcl and Tk.¹ Tcl is a *dynamic language* (also known as a *scripting language*) for controlling and extending applications; its name stands for “tool command language.” Tcl provides general programming facilities sufficient for most applications. Furthermore, Tcl is both *embeddable* and *extensible*. Its interpreter is a library of C functions that can easily be incorporated into applications, and each application can extend the core Tcl features with additional commands either unique to the application or provided by add-on libraries (referred to as *extensions* in the Tcl community).

One of the most useful extensions to Tcl is Tk, which is a toolkit for developing graphical user interface (GUI) applications. Tk extends the core Tcl facilities with commands for building user interfaces, so that you can construct GUIs by writing Tcl scripts instead of C code. Like Tcl, Tk is implemented as a library of C functions so it can be used in many different applications.

Note: This book corresponds to Tcl/Tk version 8.5. The release notes for each version of Tcl/Tk describe the changes and new features in each release. The Tcler’s Wiki web site (<http://wiki.tcl.tk>) also compiles change lists for each release; you can find them by searching for pages that contain *Changes in* in the title.

1. The official pronunciation for Tcl is “tickle,” although “tee-see-ell” is also used frequently. Tk is pronounced “tee-kay.”

I.1 Benefits of Tcl/Tk

Together, Tcl and Tk provide several benefits to application developers and users. The first benefit is rapid development. Many interesting applications can be written entirely as Tcl scripts. This allows you to program at a much higher level than you would in C/C++ or Java, and Tk hides many of the details that C or Java programmers must address. Compared to low-level toolkits, there is much less to learn in order to use Tcl and Tk, and much less code to write. New Tcl/Tk users often can create interesting user interfaces after just a few hours of learning, and many people have reported tenfold reductions in code size and development time when they switched from other toolkits to Tcl and Tk.

Another reason for rapid development with Tcl and Tk is that Tcl is an interpreted language. When you use a Tcl application, you can generate and execute new scripts on the fly without recompiling or restarting the application. This allows you to test out new ideas and fix bugs rapidly. Since Tcl is interpreted, it executes more slowly than compiled C code; but internal optimizations, such as bytecode compilation coupled with ever-increasing processor power, have erased most of the perceived performance advantages of compiled languages. For example, you can execute scripts with hundreds of Tcl commands on each movement of the mouse with no perceptible delay. In the rare cases where performance becomes an issue, you can reimplement the performance-critical parts of your Tcl scripts in C.

A second benefit is that Tcl is a cross-platform language, as are most of its extensions, including Tk. This means that an application developed on one platform, such as Linux, in most cases can be run without change on another platform, such as Macintosh or Windows.

Tcl was also the first dynamic language to have native Unicode support. As a result, Tcl applications can handle text in virtually any of the world's written languages. Tcl requires no extensions to process text in any of the Unicode-supported scripts, and standard extensions such as `msgcat` provide simple localization support.

Another significant benefit is that Tcl and most of its extensions are freely available as open source. Tcl and Tk follow the so-called BSD license, which allows anyone to download, inspect, modify, and redistribute Tcl/Tk without charge.

Tcl is an excellent “glue language.” A Tcl application can include many different extensions, each of which provides an interesting set of Tcl commands. Tk is one example of a library package; many other packages have been developed by the Tcl/Tk community, and you can also write your own packages. Tcl scripts for such applications can include commands from any of the packages.

Additionally, Tcl makes it easy for applications to have powerful scripting languages. For example, to add scripting capability to an existing application, all you need do is implement a few new Tcl commands that provide the basic features of

the application. Then you can link your new commands with the Tcl library to produce a full-function scripting language that includes both the commands provided by Tcl (called the *Tcl core*) and those that you wrote.

Tcl also provides user convenience. Once you learn Tcl and Tk, you will be able to write scripts for any Tcl and Tk application merely by learning the few application-specific commands for the new application. This should make it possible for more users to personalize and enhance their applications.

I.2 Organization of the Book

Chapter 1 uses several simple scripts to provide a quick overview of the most important features of Tcl and Tk. It is intended to give you the flavor of the systems and convince you that they are useful, without explaining anything in detail. The remainder of the book goes through everything again in a more comprehensive fashion. It is divided into three parts:

- **Part I** introduces the Tcl scripting language. After reading this section, you will be able to write scripts for Tcl applications. You will need to know at least some of the information in this part in order to write Tk applications.
- **Part II** describes the additional Tcl commands provided by Tk, which allow you to create user-interface widgets such as menus and scrollbars and arrange them in GUI applications. After reading this section, you will be able to create new GUI applications and write scripts to enhance existing Tk applications.
- **Part III** discusses the C functions in the Tcl library and how to use them to create new Tcl commands. After reading this section, you will be able to write new Tcl packages and applications in C. However, you will be able to do a great deal (perhaps everything you need) without this information.

Each of these parts contains about a dozen short chapters. Each chapter is intended to be a self-contained description of a piece of the system, and you need not necessarily read the chapters in order.

Not every feature of Tcl and Tk is covered here, and the explanations are organized to provide a smooth introduction rather than a complete reference source. A separate set of reference manual entries, referred to as the *reference documentation*, is available with the Tcl and Tk distributions. These are much more terse but they cover absolutely every feature of both systems. Appendix A describes how to retrieve the Tcl and Tk distributions, including reference documentation, via the Internet. Appendix B provides a survey of some popular Tcl extensions. Appendix C lists additional online and printed resources for Tcl and Tk. The full Tcl Source Distribution License is included in Appendix D.

This book assumes that you already know how to use your operating system, including interacting with applications from the command line. Part III of this book assumes that you are familiar with the C programming language as defined by the ANSI C standard; a basic knowledge of C is helpful for Parts I and II but not required. You need not know anything about either Tcl or Tk before reading this book; both are introduced from scratch.

I.3 Notation

This book uses a monospace font for anything that might be typed to a computer, such as Tcl scripts, C code, and names of variables, procedures, and commands. The examples of Tcl scripts use notation like the following:

```
set a 44
⇒ 44
```

Tcl commands, such as `set a 44` in the example, appear in monospace; their results, such as `44` in the example, appear in italicized *monospace*. The `⇒` symbol before the result indicates that this is a normal return value. If an error occurs in a Tcl command, the error message appears in italicized *monospace*, preceded by a `∅` symbol to indicate that this is an error rather than a normal return:

```
set a 44 55
∅ wrong # args: should be "set varName ?newValue?"
```

When describing the syntax of Tcl commands, italicized Courier is used for formal argument names. An argument or group of arguments enclosed in question marks indicates that the arguments are optional. For example, the syntax of the `set` command is as follows:

```
set varName ?newValue?
```

This means that the word `set` must be entered verbatim to invoke the command, and `varName` and `newValue` are the names of `set`'s arguments; when invoking the command, you type a variable name instead of `varName` and a new value for the variable instead of `newValue`. The `newValue` argument is optional.



An Overview of Tcl and Tk

This chapter introduces Tcl and Tk with a series of scripts illustrating their main features. Although you should be able to start writing simple scripts after reading this chapter, the explanations here are not complete. The purpose of this chapter is to show you the overall structure of Tcl and Tk and the kinds of things they can do, so that when individual features are discussed in detail you'll be able to see why they are useful. All of the information in this chapter is revisited in more detail in later chapters, and several important aspects, such as the Tcl C interfaces, are not discussed at all in this chapter.

1.1 Getting Started

To invoke Tcl scripts, you must run a Tcl application. If Tcl is installed on your system, there should exist a simple Tcl shell application called `tclsh`, which you can use to try out some of the examples in this chapter. If Tcl has not been installed on your system, refer to Appendix A for information on how to obtain and install it.

Note: It's common practice to install `tclsh` with its version number as part of the name (for example, `tclsh8.5` on Unix or `tclsh85` on Windows). This has the advantage of allowing multiple versions of Tcl to exist on the same system at once, but also the disadvantage of making it harder to write scripts that start uniformly across different versions of Tcl. Therefore, most installers also commonly

link or alias `tclsh` to the most recent version installed on the system. The same is true for the `wish` interpreter, described later. Therefore, unless you want to use a specific version of a Tcl application installed on your system, you should simply use `tclsh` or `wish`.

You can start the `tclsh` application by opening a terminal window on a Macintosh or Unix system, or a command prompt window on a Windows system, and then entering the command

```
tclsh
```

This causes `tclsh` to start in interactive mode, reading Tcl commands from the keyboard and passing them to the Tcl interpreter for evaluation. For starters, enter the following command at the `tclsh` prompt:

```
expr 2 + 2
```

`tclsh` prints the result (4) and then prompts you for another command.

This example illustrates several features of Tcl. Each command consists of one or more *words* separated by spaces or tabs (referred to as *whitespace* characters). In the example there are four words: `expr`, `2`, `+`, and `2`. The first word of each command is the name of the command to execute. The other words are *arguments* that are passed to the command for processing. `expr` is one of the core commands provided by the Tcl library, so it exists in every Tcl application. It concatenates its arguments into a single string and evaluates the string as an arithmetic expression.

Each Tcl command returns a result. If a command has no meaningful result, it returns an empty string. For the `expr` command the result is the value of the expression.

All values in Tcl have a string representation and may also have a more efficient internal representation. In this example, `expr`'s result is a numerical value that would have a binary integer or floating-point internal representation. The internal representation allows faster and more efficient processing of information. If the value simply is assigned to a variable or if it is used by another command expecting a numerical value, this is done very efficiently as no string conversion is required. Tcl automatically generates a string representation of a value on an as-needed basis—for example, when the value is displayed on the console.

Note: At the script development level, you can treat all values as strings; Tcl converts between the string and the internal representation automatically as needed. As you grow more familiar with Tcl, understanding what can cause conversions can help you avoid them, resulting in more efficient and faster code. In general,

always being consistent in your treatment of a value (e.g., always using list commands to process lists, always using dictionary commands to process dictionaries, etc.) and avoiding unnecessary printing and other string manipulation of numeric, list, and dictionary values can go a long way in speeding up your code. For more information on the internal representation of values at the C language level, see Chapter 32.

From now on, we will use notation such as the following to describe examples:

```
expr 2 + 2
⇒ 4
```

The first line is the command you enter and the second line is the result returned by the command. The \Rightarrow symbol indicates that the line contains a return value; the \Rightarrow is not actually printed out by `tclsh`. We will omit return values in cases where they aren't important, such as sequences of commands where only the last command's result matters.

Commands are normally terminated by newlines (typically the Enter or Return key on your keyboard), so each line that you enter in `tclsh` normally becomes a separate command. Semicolons also act as command separators, in case you wish to enter multiple commands on a single line. It is also possible for a single command to span multiple lines; you'll see how to do this later.

The `expr` command supports an expression syntax similar to that of expressions in ANSI C, including the same precedence rules and most of the C operators. Here are a few examples that you could enter in `tclsh`:

```
expr 2 * 10 - 1
⇒ 19
expr 14.1*6
⇒ 84.6
expr sin(.2)
⇒ 0.19866933079506122
expr rand()
⇒ 0.62130973004797
expr rand()
⇒ 0.35263291623100307
expr (3 > 4) || (6 <= 7)
⇒ 1
```

The first example shows the multiplication operator and how it has a higher precedence than subtraction. The second shows that expressions can contain real values as well as integer values. The next examples show some of the built-in functions supported by `expr`, including the `rand()` function for generating random numbers between 0 and 1. The last example shows the use of the relational operators `>` and

`<=` and the logical OR operator `||`. As in C, Boolean results are represented numerically with 1 for true and 0 for false.

To leave `tclsh`, invoke the `exit` command:

```
exit
```

This command terminates the application and returns you to your shell.

1.2 “Hello, World!” with Tk

Tcl provides a full set of programming features such as variables, loops, and procedures. It can be used by itself or with extensions that implement their own Tcl commands in addition to those in the Tcl core.

One of the more interesting extensions to Tcl is the set of windowing commands provided by the Tk toolkit. Tk’s commands allow you to create graphical user interfaces. Many of the examples in this book use an application called `wish` (“windowing shell”), which is similar to `tclsh` except that it also includes the commands defined by Tk. If Tcl and Tk have been installed on your system, you can invoke `wish` from your terminal or command prompt window just as you did for `tclsh`; it displays a small empty window on your screen and then reads commands from the console. Alternatively, if you have Tcl/Tk version 8.4 or later installed, you can invoke the `tclsh` application, and then use the command `package require Tk` to dynamically load the Tk extension.

Note: On Windows, invoking an interactive `wish` session displays both the empty window and a separate console window. The console window is a replacement for a real console to allow input and output on the standard I/O channels. The console window normally is hidden when a script file is executing, as described later, although you can display it by executing the `console show` command. Consult the `console` reference documentation for more information.

Here is a simple Tk script that you could run with `wish`:

```
button .b -text "Hello, world!" -command exit
grid .b
```

If you enter these two Tcl commands in `wish`, the window’s appearance changes to that shown in Figure 1.1. If you move the pointer over the “Hello, world!” text and click the main mouse button (the leftmost button in most configurations), the window disappears and `wish` exits.



Figure 1.1 The “Hello, world!” application

Several things about this example need explanation. First let us deal with the syntactic issues. The example contains two commands, `button` and `grid`, both of which are implemented by Tk. Although these commands do not look like the `expr` command in the previous section, they have the same basic structure as all Tcl commands: one or more words separated by whitespace characters. The `button` command contains six words, and the `grid` command contains two words.

The fourth word of the `button` command is enclosed in double quotes. This allows the word to include whitespace characters; without the quotes, `Hello`, and `world!` would be separate words. The double quotes are delimiters, not part of the word itself; they are removed by the Tcl interpreter before the command is executed.

For the `expr` command the word structure doesn’t matter much since `expr` concatenates all its arguments. However, for the `button` and `grid` commands, and for most Tcl commands, the word structure is important. The `button` command expects its first argument to be the name of a new window to create. Additional arguments to this command must come in pairs, where the first argument of each pair is the name of a *configuration option* and the second argument is a value for that option. Thus if the double quotes were omitted, the value of the `-text` option would be `Hello`, and `world!` would be treated as the name of a separate configuration option. Since there is no option defined with the name `world!` the command would return an error.

Now let us move on to the behavior of the commands. The basic building block for a graphical user interface in Tk is a *widget*. A widget is a window with a particular appearance and behavior (the terms *widget* and *window* are used synonymously in Tk). Widgets are divided into classes such as buttons, menus, and scrollbars. All the widgets in the same class have the same general appearance and behavior. For example, all button widgets display a text string, bitmap, or image and execute a Tcl script when the user clicks the button.

Widgets are organized hierarchically in Tk, with names that reflect their positions in the hierarchy. The *main widget*, which appeared on the screen when you started `wish`, has the name `.` and `.b` refers to a child `b` of the main widget. Widget names in Tk are like file name paths except that they use `.` as a separator character instead of `/` or `\`. Thus, `.a.b.c` refers to a widget that is a child of widget `.a.b`, which in turn is a child of `.a`, which is a child of the main widget.

Tk provides one command for each class of widgets, called a *class command*, which you invoke to create widgets of that class. For example, the `button` command creates button widgets. This is similar to standard object-oriented programming

principles, though Tk doesn't support direct subclassing of the widget classes. All of the class commands have the same form: the first argument is the name of a new widget to create, and additional arguments specify configuration options. Different widget classes support different sets of options. Widgets typically have many options, with default values for the options that you don't specify. When a class command like `button` is invoked, it creates a new widget with the given name and configures it as specified by the options.

The `button` command in the example specifies two options: `-text`, which is a string to display in the button, and `-command`, which is a Tcl script to execute when the user invokes the button. In this example the `-command` option is `exit`. Here are a few other `button` options that you can experiment with:

- `-background`—the background color for the button, such as `blue`
- `-foreground`—the color of the text in the button, such as `black`
- `-font`—the font to use for the button, such as `"times 12"` for a 12-point Times Roman font

Creating a widget does not automatically cause it to be displayed. The `grid` command causes the `button` widget to appear on the screen. Independent entities called *geometry managers* are responsible for computing the sizes and locations of widgets and making them appear on the screen. The separation of widget creation and geometry management provides significant flexibility in arranging widgets on the screen to design your application. The `grid` command in the example asks a geometry manager called the *gridder* to manage `.b`. The gridder arranges widgets in a grid of columns and rows. In this case, the command placed `.b` in the first column of the first row of the grid and sized the grid to just large enough to accommodate the widget; furthermore, if the parent has more space than needed by the grid, as in the example, the parent is shrunk so that it is just large enough to hold the child. Thus, when you entered the `grid` command, the main window (`.`) shrank from its original size to the size that appears in Figure 1.1.

1.3 Script Files

In the examples so far, you have entered Tcl commands interactively to `tclsh` or `wish`. You can also place commands into script files and invoke the script files just like shell scripts. To do this for the “Hello, world!” example, place the following text in a file named `hello.tcl`:

```
#!/usr/local/bin/wish
button .b -text "Hello, world!" -command exit
pack .b
```

You can execute this script by invoking the `wish` interpreter and passing the script file name as a command-line argument:

```
wish hello.tcl
```

This causes `wish` to display the same window as shown in Figure 1.1 and wait for you to interact with it. In this case you will not be able to type commands interactively to `wish`; all you can do is click on the button.

1.3.1 Executable Scripts on Unix and Mac OS X

The script just shown is the same as the one you typed earlier except for the first line. As far as `wish` is concerned, this line is a comment, but on Unix systems if you make the file executable (for example, by executing `chmod +x hello.tcl` in your shell), you can then invoke the file directly by typing `hello.tcl` to your shell. (This requires the directory containing your `hello.tcl` script to be listed in your `PATH` environment variable.) When you do this, the system invokes `wish`, passing it the file as a script to interpret.

As written, this script works as an executable script only if `wish` is installed in `/usr/local/bin`, although you could still run it by invoking `wish` with the script file name as a command-line argument. If `wish` has been installed somewhere else, you need to change the first line to reflect its location on your system. Some systems misbehave in confusing ways if the first line of the script file is longer than 32 characters, so beware if the full path name of the `wish` binary is longer than 27 characters.

To work around these limitations, a common technique for scripts on Unix has been to start script files with the following three lines:

```
#!/bin/sh
# Tcl ignores the next line but 'sh' doesn't \
exec wish "$0" "$@"
```

or the more arcane but more robust version:

```
#!/bin/sh
# Tcl ignores the next line but 'sh' doesn't \
exec wish "$0" "${1+"$@"}
```

In most modern Unix implementations, though, the following will work correctly, as long as `wish` appears in one of the directories in your `PATH` environment variable:

```
#!/usr/bin/env wish
```

1.3.2 Executable Scripts on Windows

On Windows, you can use the standard system tools to associate the `wish` interpreter with a file extension (`.tcl` by convention) so that double-clicking on the icon

for a Tcl/Tk script automatically invokes the `wish` interpreter, passing it the name of the file as a script to interpret. Most Windows installers for Tcl/Tk automatically create this association for you. `wish` is typically selected as the default association because most Windows-based Tcl/Tk programs are GUI-based. However, if the majority of your Tcl scripts don't use Tk commands, you could change the default association to invoke `tclsh`.

If you plan to distribute your scripts on multiple platforms, you should include the appropriate `#!` header as discussed in the previous section for Unix executable scripts so that they can be directly executable on Unix systems. On the other hand, Windows doesn't follow the `#!` convention, and the `#!` line is treated as a comment by the `wish` interpreter, so the net effect is that the line is ignored when the script is run on a Windows system.

1.3.3 Executing Scripts in an Interactive Interpreter

In practice, users of Tk applications rarely type Tcl commands; they interact with the applications using the mouse and keyboard in the usual ways you would expect for graphical applications. Tcl works behind the scenes where users don't normally see it. The `hello.tcl` script behaves just the same as an application that has been coded in C with a GUI toolkit and compiled into a binary executable file.

During debugging, though, it is common for application developers to type Tcl commands interactively. For example, you could test the `hello.tcl` script by starting `wish` interactively (type `wish` to your shell instead of `hello.tcl`). Then enter the following Tcl command:

```
source hello.tcl
```

`source` is a Tcl command that takes a file name as an argument. It reads the file and evaluates it as a Tcl script. This generates the same user interface as if you had invoked `hello.tcl` directly from your shell, but you can now enter Tcl commands interactively, too. For example, you could edit the script file to change the `-command` option to

```
-command "puts Good-bye!; exit"
```

then enter the following commands interactively to `wish` without restarting the program:

```
destroy .b  
source hello.tcl
```

The first command deletes the existing button, and the second command re-creates the button with the new `-command` option. Now when you click on the button, the `puts` command prints a message on standard output before `wish` exits.

1.4 Variables and Substitutions

Tcl allows you to store values in variables and use those values in commands. For example, consider the following script, which you could enter in either `tclsh` or `wish`:

```
set a 44
⇒ 44
expr $a*4
⇒ 176
```

The first command assigns the value 44 to the variable `a` and returns the variable's value. In the second command, the `$` causes Tcl to perform *variable substitution*: the Tcl interpreter replaces the dollar sign and the variable name following it with the value of the variable, so that the actual argument received by `expr` is `44*4`. Variables need not be declared in Tcl; they are created automatically when `set`. Variable values can always be represented as strings but may be maintained in a native binary format. Strings may contain binary data and may be of any length. Of course, in this example an error occurs in `expr` if the value of `a` doesn't make sense as an integer or real number.

Tcl also provides *command substitution*, which allows you to use the result of one command in an argument to another command:

```
set a 44
set b [expr $a*4]
⇒ 176
```

Square brackets invoke command substitution: everything inside the brackets is evaluated as a separate Tcl script, and the result of that script is substituted into the word in place of the bracketed command. In this example the second argument of the second `set` command is 176.

The final form of substitution in Tcl is *backslash substitution*, which either adds special meaning to a normal character or takes it away from a special character, as in the following examples:

```
set x \$a
set newline \n
```

The first command sets the variable `x` to the string `$a` (the characters `\$` are replaced with a dollar sign and no variable substitution occurs). The second command sets the variable `newline` to hold a string consisting of the newline character (the characters `\n` are replaced with a newline character).

1.5 Control Structures

The next example uses variables and substitutions along with some simple control structures to create a Tcl *procedure* called `factorial`, which computes the factorial of a given non-negative integer value:

```
proc factorial {val} {
    set result 1
    while {$val>0} {
        set result [expr $result*$val]
        incr val -1
    }
    return $result
}
```

If you enter the preceding lines in `wish` or `tclsh`, or if you enter them into a file and then source the file, a new command `factorial` becomes available. The command takes one non-negative integer argument, and its result is the factorial of that number:

```
factorial 3
⇒ 6
factorial 20
⇒ 2432902008176640000
factorial 0.5
∅ expected integer but got "0.5"
```

This example uses one additional piece of Tcl syntax: braces. Braces are like double quotes in that they can be placed around a word that contains embedded spaces. However, braces are different from double quotes in two respects. First, braces nest. The last word of the `proc` command starts after the open brace on the first line and contains everything up to the close brace on the last line. The Tcl interpreter removes the outer braces and passes everything between them, including several nested pairs of braces, to `proc` as an argument. The second difference between braces and double quotes is that no substitutions occur inside braces, whereas they do inside quotes. All of the characters between the braces are passed verbatim to `proc` without any special processing.

The `proc` command takes three arguments: the name of a procedure, a list of argument names separated by whitespace, and the body of the procedure, which is a Tcl script. `proc` enters the procedure name into the Tcl interpreter as a new command. Whenever the command is invoked, the body of the procedure is evaluated. While the procedure body is executing, it can access its arguments as variables: `val` holds the first and only argument.

The body of the `factorial` procedure contains three Tcl commands: `set`, `while`, and `return`. The `while` command does most of the work of the procedure.

It takes two arguments, an expression, `$val>0`, and a body, which is another Tcl script. The `while` command evaluates its expression argument and if the result is nonzero, it evaluates the body as a Tcl script. It repeats this process over and over until eventually the expression evaluates to zero. In the example, the body of the `while` command multiplies the result by `val` and then uses the `incr` command to add the specified integer increment (`-1` in this case) to the value contained in `val`. When `val` reaches zero, `result` contains the desired factorial.

The `return` command causes the procedure to exit with the value of the variable `result` as the procedure's result. If a `return` command is omitted, the return value of a procedure is the result of the last command executed in the procedure's body. In the case of `factorial` this would be the result of `while`, which is always an empty string.

The use of braces in this example is crucial. The single most difficult issue in writing Tcl scripts is managing substitutions: making them happen when you want them and preventing them when you don't. The body of the procedure must be enclosed in braces because we don't want variable and command substitutions to occur at the time the body is passed to `proc` as an argument; we want the substitutions to occur later, when the body is evaluated as a Tcl script. The body of the `while` command is enclosed in braces for the same reason: rather than performing the substitutions once, while parsing the `while` command, we want the substitutions to be performed over and over, each time the body is evaluated. Braces are also needed in the `{ $\$val>0$ }` argument to `while`. Without them the value of the variable `val` would be substituted when the `while` command is parsed; the expression would have a constant value and `while` would loop forever. Try replacing some of the braces in the example with double quotes to see what happens.

The examples in this book use a style in which the open brace for an argument that is a Tcl script appears at the end of one line, the script follows on successive indented lines, and the close brace is on a line by itself after the script. Although this makes for readable scripts, Tcl doesn't require this particular syntax. Arguments that are scripts are subject to the same syntax rules as any other arguments; in fact, the Tcl interpreter doesn't even know that an argument is a script at the time it parses it. One consequence is that the open brace must be on the same line as the preceding portion of the command. If the open brace is moved to a line by itself, the newline before the open brace terminates the command.

The variables in a procedure are normally local to that procedure and are not visible outside the procedure. In the `factorial` example the local variables include the argument `val` as well as the variable `result`. A fresh set of local variables is created for each call to a procedure (arguments are passed by copying their values), and when a procedure returns, its local variables are deleted. Variables named outside any procedure are called *global variables*; they last forever unless explicitly deleted. You'll find out later how a procedure can access global variables and the

local variables of other active procedures. Additionally, persistent variables can be created within specific *namespaces* to prevent naming conflicts; Chapter 10 discusses the use of namespaces.

1.6 On the Tcl Language

As a programming language, Tcl is defined quite differently from most other languages. Most languages have a grammar that defines the entire language. For example, consider the following statement in C:

```
while (val>0) {
    result *= val;
    val -= 1;
}
```

The grammar for C defines the structure of this statement in terms of a reserved word `while`, an expression, and a substatement to execute repeatedly until the expression evaluates to zero. The C grammar defines both the overall structure of the `while` statement and the internal structure of its expression and substatement.

In Tcl no fixed grammar explains the entire language. Instead, Tcl is defined by an interpreter that parses single Tcl commands, plus a collection of procedures that execute individual commands. The interpreter and its substitution rules are fixed, but new commands can be defined at any time and existing commands can be replaced. Features such as control flow, procedures, and expressions are implemented as commands; they are not understood directly by the Tcl interpreter. For example, consider the Tcl command that is equivalent to the preceding `while` loop:

```
while {$val>0} {
    set result [expr $result*$val]
    incr val -1
}
```

When this command is evaluated, the Tcl interpreter knows nothing about the command except that it has three words, the first of which is a command name. The Tcl interpreter has no idea that the first argument to `while` is an expression and the second is a Tcl script. Once the command has been parsed, the Tcl interpreter passes the words of the command to `while`, which treats its first argument as an expression and the second as a Tcl script. If the expression evaluates to nonzero, `while` passes its second argument back to the Tcl interpreter for evaluation. At this point the interpreter treats the contents of the argument as a script (i.e., it performs command and variable substitutions and invokes the `expr`, `set`, and `incr` commands).

Now consider the following command:


```
set {$val>0} {  
    set result [expr $result*$val]  
    incr val -1  
}
```

As far as the Tcl interpreter is concerned, the `set` command is identical to the `while` command except that it has a different command name. The interpreter handles this command in exactly the same way as the `while` command, except that it invokes a different procedure to execute the command. The `set` command treats its first argument as a variable name and its second argument as a new value for that variable, so it will set a variable with the rather unusual name of `val>0`.

The most common mistake made by new Tcl users is to try to understand Tcl scripts in terms of a grammar; this leads people to expect much more sophisticated behavior from the interpreter than actually exists. For example, a C programmer using Tcl for the first time might think that the first pair of braces in the `while` command serves a different purpose from the second pair. In reality, there is no difference. In each case the braces are present so that the Tcl interpreter passes the characters between the braces to the command without performing any substitutions.

Thus the entire Tcl “language” consists of about a dozen simple rules for parsing arguments and performing substitutions. The actual behavior of a Tcl script is determined by the commands executed. The commands determine whether to treat an argument as a literal value, the name of a variable, a code block to execute, and so on. An interesting consequence of this is that a script can define commands implementing entirely new control structures, which is a feature not available in most other languages.

1.7 Event Bindings

The next example provides a graphical front end for the `factorial` procedure. In addition to demonstrating two new widget classes, it illustrates Tk’s *binding* mechanism. A binding causes a particular Tcl script to be evaluated whenever a particular event occurs in a particular window. The `-command` option for buttons is an example of a simple binding implemented by a particular widget class. Tk also includes a more general mechanism that can be used to extend the behavior of widgets in nearly arbitrary ways.

To run the example, copy the following script into a file `factorial.tcl` and invoke the file from your shell.

```
#!/usr/bin/env wish  
proc factorial {val} {  
    set result 1  
    while {$val>0} {
```

```

        set result [expr $result*$val]
        incr val -1
    }
    return $result
}
entry .value -width 6 -relief sunken -textvariable value
label .description -text "factorial is"
label .result -textvariable result
button .calculate -text "Calculate" \
    -command {set result [factorial $value]}
bind .value <Return> {
    .calculate flash
    .calculate invoke
}
grid .value .description .result -padx 1m -pady 1m
grid .calculate - -padx 1m -pady 1m

```

This script produces a screen display like that in Figure 1.2. There is an entry widget in which you can click with the mouse and type a number. If you click the button labeled “Calculate,” the result appears on the right side of the window; the same occurs if you press the Return key in the entry.

This application consists of four widgets: one entry, one button, and two labels. Entries are widgets that display one-line text strings that you can edit interactively. The entry is configured with a `-width` of 6, which means it is large enough to display about six digits, and a `-relief` of `sunken`, which makes the entry appear sunken into the window. The `-textvariable` option for each entry specifies the name of a global variable to hold the entry’s text—any changes you make in the entry are reflected in the variable and vice versa.

The `.description` label widget holds decorative text, and the `.result` label holds the result of the power computation. The `-textvariable` option for `.result` causes it to display whatever string is in the global variable `result` and to update itself whenever the variable changes. In contrast, `.description` displays a constant string.

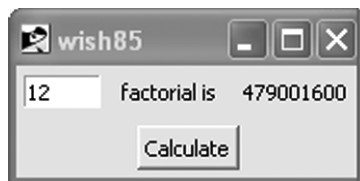


Figure 1.2 A graphical user interface that computes a factorial

The first `grid` command arranges the entry and two label widgets in a row from left to right. The `-padx` and `-pady` options make the display a bit more attractive by arranging for 1 millimeter of extra space on the left and right sides of each widget, and 1 millimeter of extra space above and below each widget. The `m` suffix specifies millimeters; you could also use `c` for centimeters, `i` for inches, `p` for points, or no suffix for pixels.

The second `grid` command arranges the button in a second row. Because the widget name occurs as the first argument, the gridder allocates the first column of the row to the button. The two `-` arguments following the widget name indicate to the gridder that the space allocated to the button widget should span two additional columns. The gridder then centers the button widget inside its allocated space.

The command creating the `.calculate` button occupies two lines in the script; the backslash at the end of the first line is a line-continuation character, which causes the newline to be treated as a space. The button's `-command` script connects the user interface to the `factorial` procedure. The script invokes `factorial`, passing it the values in the entry and storing the result in the `result` variable so that it is displayed in the `.result` widget.

The `bind` command has three arguments: the name of a widget, an event specification, and a Tcl script to invoke when the given event occurs in the given widget. `<Return>` specifies an event consisting of the user pressing the return key on the keyboard (which is still labeled “Return” on Mac keyboards but typically labeled “Enter” on most other English keyboards these days). Table 1.1 shows a few other event specifiers that you might find useful.

Table 1.1 Event Specifiers

Event specifier	Meaning
<code><Button-1></code>	Mouse button 1 is pressed
<code><1></code>	Shorthand for <code><Button-1></code>
<code><ButtonRelease-1></code>	Mouse button 1 is released
<code><Double-Button-1></code>	Double-click on mouse button 1
<code><Key-a></code>	Key a is pressed
<code><a></code> or <code>a</code>	Shorthand for <code><Key-a></code>
<code><Motion></code>	Pointer motion with any (or no) buttons or modifier keys pressed
<code><B1-Motion></code>	Pointer motion with button 1 pressed

The script for a binding has access to several pieces of information about the event, such as the location of the pointer when the event occurred. For an example, start up `wish` interactively and enter the following command in it:

```
bind . <Motion> {puts "pointer at %x,%y"}
```

Now move the pointer over the window. Each time the pointer moves, a message is printed on standard output giving its new location. When the pointer motion event occurs, Tk scans the script for `%` sequences and replaces them with information about the event before passing the script to Tcl for evaluation. `%x` is replaced with the pointer's x-coordinate and `%y` is replaced with the pointer's y-coordinate.

The intent of a binding is to extend the generic built-in behavior of the entry (editing text strings) with an application-specific behavior. In this script, as a convenience we would like to allow the user to request the factorial calculation by pressing the Return key as an alternative to clicking the "Calculate" button. We could simply duplicate the button's command script, but if we were to modify the command script later, we'd need to remember to replicate the change in the binding script as well. Instead, we provide a binding script that "programmatically clicks" the button.

The binding script executes two commands called *widget commands*. Whenever a new widget is created, a new Tcl command is also created with the same name as the widget, and you can invoke this command to communicate with the widget. The first argument to a widget command selects one of several operations, and additional arguments are used as parameters for that operation. In this binding script, the first widget command flashes the button. (Depending on your system's color scheme, you might not see the button flash.) The second widget command causes the button widget to invoke its `-command` option just as if you had clicked the mouse button on it.

Each class of widget supports a different set of operations in its widget commands, but many of the operations are similar from class to class. For example, every widget class supports a `configure` widget command that can be used to modify any of the configuration options for the widget. If you run the `factorial.tcl` script interactively, you could type the following command to change the background of the entry widget to yellow:

```
.value configure -background yellow
```

Or you could type

```
.calculate configure -state disabled
```

to make the button unresponsive to user interaction.

1.8 Additional Features of Tcl and Tk

The examples in this chapter have used almost every aspect of the Tcl language syntax, and they illustrated many features of Tcl and Tk. However, Tcl and Tk contain many other facilities that are not used in this chapter; all of these are described later in the book. Here is a sample of some of the most useful features that haven't been mentioned yet:

- **Arrays, dictionaries, and lists**—Tcl provides associative arrays and dictionaries for storing key-value pairs efficiently and lists for managing aggregates of data.
- **More control structures**—Tcl provides several additional commands for controlling the flow of execution, such as `eval`, `for`, `foreach`, and `switch`.
- **String manipulation**—Tcl contains a number of commands for manipulating strings, such as measuring their length, regular expression pattern matching and substitution, and format conversion.
- **File access**—You can read and write files from Tcl scripts and retrieve directory information and file attributes such as size and creation time.
- **More widgets**—Tk contains many widget classes besides those shown here, such as menus, scrollbars, a drawing widget called a *canvas*, and a text widget that makes it easy to achieve hypertext effects.
- **Access to other windowing features**—Tk provides commands for accessing all of the major windowing facilities, such as a command for communicating with the window manager (to set the window's title, for example), a command for retrieving the selection, and a command to manage the input focus.
- **Interapplication communication**—Tcl includes the ability to communicate between applications through interprocess pipes and TCP/IP sockets.
- **C interfaces**—Tcl provides C library procedures that you can use to define new Tcl commands in C. (Tk provides a library that you can use to create new widget classes and geometry managers in C, but this capability is rarely used and so is not covered in this book.)



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