

# Gambit-C, version 4.0 beta 11

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A portable implementation of Scheme  
Edition 4.0 beta 11, October 2004

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# 1 The Gambit-C system

The Gambit programming system is a full implementation of the Scheme language which conforms to the R4RS and IEEE Scheme standards. It consists of two main programs: `gsi`, the Gambit Scheme interpreter, and `gsc`, the Gambit Scheme compiler.

Gambit-C is a version of the Gambit programming system in which the compiler generates portable C code, making the whole Gambit-C system and the programs compiled with it easily portable to many computer architectures for which a C compiler is available. With appropriate declarations in the source code the executable programs generated by the compiler run roughly as fast as equivalent C programs.

For the most up to date information on Gambit and add-on packages please check the Gambit web page at '<http://www.iro.umontreal.ca/~gambit>'. Bug reports and inquiries should be sent to '[gambit@iro.umontreal.ca](mailto:gambit@iro.umontreal.ca)'.

## 1.1 Accessing the system files

Unless the default is overridden when the Gambit-C system was built (with the command '`configure --prefix=/my/own/directory`'), all files are installed in '`/usr/local/Gambit-C`' under UNIX and Mac OS X and '`C:\Gambit-C`' under Microsoft Windows. This is the *Gambit installation directory*.

The system's executables including the interpreter '`gsi`' and compiler '`gsc`' are stored in the '`bin`' subdirectory of the Gambit installation directory. It is convenient to put the '`bin`' directory in the shell's '`PATH`' environment variable so that these programs can be invoked simply by entering their name.

The runtime library is located in the '`lib`' subdirectory. When the system's runtime library is built as a shared-library (with the command '`configure --enable-shared`') all programs built with Gambit-C, including the interpreter and compiler, need to find this library when they are executed and consequently this directory must be in the path searched by the system for shared-libraries. This path is normally specified through an environment variable which is '`LD_LIBRARY_PATH`' on most versions of UNIX, '`LIBPATH`' on AIX, '`SHLIB_PATH`' on HP-UX, '`DYLD_LIBRARY_PATH`' on Mac OS X, and '`PATH`' on Microsoft Windows. If the shell is of the '`sh`' family, the setting of the path can be made for a single execution by prefixing the program name with the environment variable assignment, as in:

```
% LD_LIBRARY_PATH=/usr/local/Gambit-C/lib gsi
```

A similar problem exists with the Gambit header file '`gambit.h`', located in the '`include`' subdirectory. This header file is needed for compiling Scheme programs with the Gambit-C compiler. When the C compiler is being called explicitly it may be necessary to use a '`-I<dir>`' command line option to indicate where to find header files and a '`-L<dir>`' command line option to indicate where to find libraries. Access to both of these files can be simplified by creating a link to them in the appropriate system directories (special privileges may however be required):

```
% ln -s /usr/local/Gambit-C/lib/libgambc.a /usr/lib # name may vary
% ln -s /usr/local/Gambit-C/include/gambit.h /usr/include
```

This is not done by the installation process. Alternatively these files can also be copied or linked in the directory where the C compiler is invoked (this requires no special privileges).

## 2 The Gambit Scheme interpreter

Synopsis:

```
gsi [-:runtimeoption,...] [-i] [-f] [[-] [-e expressions] [file]]...
```

The interpreter is executed in *interactive mode* when no file or ‘-’ or ‘-e’ option is given on the command line. When at least one file or ‘-’ or ‘-e’ option is present the interpreter is executed in *batch mode*. The ‘-i’ option is ignored by the interpreter. The initialization file will be examined unless the ‘-f’ option is present (see [Section 2.3 \[GSI customization\]](#), [page 3](#)). Runtime options are explained in [Chapter 4 \[Runtime options\]](#), [page 17](#).

### 2.1 Interactive mode

In interactive mode a read-eval-print loop (REPL) is started for the user to interact with the interpreter. At each iteration of this loop the interpreter displays a prompt, reads a command and executes it. The commands can be Scheme expressions to evaluate (the typical case) or special commands related to debugging, for example ‘,q’ to terminate the current thread (for a complete list of commands see [Chapter 5 \[Debugging\]](#), [page 19](#)). Most commands produce some output, such as the value or error message resulting from an evaluation.

The input and output of the interaction is done on the *interaction channel*. The interaction channel can be specified through the runtime options but if none is specified the system uses a reasonable default that depends on the system’s configuration. When the system’s runtime library was built with support for the IDE (with the command ‘configure --enable-ide’) the interaction channel corresponds to the *console window* of the primordial thread (for details see [Section 5.6 \[IDE\]](#), [page 30](#)), otherwise the interaction channel is the user’s *console*, also known as the *controlling terminal* in the UNIX world. When the REPL starts, the ports associated with ‘(current-input-port)’, ‘(current-output-port)’ and ‘(current-error-port)’ all refer to the interaction channel.

Expressions are evaluated in the global *interaction environment*. The interpreter adds to this environment any definition entered using the `define` and `define-macro` special forms. Once the evaluation of an expression is completed, the value or values resulting from the evaluation are output to the interaction channel by the pretty printer. The special “void” object is not output. This object is returned by most procedures and special forms which the Scheme standard defines as returning an unspecified value (e.g. `write`, `set!`, `define`).

Here is a sample interaction with `gsi`:

```
% gsi
Gambit Version 4.0 beta 11

> (define (fact n) (if (< n 2) 1 (* n (fact (- n 1)))))
> (map fact '(1 2 3 4 5 6))
(1 2 6 24 120 720)
> (values (fact 10) (fact 40))
3628800
8159152832478977343456112695961158942720000000000
> ,q
```

What happens when errors occur is explained in [Chapter 5 \[Debugging\]](#), [page 19](#).

## 2.2 Batch mode

In batch mode the command line arguments denote files to be loaded, REPL interactions to start (`-` option), and expressions to be evaluated (`-e` option). Note that the `-` and `-e` options can be interspersed with the files on the command line and can occur multiple times. The interpreter processes the command line arguments from left to right, loading files with the `load` procedure and evaluating expressions with the `eval` procedure in the global interaction environment. After this processing the interpreter exits.

When the file name has no extension the `load` procedure first attempts to load the file with no extension as a Scheme source file. If that file doesn't exist it completes the file name with a `.on` extension with the highest consecutive version number starting with 1, and loads that file as an object file. If that file doesn't exist the file extensions `.scm` and `.six` will be tried in that order. When the file name has an extension, the `load` procedure will only attempt to load the file with that specific name.

When the extension of the file loaded is `.scm` the content of the file will be parsed using the normal Scheme prefix syntax. When the extension of the file loaded is `.six` the content of the file will be parsed using the Scheme infix syntax extension (see [Section 16.11 \[Scheme infix syntax extension\]](#), page 133). Otherwise, `gsi` will parse the file using the normal Scheme prefix syntax.

The ports associated with `(current-input-port)`, `(current-output-port)` and `(current-error-port)` initially refer respectively to the standard input (`stdin`), standard output (`stdout`) and the standard error (`stderr`) of the interpreter. This is true even in REPLs started with the `-` option. The usual interaction channel (console or IDE's console window) is still used to read expressions and commands and to display results. This makes it possible to use REPLs to debug programs which read the standard input and write to the standard output, even when these have been redirected.

Here is a sample use of the interpreter in batch mode, under UNIX:

```
% cat m1.scm
(display "hello") (newline)
% cat m2.six
display("world"); newline();
% gsi m1.scm - m2.six -e "(pretty-print 1)(pretty-print 2)"
hello
> (define (display x) (write (reverse (string->list x))))
> ,(c 0)
(#\d #\l #\r #\o #\w)
1
2
```

## 2.3 Customization

There are two ways to customize the interpreter. When the interpreter starts off it tries to execute a `(load "~/gambcext")` (for an explanation of how file names are interpreted see [Chapter 14 \[Host environment\]](#), page 90). An error is not signaled when the file does not exist. Interpreter extensions and patches that are meant to apply to all users and all modes should go in that file.

Extensions which are meant to apply to a single user or to a specific working directory are best placed in the *initialization file*, which is a file containing Scheme code. In all

modes, the interpreter first tries to locate the initialization file by searching the following locations: ‘gambcini’ and ‘~/gambcini’ (with no extension, a ‘.scm’ extension, and a ‘.six’ extension in that order). The first file that is found is examined as though the expression `(include initialization-file)` had been entered at the read-eval-print loop where *initialization-file* is the file that was found. Note that by using an `include` the macros defined in the initialization file will be visible from the read-eval-print loop (this would not have been the case if `load` had been used). The initialization file is not searched for or examined when the ‘-f’ option is specified.

## 2.4 Process exit status

The status is zero when the interpreter exits normally and is nonzero when the interpreter exits due to an error. Here is the meaning of the exit statuses:

0	The execution of the primordial thread (i.e. the main thread) did not encounter any error. It is however possible that other threads terminated abnormally (by default threads other than the primordial thread terminate silently when they raise an exception that is not handled).
64	The runtime options or the environment variable ‘GAMBCOPT’ contained a syntax error or were invalid.
70	This normally indicates that an exception was raised in the primordial thread and the exception was not handled.
71	There was a problem initializing the runtime system, for example insufficient memory to allocate critical tables.

For example, if the shell is `sh`:

```
% gsi -d0 -e "(pretty-print (expt 2 100))"
1267650600228229401496703205376
% echo $?
0
% gsi -d0 nonexistent.scm
% echo $?
70
% gsi nonexistent.scm
*** ERROR IN ##main -- No such file or directory
(load "nonexistent.scm")
% echo $?
70
% gsi -m4000000 # ask for a 4 gigabyte heap
*** malloc: vm_allocate(size=528384) failed (error code=3)
*** malloc[15068]: error: Can't allocate region
% echo $?
71
```

## 2.5 Scheme scripts

The `load` procedure treats specially files that begin with the two characters ‘#!’ and ‘@;’. Such files are called *script files*. In addition to indicating that the file is a script, the first line provides information about the source code language to be used by the `load` procedure. After the two characters ‘#!’ and ‘@;’ the system will search for the first substring matching one of the following language specifying tokens:

<code>scheme-r4rs</code>	R4RS language with prefix syntax, case-insensitivity, keyword syntax not supported
<code>scheme-r5rs</code>	R5RS language with prefix syntax, case-insensitivity, keyword syntax not supported
<code>scheme-ieee-1178-1990</code>	IEEE 1178-1990 language with prefix syntax, case-insensitivity, keyword syntax not supported
<code>scheme-srfi-0</code>	R5RS language with prefix syntax and SRFI 0 support (i.e. <code>cond-expand</code> special form), case-insensitivity, keyword syntax not supported
<code>gsi-script</code>	Full Gambit Scheme language with prefix syntax, case-sensitivity, keyword syntax supported
<code>six-script</code>	Full Gambit Scheme language with infix syntax, case-sensitivity, keyword syntax supported

If a language specifying token is not found, `load` will use the same language as a nonscript file (i.e. it uses the file extension and runtime system options to determine the language).

After processing the first line, `load` will parse the rest of the file (using the syntax of the language indicated) and then execute it. When the file is being loaded because it is an argument on the interpreter's command line, the interpreter will:

- Setup the `command-line` procedure so that it returns a list containing the expanded file name of the script file and the arguments following the script file on the command line. This is done before the script is executed. The expanded file name of the script file can be used to determine the directory that contains the script (i.e. `(path-directory (car (command-line)))`).
- After the script is loaded the procedure `main` is called with the command-line arguments. The way this is done depends on the language specifying token. For `scheme-r4rs`, `scheme-r5rs`, `scheme-ieee-1178-1990`, and `scheme-srfi-0`, the `main` procedure is called with the equivalent of `(main (cdr (command-line)))` and `main` is expected to return a process exit status code in the range 0 to 255. This conforms to the "Running Scheme Scripts on Unix SRFI" (SRFI 22). For `gsi-script` and `six-script` the `main` procedure is called with the equivalent of `(apply main (cdr (command-line)))` and the process exit status code is 0 (`main`'s result is ignored). The Gambit-C system has a predefined `main` procedure which accepts any number of arguments and returns 0, so it is perfectly valid for a script to not define `main` and to do all its processing with top-level expressions (examples are given in the next section).
- When `main` returns, the interpreter exits. The command-line arguments after a script file are consequently not processed (however they do appear in the list returned by the `command-line` procedure, after the script file's expanded file name, so it is up to the script to process them).

### 2.5.1 Scripts under UNIX and Mac OS X

Under UNIX and Mac OS X, the Gambit-C installation process creates the executable `'gsi'` and also the executables `'six'`, `'gsi-script'`, `'six-script'`, `'scheme-r5rs'`,

‘scheme-srfi-0’, etc as links to ‘gsi’. A Scheme script need only start with the name of the desired Scheme language variant prefixed with ‘#!’ and the directory where the Gambit-C executables are stored. This script should be made executable by setting the execute permission bits (with a ‘`chmod +x script`’). Here is an example of a script which lists on standard output the files in the current directory:

```
#!/usr/local/Gambit-C/bin/gsi-script
(for-each pretty-print (directory-files))
```

Here is another UNIX script, using the Scheme infix syntax extension, which takes a single integer argument and prints on standard output the numbers from 1 to that integer:

```
#!/usr/local/Gambit-C/bin/six-script

void main (obj n_str)
{
  int n = \string->number(n_str);
  for (int i=1; i<=n; i++)
    \pretty-print(i);
}
```

For maximal portability it is a good idea to start scripts indirectly through the ‘/usr/bin/env’ program, so that the executable of the interpreter will be searched in the user’s ‘PATH’. This is what SRFI 22 recommends. For example here is a script that mimics the UNIX ‘cat’ utility for text files:

```
#!/usr/bin/env gsi-script

(define (display-file filename)
  (display (call-with-input-file filename
    (lambda (port)
      (read-line port #f))))))

(for-each display-file (cdr (command-line)))
```

## 2.5.2 Scripts under Microsoft Windows

Under Microsoft Windows, the Gambit-C installation process creates the executable ‘gsi.exe’ and ‘six.exe’ and also the batch files ‘gsi-script.bat’, ‘six-script.bat’, ‘scheme-r5rs.bat’, ‘scheme-srfi-0.bat’, etc which simply invoke ‘gsi.exe’ with the same command line arguments. A Scheme script need only start with the name of the desired Scheme language variant prefixed with ‘@:’. A UNIX script can be converted to a Microsoft Windows script simply by changing the first line and storing the script in a file whose name has a ‘.bat’ or ‘.cmd’ extension:

```
@:gsi-script %~f0 %*
(display "files:\n")
(pretty-print (directory-files))
```

Note that Microsoft Windows always searches executables in the user’s ‘PATH’, so there is no need for an indirection such as the UNIX ‘/usr/bin/env’. However the first line must end with ‘%~f0 %\*’ to pass the expanded filename of the script and command line arguments to the interpreter.



## 3 The Gambit Scheme compiler

Synopsis:

```
gsc [-:runtimeoption,...] [-i] [-f] [-e expressions]
    [-prelude expressions] [-postlude expressions]
    [-dynamic] [-cc-options options] [-ld-options options]
    [-warnings] [-verbose] [-report] [-expansion]
    [-gvm] [-debug] [-track-scheme]
    [-o output] [-c] [-flat] [-l base] [file...]
```

### 3.1 Interactive mode

When no command line argument is present other than options the compiler behaves like the interpreter in interactive mode. The only difference with the interpreter is that the compilation related procedures listed in this chapter are also available (i.e. `compile-file`, `compile-file-to-c`, etc).

### 3.2 Customization

Like the interpreter, the compiler will examine the initialization file unless the ‘-f’ option is specified.

### 3.3 Batch mode

In batch mode `gsc` takes a set of file names (either with ‘.scm’, ‘.six’, ‘.c’, or no extension) on the command line and compiles each Scheme source file into a C file. File names with no extension are taken to be Scheme source files and a ‘.scm’ extension is automatically appended to the file name. For each Scheme source file ‘*file.scm*’ and ‘*file.six*’, the C file ‘*file.c*’ stripped of its directory will be produced (i.e. the C file is created in the current working directory).

The C files produced by the compiler serve two purposes. They will be processed by a C compiler to generate object files, and they also contain information to be read by Gambit’s linker to generate a *link file*. The link file is a C file that collects various linking information for a group of modules, such as the set of all symbols and global variables used by the modules. The linker is automatically invoked unless the ‘-c’ or ‘-dynamic’ options appear on the command line.

Compiler options must be specified before the first file name and after the ‘-:’ runtime option (see [Chapter 4 \[Runtime options\]](#), page 17). If present, the ‘-f’ and ‘-i’ compiler options must come first. The available options are:

- i                      Force interpreter mode.
- f                      Do not examine the initialization file.
- e *expressions*                      Evaluate expressions in the interaction environment.
- prelude *expressions*                      Add expressions to the top of the source code being compiled.

<code>-postlude</code> <i>expressions</i>	Add expressions to the bottom of the source code being compiled.
<code>-cc-options</code> <i>options</i>	Add options to the command that invokes the C compiler.
<code>-ld-options</code> <i>options</i>	Add options to the command that invokes the C linker.
<code>-warnings</code>	Display warnings.
<code>-verbose</code>	Display a trace of the compiler's activity.
<code>-report</code>	Display a global variable usage report.
<code>-expansion</code>	Display the source code after expansion.
<code>-gvm</code>	Generate a listing of the GVM code.
<code>-debug</code>	Include debugging information in the code generated.
<code>-track-scheme</code>	Generate '#line' directives referring back to the Scheme code.
<code>-o</code> <i>output</i>	Set name of output file.
<code>-c</code>	Only compile Scheme source files to C (no link file generated).
<code>-dynamic</code>	Only compile Scheme source files to dynamically loadable object files (no link file generated).
<code>-flat</code>	Generate a flat link file instead of an incremental link file.
<code>-l</code> <i>base</i>	Specify the link file of the base library to use for the link.

The '-i' option forces the compiler to process the remaining command line arguments like the interpreter.

The '-e' option evaluates the specified expressions in the interaction environment.

The '-prelude' option adds the specified expressions to the top of the source code being compiled. The main use of this option is to supply declarations on the command line. For example the following invocation of the compiler will compile the file 'bench.scm' in unsafe mode:

```
% gsc -prelude "(declare (not safe))" bench.scm
```

The '-postlude' option adds the specified expressions to the bottom of the source code being compiled. The main use of this option is to supply the expression that will start the execution of the program. For example:

```
% gsc -postlude "(start-bench)" bench.scm
```

The '-cc-options' option is only meaningful when the '-dynamic' option is also used. The '-cc-options' option adds the specified options to the command that invokes the C compiler. The main use of this option is to specify the include path, some symbols to define or undefine, the optimization level, or any C compiler option that is different from the default. For example:

```
% gsc -dynamic -cc-options "-U__SINGLE_HOST -O2 -I src/include" bench.scm
```

The '-ld-options' option is only meaningful when the '-dynamic' option is also used. The '-ld-options' option adds the specified options to the command that invokes

the C linker. The main use of this option is to specify additional object files or libraries that need to be linked, or any C linker option that is different from the default (such as the library search path and flags to select between static and dynamic linking). For example:

```
% gsc -dynamic -ld-options "-L /usr/X11R6/lib -lX11 -static" bench.scm
```

The ‘-warnings’ option displays on standard output all warnings that the compiler may have.

The ‘-verbose’ option displays on standard output a trace of the compiler’s activity.

The ‘-report’ option displays on standard output a global variable usage report. Each global variable used in the program is listed with 4 flags that indicate whether the global variable is defined, referenced, mutated and called.

The ‘-expansion’ option displays on standard output the source code after expansion and inlining by the front end.

The ‘-gvm’ option generates a listing of the intermediate code for the “Gambit Virtual Machine” (GVM) of each Scheme file on ‘*file.gvm*’.

The ‘-debug’ option causes debugging information to be saved in the code generated. With this option run time error messages indicate the source code and its location, the backtraces are more precise, and the `pp` procedure will display the source code of compiled procedures. The debugging information is large (the size of the object file is typically 2 to 4 times bigger).

The ‘-track-scheme’ options causes the generation of ‘#line’ directives that refer back to the Scheme source code. This allows the use of a C debugger to debug Scheme code.

The ‘-o’ option sets the name of the output file generated by the compiler. When a link file is being generated the name specified is that of the link file. Otherwise the name specified is that of the C file (this option is ignored when the compiler is generating more than one output file or is generating a dynamically loadable object file).

If the ‘-c’ and ‘-dynamic’ options do not appear on the command line, the Gambit linker is invoked to generate the link file from the set of C files specified on the command line or produced by the Gambit compiler. Unless the name is specified explicitly with the ‘-o’ option, the link file is named ‘*last\_.c*’, where ‘*last.c*’ is the last file in the set of C files. When the ‘-c’ option is specified, the Scheme source files are compiled to C files. When the ‘-dynamic’ option is specified, the Scheme source files are compiled to dynamically loadable object files (‘.on’ extension).

The ‘-flat’ option is only meaningful when a link file is being generated (i.e. the ‘-c’ and ‘-dynamic’ options are absent). The ‘-flat’ option directs the Gambit linker to generate a flat link file. By default, the linker generates an incremental link file (see the next section for a description of the two types of link files).

The ‘-l’ option is only meaningful when an incremental link file is being generated (i.e. the ‘-c’, ‘-dynamic’ and ‘-flat’ options are absent). The ‘-l’ option specifies the link file (without the ‘.c’ extension) of the base library to use for the incremental link. By default the link file of the Gambit runtime library is used (i.e. ‘*~/lib/\_gambc.c*’).

### 3.4 Link files

Gambit can be used to create programs and libraries of Scheme modules. This section explains the steps required to do so and the role played by the link files.

In general, a program is composed of a set of Scheme modules and C modules. Some of the modules are part of the Gambit runtime library and the other modules are supplied by the user. When the program is started it must setup various global tables (including the symbol table and the global variable table) and then sequentially execute the Scheme modules (more or less as though they were being loaded one after another). The information required for this is contained in one or more *link files* generated by the Gambit linker from the C files produced by the Gambit compiler.

The order of execution of the Scheme modules corresponds to the order of the modules on the command line which produced the link file. The order is usually important because most modules define variables and procedures which are used by other modules (for this reason the program's main computation is normally started by the last module).

When a single link file is used to contain the linking information of all the Scheme modules it is called a *flat link file*. Thus a program built with a flat link file contains in its link file both information on the user modules and on the runtime library. This is fine if the program is to be statically linked but is wasteful in a shared-library context because the linking information of the runtime library can't be shared and will be duplicated in all programs (this linking information typically takes hundreds of kilobytes).

Flat link files are mainly useful to bundle multiple Scheme modules to make a runtime library (such as the Gambit runtime library) or to make a single file that can be loaded with the `load` procedure.

An *incremental link file* contains only the linking information that is not already contained in a second link file (the “base” link file). Assuming that a flat link file was produced when the runtime library was linked, a program can be built by linking the user modules with the runtime library's link file, producing an incremental link file. This allows the creation of a shared-library which contains the modules of the runtime library and its flat link file. The program is dynamically linked with this shared-library and only contains the user modules and the incremental link file. For small programs this approach greatly reduces the size of the program because the incremental link file is small. A “hello world” program built this way can be as small as 5 Kbytes. Note that it is perfectly fine to use an incremental link file for statically linked programs (there is very little loss compared to a single flat link file).

Incremental link files may be built from other incremental link files. This allows the creation of shared-libraries which extend the functionality of the Gambit runtime library.

#### 3.4.1 Building an executable program

The simplest way to create an executable program is to call up `gsc` to compile each Scheme module into a C file and create an incremental link file. The C files and the link file must then be compiled with a C compiler and linked (at the object file level) with the Gambit runtime library and possibly other libraries (such as the math library and the dynamic loading library). Here is for example how a program with three modules (one in C and two in Scheme) can be built:

```
% uname -a
```

```

Linux bailey 1.2.13 #2 Wed Aug 28 16:29:41 GMT 1996 i586
% cat m1.c
int power_of_2 (int x) { return 1<<x; }
% cat m2.scm
(c-declare "extern int power_of_2 ();")
(define pow2 (c-lambda (int) int "power_of_2"))
(define (twice x) (cons x x))
% cat m3.scm
(write (map twice (map pow2 '(1 2 3 4)))) (newline)
% gsc -c m2.scm # create m2.c (note: .scm is optional)
% gsc -c m3.scm # create m3.c (note: .scm is optional)
% gsc m2.c m3.c # create the incremental link file m3_.c
% gcc m1.c m2.c m3.c m3_.c -lgambc
% ./a.out
((2 . 2) (4 . 4) (8 . 8) (16 . 16))

```

Alternatively, the three invocations of `gsc` can be replaced by a single invocation:

```
% gsc m2 m3
```

### 3.4.2 Building a loadable library

To bundle multiple modules into a single file that can be dynamically loaded with the `load` procedure, a flat link file is needed. When compiling the C files and link file generated, the flag `'-D__DYNAMIC'` must be passed to the C compiler. The three modules of the previous example can be bundled in this way:

```

% uname -a
Linux bailey 1.2.13 #2 Wed Aug 28 16:29:41 GMT 1996 i586
% gsc -flat -o foo.c m2 m3
m2:
m3:
*** WARNING -- "cons" is not defined,
***             referenced in: ("m2.c")
*** WARNING -- "map" is not defined,
***             referenced in: ("m3.c")
*** WARNING -- "newline" is not defined,
***             referenced in: ("m3.c")
*** WARNING -- "write" is not defined,
***             referenced in: ("m3.c")
% gcc -shared -fPIC -D__DYNAMIC m1.c m2.c m3.c foo.c -o foo.o1
% gsi
Gambit Version 4.0 beta 11

> (load "foo")
((2 . 2) (4 . 4) (8 . 8) (16 . 16))
"/users/feeley/foo.o1"
> ,q

```

The warnings indicate that there are no definitions (`defines` or `set!`s) of the variables `cons`, `map`, `newline` and `write` in the set of modules being linked. Before `'foo.o1'` is loaded, these variables will have to be bound; either implicitly (by the runtime library) or explicitly.

Here is a more complex example, under Solaris, which shows how to build a loadable library `'mymod.o1'` composed of the files `'m1.scm'`, `'m2.scm'` and `'x.c'` that links to system shared libraries (for X-windows):

```

% uname -a
SunOS ungava 5.6 Generic_105181-05 sun4m sparc SUNW,SPARCstation-20

```

```

% gsc -flat -o mymod.c m1 m2
m1:
m2:
*** WARNING -- "*" is not defined,
***           referenced in: ("m1.c")
*** WARNING -- "+" is not defined,
***           referenced in: ("m2.c")
*** WARNING -- "display" is not defined,
***           referenced in: ("m2.c" "m1.c")
*** WARNING -- "newline" is not defined,
***           referenced in: ("m2.c" "m1.c")
*** WARNING -- "write" is not defined,
***           referenced in: ("m2.c")
% gcc -fPIC -c -I../lib -D__DYNAMIC mymod.c m1.c m2.c x.c
% /usr/ccs/bin/ld -G -o mymod.o1 mymod.o m1.o m2.o x.o -lX11 -lsocket
% gsi mymod.o1
hello from m1
hello from m2
(f1 10) = 22
% cat m1.scm
(define (f1 x) (* 2 (f2 x)))
(display "hello from m1")
(newline)

(c-declare "#include \"x.h\"")
(define x-initialize (c-lambda (char-string) bool "x_initialize"))
(define x-display-name (c-lambda () char-string "x_display_name"))
(define x-bell (c-lambda (int) void "x_bell"))
% cat m2.scm
(define (f2 x) (+ x 1))
(display "hello from m2")
(newline)

(display "(f1 10) = ")
(write (f1 10))
(newline)

(x-initialize (x-display-name))
(x-bell 50) ; sound the bell at 50%
% cat x.c
#include <X11/Xlib.h>

static Display *display;

int x_initialize (char *display_name)
{
    display = XOpenDisplay (display_name);
    return display != NULL;
}

char *x_display_name (void)
{
    return XDisplayName (NULL);
}

void x_bell (int volume)
{
    XBell (display, volume);
}

```

```

    XFlush (display);
}
% cat x.h
int x_initialize (char *display_name);
char *x_display_name (void);
void x_bell (int);

```

### 3.4.3 Building a shared-library

A shared-library can be built using an incremental link file or a flat link file. An incremental link file is normally used when the Gambit runtime library (or some other library) is to be extended with new procedures. A flat link file is mainly useful when building a “primal” runtime library, which is a library (such as the Gambit runtime library) that does not extend another library. When compiling the C files and link file generated, the flags ‘-D\_\_LIBRARY’ and ‘-D\_\_SHARED’ must be passed to the C compiler. The flag ‘-D\_\_PRIMAL’ must also be passed to the C compiler when a primal library is being built.

A shared-library ‘mylib.so’ containing the two first modules of the previous example can be built this way:

```

% uname -a
Linux bailey 1.2.13 #2 Wed Aug 28 16:29:41 GMT 1996 i586
% gsc -o mylib.c m2
% gcc -shared -fPIC -D__LIBRARY -D__SHARED m1.c m2.c mylib.c -o mylib.so

```

Note that this shared-library is built using an incremental link file (it extends the Gambit runtime library with the procedures `pow2` and `twice`). This shared-library can in turn be used to build an executable program from the third module of the previous example:

```

% gsc -l mylib m3
% gcc m3.c m3_.c mylib.so -lgamblc
% LD_LIBRARY_PATH=./usr/local/lib ./a.out
((2 . 2) (4 . 4) (8 . 8) (16 . 16))

```

### 3.4.4 Other compilation options

The performance of the code can be increased by passing the ‘-D\_\_SINGLE\_HOST’ flag to the C compiler. This will merge all the procedures of a module into a single C procedure, which reduces the cost of intra-module procedure calls. In addition the ‘-O’ option can be passed to the C compiler. For large modules, it will not be practical to specify both ‘-O’ and ‘-D\_\_SINGLE\_HOST’ for typical C compilers because the compile time will be high and the C compiler might even fail to compile the program for lack of memory.

Normally C compilers will not automatically search ‘/usr/local/Gambit-C/include’ for header files so the flag ‘-I/usr/local/Gambit-C/include’ should be passed to the C compiler. Similarly, C compilers/linkers will not automatically search ‘/usr/local/Gambit-C/lib’ for libraries so the flag ‘-L/usr/local/Gambit-C/lib’ should be passed to the C compiler/linker. Alternatives are given in [Section 1.1 \[Accessing the system files\], page 1](#).

A variety of flags are needed by some C compilers when compiling a shared-library or a dynamically loadable library. Some of these flags are: ‘-shared’, ‘-call\_shared’, ‘-rdynamic’, ‘-fpic’, ‘-fPIC’, ‘-Kpic’, ‘-KPIC’, ‘-pic’, ‘+z’. Check your compiler’s documentation to see which flag you need.



### 3.5 Procedures specific to compiler

The Gambit Scheme compiler features the following procedures that are not available in the Gambit Scheme interpreter.

`(compile-file-to-c file [options [output]])` [procedure]

The *file* argument must be a string naming an existing file containing Scheme source code. The extension can be omitted from *file* when the Scheme file has a `‘.scm’` or `‘.six’` extension. This procedure compiles the source file into a file containing C code. By default, this file is named after *file* with the extension replaced with `‘.c’`. However, when *output* is supplied the file is named `‘output’`.

Compilation options are given as a list of symbols after the file name. Any combination of the following options can be used: `‘verbose’`, `‘report’`, `‘expansion’`, `‘gvm’`, and `‘debug’`.

`(compile-file file [options])` [procedure]

The arguments of `compile-file` are the same as the first two arguments of `compile-file-to-c`. The `compile-file` procedure compiles the source file into an object file by first generating a C file and then compiling it with the C compiler. The object file is named after *file* with the extension replaced with `‘.on’`, where *n* is a positive integer that acts as a version number. The next available version number is generated automatically by `compile-file`. Object files can be loaded dynamically by using the `load` procedure. The `‘.on’` extension can be specified (to select a particular version) or omitted (to load the highest numbered version). When older versions are no longer needed, all versions must be deleted and the compilation must be repeated (this is necessary because the file name, including the extension, is used to name some of the exported symbols of the object file).

Note that this procedure is only available on host operating systems that support dynamic loading.

`(link-incremental module-list [output [base]])` [procedure]

The first argument must be a non empty list of strings naming Scheme modules to link (extensions must be omitted). The remaining optional arguments must be strings. An incremental link file is generated for the modules specified in *module-list*. By default the link file generated is named `‘last_.c’`, where *last* is the name of the last module. However, when *output* is supplied the link file is named `‘output’`. The base link file is specified by the *base* parameter. By default the base link file is the Gambit runtime library link file `‘~/lib/_gambc.c’`. However, when *base* is supplied the base link file is named `‘base.c’`.

The following example shows how to build the executable program `‘hello’` which contains the two Scheme modules `‘m1.scm’` and `‘m2.scm’`.

```
% uname -a
Linux bailey 1.2.13 #2 Wed Aug 28 16:29:41 GMT 1996 i586
% cat m1.scm
(display "hello") (newline)
% cat m2.scm
(display "world") (newline)
% gsc
Gambit Version 4.0 beta 11
```



```

> (compile-file-to-c "m1")
#t
> (compile-file-to-c "m2")
#t
> (link-incremental '("m1" "m2") "hello.c")
> ,q
% gcc m1.c m2.c hello.c -lgambc -o hello
% ./hello
hello
world

```

(link-flat *module-list* [*output*]) [procedure]

The first argument must be a non empty list of strings. The first string must be the name of a Scheme module or the name of a link file and the remaining strings must name Scheme modules (in all cases extensions must be omitted). If it is supplied, the second argument must be a string. A flat link file is generated for the modules specified in *module-list*. By default the link file generated is named '*last\_.c*', where *last* is the name of the last module. However, when *output* is supplied the link file is named '*output*'.

The following example shows how to build the dynamically loadable Scheme library '*lib.o1*' which contains the two Scheme modules '*m1.scm*' and '*m2.scm*'.

```

% uname -a
Linux bailey 1.2.13 #2 Wed Aug 28 16:29:41 GMT 1996 i586
% cat m1.scm
(define (f x) (g (* x x)))
% cat m2.scm
(define (g y) (+ n y))
% gsc
Gambit Version 4.0 beta 11

> (compile-file-to-c "m1")
#t
> (compile-file-to-c "m2")
#t
> (link-flat '("m1" "m2") "lib.c")
*** WARNING -- "*" is not defined,
***             referenced in: ("m1.c")
*** WARNING -- "+" is not defined,
***             referenced in: ("m2.c")
*** WARNING -- "n" is not defined,
***             referenced in: ("m2.c")
> ,q
% gcc -shared -fPIC -D__DYNAMIC m1.c m2.c lib.c -o lib.o1
% gsc
Gambit Version 4.0 beta 11

> (load "lib")
*** WARNING -- Variable "n" used in module "m2" is undefined
"/users/feeley/lib.o1"
> (define n 10)
> (f 5)
35
> ,q

```

The warnings indicate that there are no definitions (`defines` or `set!`s) of the variables `*`, `+` and `n` in the modules contained in the library. Before the library is used, these variables will have to be bound; either implicitly (by the runtime library) or explicitly.

## 4 Runtime options for all programs

Both `gsi` and `gsc` as well as executable programs compiled and linked using `gsc` take a ‘-:’ option which supplies parameters to the runtime system. This option must appear first on the command line. The colon is followed by a comma separated list of options with no intervening spaces. The available options are:

<code>mHEAPSIZE</code>	Set minimum heap size in kilobytes.
<code>hHEAPSIZE</code>	Set maximum heap size in kilobytes.
<code>lLIVEPERCENT</code>	Set heap occupation after garbage collection.
<code>s</code>	Select standard Scheme mode.
<code>S</code>	Select Gambit Scheme mode.
<code>d[OPT...]</code>	Set debugging options.
<code>=DIRECTORY</code>	Override the Gambit installation directory.
<code>+ARGUMENT</code>	Add <i>ARGUMENT</i> to the command line before other arguments.
<code>f[OPT...]</code>	Set file options.
<code>t[OPT...]</code>	Set terminal options.

The ‘m’ option specifies the minimum size of the heap. The ‘m’ is immediately followed by an integer indicating the number of kilobytes of memory. The heap will not shrink lower than this size. By default, the minimum size is 0.

The ‘h’ option specifies the maximum size of the heap. The ‘h’ is immediately followed by an integer indicating the number of kilobytes of memory. The heap will not grow larger than this size. By default, there is no limit (i.e. the heap will grow until the virtual memory is exhausted).

The ‘l’ option specifies the percentage of the heap that will be occupied with live objects after the heap is resized at the end of a garbage collection. The ‘l’ is immediately followed by an integer between 1 and 100 inclusively indicating the desired percentage. The garbage collector resizes the heap to reach this percentage occupation. By default, the percentage is 50.

The ‘s’ option selects standard Scheme mode. In this mode the reader is case-insensitive and keywords are not recognized. The ‘S’ option selects Gambit Scheme mode (the reader is case-sensitive and recognizes keywords which end with a colon). By default Gambit Scheme mode is used.

The ‘d’ option sets various debugging options. The letter ‘d’ is followed by a sequence of letters indicating suboptions.

<code>p</code>	Uncaught exceptions will be treated as “errors” in the primordial thread only.
<code>a</code>	Uncaught exceptions will be treated as “errors” in all threads.
<code>r</code>	When an “error” occurs a new REPL will be started.
<code>s</code>	When an “error” occurs a new REPL will be started. Moreover the program starts in single-stepping mode.

<code>q</code>	When an “error” occurs the program will terminate with a nonzero exit status.
<code>i</code>	The REPL interaction channel will be the IDE REPL window (if the IDE is available).
<code>c</code>	The REPL interaction channel will be the console.
<code>-</code>	The REPL interaction channel will be standard input and standard output.
<code>LEVEL</code>	The verbosity level is set to <i>LEVEL</i> (a digit from 0 to 9). At level 0 the runtime system will not display error messages and warnings.

The default debugging options are equivalent to `-:dpqi1` (i.e. an uncaught exception in the primordial thread terminates the program after displaying an error message). When the letter ‘d’ is not followed by suboptions, it is equivalent to `-:dpr i1` (i.e. a new REPL is started only when an uncaught exception occurs in the primordial thread).

The ‘=’ option overrides the setting of the Gambit installation directory.

The ‘+’ option adds the text that follows to the command line before other arguments.

The ‘f’ and ‘t’ options specify the default settings of the ports created for files and terminals respectively. The default character encoding and end-of-line encoding can be set for both types of ports. For terminals the line-editing feature can be enabled or disabled. The ‘f’ and ‘t’ must be followed by a sequence of these options:

<code>a</code>	ASCII character encoding.
<code>1</code>	LATIN1 character encoding.
<code>2</code>	UCS2 character encoding.
<code>4</code>	UCS4 character encoding.
<code>8</code>	UTF8 character encoding.
<code>n</code>	Native character encoding.
<code>c</code>	End-of-line is encoded as CR (carriage-return).
<code>l</code>	End-of-line is encoded as LF (linefeed)
<code>cl</code>	End-of-line is encoded as CR-LF.
<code>e</code>	Enable line-editing (applies to terminals only).
<code>E</code>	Disable line-editing (applies to terminals only).

When the environment variable ‘GAMBCOPT’ is defined, the runtime system will take its options from that environment variable. A ‘-:’ option can be used to override some or all of the runtime system options. For example:

```
% GAMBCOPT=d0,=~ /my-gambit2
% export GAMBCOPT
% gsi -e '(pretty-print (path-expand "~~")) (/ 1 0)'
"/u/feeley/my-gambit2/"
% echo $?
70
% gsi -:d1 -e '(pretty-print (path-expand "~~")) (/ 1 0)'
"/u/feeley/my-gambit2/"
*** ERROR IN string@1.25 -- Divide by zero
(/ 1 0)
```

## 5 Debugging

### 5.1 Debugging model

The evaluation of an expression may stop before it is completed for the following reasons:

- a. An evaluation error has occurred, such as attempting to divide by zero.
- b. The user has interrupted the evaluation (usually by typing `⌘C`).
- c. A breakpoint has been reached or `(step)` was evaluated.
- d. Single-stepping mode is enabled.

When an evaluation stops, a message is displayed indicating the reason and location where the evaluation was stopped. The location information includes, if known, the name of the procedure where the evaluation was stopped and the source code location in the format `'stream@line.column'`, where *stream* is either a string naming a file or a symbol within parentheses, such as `'(console)'`.

A *nested REPL* is then initiated in the context of the point of execution where the evaluation was stopped. The nested REPL's continuation and evaluation environment are the same as the point where the evaluation was stopped. For example when evaluating the expression `'(let ((y (- 1 1))) (* (/ x y) 2))'`, a “divide by zero” error is reported and the nested REPL's continuation is the one that takes the result and multiplies it by two. The REPL's lexical environment includes the lexical variable `'y'`. This allows the inspection of the evaluation context (i.e. the lexical and dynamic environments and continuation), which is particularly useful to determine the exact location and cause of an error.

The prompt of nested REPLs includes the nesting level; `'1>'` is the prompt at the first nesting level, `'2>'` at the second nesting level, and so on. An end of file (usually `⌘D`) will cause the current REPL to be terminated and the enclosing REPL (one nesting level less) to be resumed.

At any time the user can examine the frames in the REPL's continuation, which is useful to determine which chain of procedure calls lead to an error. A backtrace that lists the chain of active continuation frames in the REPL's continuation can be obtained with the `','b'` command. The frames are numbered from 0, that is frame 0 is the most recent frame of the continuation where execution stopped, frame 1 is the parent frame of frame 0, and so on. It is also possible to move the REPL to a specific parent continuation (i.e. a specific frame of the continuation where execution stopped) with the `','+', ','-', and ','n'` commands (where *n* is the frame number). When the frame number of the frame being examined is not zero, it is shown in the prompt after the nesting level, for example `'1\5>'` is the prompt when the REPL nesting level is 1 and the frame number is 5.

Expressions entered at a nested REPL are evaluated in the environment (both lexical and dynamic) of the continuation frame currently being examined if that frame was created by interpreted Scheme code. If the frame was created by compiled Scheme code then expressions get evaluated in the global interaction environment. This feature may be used in interpreted code to fetch the value of a variable in the current frame or to change its value with `set!`. Note that some special forms (`define` in particular) can only be evaluated in the global interaction environment.

## 5.2 Debugging commands

In addition to expressions, the REPL accepts the following special “comma” commands:

<code>,?</code>	Give a summary of the REPL commands.
<code>,q</code>	Terminate the current thread (note that terminating the primordial thread terminates the program). To terminate the program from any thread, call the <code>exit</code> procedure.
<code>,t</code>	Return to the outermost REPL, also known as the “top-level REPL”.
<code>,d</code>	Leave the current REPL and resume the enclosing REPL. This command does nothing in the top-level REPL.
<code>,(c expr)</code>	Leave the current REPL and continue the computation that initiated the REPL with a specific value. This command can only be used to continue a computation that signaled an error. The expression <i>expr</i> is evaluated in the current context and the resulting value is returned as the value of the expression which signaled the error. For example, if the evaluation of the expression <code>( * ( / x y ) 2 )</code> signaled an error because <code>'y'</code> is zero, then in the nested REPL a <code>,(c (+ 4 y))</code> will resume the computation of <code>( * ( / x y ) 2 )</code> as though the value of <code>( / x y )</code> was 4. This command must be used carefully because the context where the error occurred may rely on the result being of a particular type. For instance a <code>,(c #f)</code> in the previous example will cause <code>*</code> to signal a type error (this problem is the most troublesome when debugging Scheme code that was compiled with type checking turned off so be careful).
<code>,c</code>	Leave the current REPL and continue the computation that initiated the REPL. This command can only be used to continue a computation that was stopped due to a user interrupt, breakpoint or a single-step.
<code>,s</code>	Leave the current REPL and continue the computation that initiated the REPL in single-stepping mode. The computation will perform an evaluation step (as defined by <code>step-level-set!</code> ) and then stop, causing a nested REPL to be entered. Just before the evaluation step is performed, a line is displayed (in the same format as <code>trace</code> ) which indicates the expression that is being evaluated. If the evaluation step produces a result, the result is also displayed on another line. A nested REPL is then entered after displaying a message which describes the next step of the computation. This command can only be used to continue a computation that was stopped due to a user interrupt, breakpoint or a single-step.
<code>,l</code>	This command is similar to <code>,s</code> except that it “leaps” over procedure calls, that is procedure calls are treated like a single step. Single-stepping mode will resume when the procedure call returns, or if and when the execution of the called procedure encounters a breakpoint.

<code>,n</code>	Move to frame number <i>n</i> of the continuation. After changing the current frame, a one-line summary of the frame is displayed as if the <code>‘,y’</code> command was entered.
<code>,+</code>	Move to the next frame in the chain of continuation frames (i.e. towards older continuation frames). After changing the current frame, a one-line summary of the frame is displayed as if the <code>‘,y’</code> command was entered.
<code>,-</code>	Move to the previous frame in the chain of continuation frames (i.e. towards more recently created continuation frames). After changing the current frame, a one-line summary of the frame is displayed as if the <code>‘,y’</code> command was entered.
<code>,y</code>	Display a one-line summary of the current frame. The information is displayed in four fields. The first field is the frame number. The second field is the procedure that created the frame or <code>‘(interaction)’</code> if the frame was created by an expression entered at the REPL. The remaining fields describe the subproblem associated with the frame, that is the expression whose value is being computed. The third field is the location of the subproblem’s source code and the fourth field is a reproduction of the source code, possibly truncated to fit on the line. The last two fields may be missing if that information is not available. In particular, the third field is missing when the frame was created by a user call to the <code>‘eval’</code> procedure, and the last two fields are missing when the frame was created by a compiled procedure not compiled with the <code>‘-debug’</code> option.
<code>,b</code>	Display a backtrace summarizing each frame in the chain of continuation frames starting with the current frame. For each frame, the same information as for the <code>‘,y’</code> command is displayed (except that location information is displayed in the format <code>‘stream@line:column’</code> ). If there are more than 15 frames in the chain of continuation frames, some of the middle frames will be omitted.
<code>,i</code>	Pretty print the procedure that created the current frame or <code>‘(interaction)’</code> if the frame was created by an expression entered at the REPL. Compiled procedures will only be pretty printed when they are compiled with the <code>‘-debug’</code> option.
<code>,e</code>	Display the environment which is accessible from the current frame. Both the lexical and dynamic environments are displayed. However, only non-global lexical variables are displayed and only if the frame was created by interpreted code or code compiled with the <code>‘-debug’</code> option. Due to space safety considerations and compiler optimizations, some of the lexical variable bindings may be missing. Lexical variable bindings are displayed using the format <code>‘variable = expression’</code> and dynamically-bound parameter bindings are displayed using the format <code>‘(parameter) = expression’</code> . Note that <i>expression</i> can be a self-evaluating expression (number, string, boolean, character, ...), a quoted expression, a lambda expression or a global variable (the last two cases,

which are only used when the value of the variable or parameter is a procedure, simplifies the debugging of higher-order procedures). A *parameter* can be a quoted expression or a global variable. Lexical bindings are displayed in inverse binding order (most deeply nested first) and shadowed variables are included in the list.

Here is a sample interaction with `gsi`:

```
% gsi
Gambit Version 4.0 beta 11

> (define (invsqr x) (/ 1 (expt x 2)))
> (define (mymap fn lst)
  (define (mm in)
    (if (null? in)
        '()
        (cons (fn (car in)) (mm (cdr in)))))
  (mm lst))
> (mymap invsqr '(5 2 hello 9 1))
*** ERROR IN invsqr, (console)@1.25 -- (Argument 1) NUMBER expected
(expt 'hello 2)
1> ,i
#<procedure #2 invsqr> =
(lambda (x) (/ 1 (expt x 2)))
1> ,e
x = 'hello
(current-exception-handler) = primordial-exception-handler
(current-input-port) = '#<input-output-port #3 (console)>
(current-output-port) = '#<input-output-port #3 (console)>
(current-directory) = "/u/feeley/work/"
('#<procedure #4>) = '#<repl-context #5>
1> ,b
0 invsqr (console)@1:25 (expt x 2)
1 #<procedure #6> (console)@6:17 (fn (car in))
2 #<procedure #6> (console)@6:31 (mm (cdr in))
3 #<procedure #6> (console)@6:31 (mm (cdr in))
4 (interaction) (console)@8:1 (mymap invsqr '(5 2 hel...
5 ##main
1> ,+
1 #<procedure #6> (console)@6.17 (fn (car in))
1\1> (pp #6)
(lambda (in) (if (null? in) '() (cons (fn (car in)) (mm (cdr in)))))
1\1> ,e
in = '(hello 9 1)
mm = (lambda (in) (if (null? in) '() (cons (fn (car in)) (mm (cdr in)))))
fn = invsqr
lst = '(5 2 hello 9 1)
(current-exception-handler) = primordial-exception-handler
(current-input-port) = '#<input-output-port #3 (console)>
(current-output-port) = '#<input-output-port #3 (console)>
(current-directory) = "/u/feeley/work/"
('#<procedure #4>) = '#<repl-context #5>
1\1> fn
#<procedure #2 invsqr>
1\1> (pp fn)
(lambda (x) (/ 1 (expt x 2)))
1\1> ,+
2 #<procedure #6> (console)@6.31 (mm (cdr in))
```



```

1\2> ,e
in = '(2 hello 9 1)
mm = (lambda (in) (if (null? in) '() (cons (fn (car in)) (mm (cdr in)))))
fn = invsqr
lst = '(5 2 hello 9 1)
(current-exception-handler) = primordial-exception-handler
(current-input-port) = '#<input-output-port #3 (console)>
(current-output-port) = '#<input-output-port #3 (console)>
(current-directory) = "/u/feeley/work/"
('#<procedure #4>) = '#<repl-context #5>
1\2> ,(c (list 3 4 5))
(1/25 1/4 3 4 5)
> ,q

```

### 5.3 Procedures related to debugging

(trace <i>proc...</i> )	[procedure]
(untrace <i>proc...</i> )	[procedure]

The `trace` procedure starts tracing calls to the specified procedures. When a traced procedure is called, a line containing the procedure and its arguments is displayed (using the procedure call expression syntax). The line is indented with a sequence of vertical bars which indicate the nesting depth of the procedure's continuation. After the vertical bars is a greater-than sign which indicates that the evaluation of the call is starting.

When a traced procedure returns a result, it is displayed with the same indentation as the call but without the greater-than sign. This makes it easy to match calls and results (the result of a given call is the value at the same indentation as the greater-than sign). If a traced procedure P1 performs a tail call to a traced procedure P2, then P2 will use the same indentation as P1. This makes it easy to spot tail calls. The special handling for tail calls is needed to preserve the space complexity of the program (i.e. tail calls are implemented as required by Scheme even when they involve traced procedures).

The `untrace` procedure stops tracing calls to the specified procedures. When no arguments is passed to the `trace` procedure, the list of procedures currently being traced is returned. The void object is returned by the `trace` procedure when it is passed one or more arguments. When no argument is passed to the `untrace` procedure stops all tracing and returns the void object. A compiled procedure may be traced but only if it is bound to a global variable.

For example:

```

> (define (fact n) (if (< n 2) 1 (* n (fact (- n 1)))))
> (trace fact)
> (fact 5)
| > (fact 5)
| | > (fact 4)
| | | > (fact 3)
| | | | > (fact 2)
| | | | | > (fact 1)
| | | | | 1
| | | | 2
| | | 6
| | 24

```

```

| 120
120
> (trace -)
*** WARNING -- Rebinding global variable "-" to an interpreted procedure
> (define (fact-iter n r) (if (< n 2) r (fact-iter (- n 1) (* n r))))
> (trace fact-iter)
> (fact-iter 5 1)
| > (fact-iter 5 1)
| | > (- 5 1)
| | 4
| > (fact-iter 4 5)
| | > (- 4 1)
| | 3
| > (fact-iter 3 20)
| | > (- 3 1)
| | 2
| > (fact-iter 2 60)
| | > (- 2 1)
| | 1
| > (fact-iter 1 120)
| 120
120
> (trace)
(#<procedure fact-iter> #<procedure -> #<procedure fact>)
> (untrace)
> (fact 5)
120

```

```

(step) [procedure]
(step-level-set! level) [procedure]

```

The `step` procedure enables single-stepping mode. After the call to `step` the computation will stop just before the interpreter executes the next evaluation step (as defined by `step-level-set!`). A nested REPL is then started. Note that because single-stepping is stopped by the REPL whenever the prompt is displayed it is pointless to enter `(step)` by itself. On the other hand entering `(begin (step) expr)` will evaluate `expr` in single-stepping mode.

The procedure `step-level-set!` sets the stepping level which determines the granularity of the evaluation steps when single-stepping is enabled. The stepping level `level` must be an exact integer in the range 0 to 7. At a level of 0, the interpreter ignores single-stepping mode. At higher levels the interpreter stops the computation just before it performs the following operations, depending on the stepping level:

1. procedure call
2. delay special form and operations at lower levels
3. lambda special form and operations at lower levels
4. define special form and operations at lower levels
5. set! special form and operations at lower levels
6. variable reference and operations at lower levels
7. constant reference and operations at lower levels

The default stepping level is 7.

For example:

```

> (define (fact n) (if (< n 2) 1 (* n (fact (- n 1)))))
> (step-level-set! 1)
> (begin (step) (fact 5))
*** STOPPED IN (stdin)@3.15
1> ,s
| > (fact 5)
*** STOPPED IN fact, (stdin)@1.22
1> ,s
| | > (< n 2)
| | #f
*** STOPPED IN fact, (stdin)@1.43
1> ,s
| | > (- n 1)
| | 4
*** STOPPED IN fact, (stdin)@1.37
1> ,s
| | > (fact (- n 1))
*** STOPPED IN fact, (stdin)@1.22
1> ,s
| | | > (< n 2)
| | | #f
*** STOPPED IN fact, (stdin)@1.43
1> ,s
| | | > (- n 1)
| | | 3
*** STOPPED IN fact, (stdin)@1.37
1> ,l
| | | > (fact (- n 1))
| | | 6
*** STOPPED IN fact, (stdin)@1.32
1> ,l
| | | > (* n (fact (- n 1)))
| | | 24
*** STOPPED IN fact, (stdin)@1.32
1> ,l
| | > (* n (fact (- n 1)))
| 120
120

```

(break *proc...*) [procedure]

(unbreak *proc...*) [procedure]

The `break` procedure places a breakpoint on each of the specified procedures. When a procedure is called that has a breakpoint, the interpreter will enable single-stepping mode (as if `step` had been called). This typically causes the computation to stop soon inside the procedure if the stepping level is high enough.

The `unbreak` procedure removes the breakpoints on the specified procedures. With no argument, `break` returns the list of procedures currently containing breakpoints. The void object is returned by `break` if it is passed one or more arguments. With no argument `unbreak` removes all the breakpoints and returns the void object. A breakpoint can be placed on a compiled procedure but only if it is bound to a global variable.

For example:

```

> (define (double x) (+ x x))
> (define (triple y) (- (double (double y)) y))
> (define (f z) (* (triple z) 10))

```

```

> (break double)
> (break -)
*** WARNING -- Rebinding global variable "-" to an interpreted procedure
> (f 5)
*** STOPPED IN double, (stdin)@1.21
1> ,b
0 double (stdin)@1:21 +
1 triple (stdin)@2:31 (double y)
2 f (stdin)@3:18 (triple z)
3 (interaction) (stdin)@6:1 (f 5)
4 ##initial-continuation
1> ,e
x = 5
1> ,c
*** STOPPED IN double, (stdin)@1.21
1> ,c
*** STOPPED IN f, (stdin)@3.29
1> ,c
150
> (break)
(#<procedure -> #<procedure double>)
> (unbreak)
> (f 5)
150

```

(proper-tail-calls-set! *proper?*) [procedure]

This procedure sets a flag that controls how the interpreter handles tail calls. When *proper?* is #f the interpreter will treat tail calls like nontail calls, that is a new continuation will be created for the call. This setting is useful for debugging, because when a primitive signals an error the location information will point to the call site of the primitive even if this primitive was called with a tail call. The default setting of this flag is #t, which means that a tail call will reuse the continuation of the calling function.

The setting of this flag only affects code that is subsequently processed by `load` or `eval`, or entered at the REPL.

(display-environment-set! *display?*) [procedure]

This procedure sets a flag that controls the automatic display of the environment by the REPL. If *display?* is true, the environment is displayed by the REPL before the prompt. The default setting is not to display the environment.

(object->serial-number *obj*) [procedure]

(serial-number->object *n*) [procedure]

All Scheme objects are uniquely identified with a serial number which is an exact integer. The `object->serial-number` procedure returns the serial number of object *obj*. This serial number is only allocated the first time the `object->serial-number` procedure is called on that object. Objects which do not have an external textual representation that can be read by the `read` procedure, use an external textual representation that includes a serial number of the form #*n*. Consequently, the procedures `write`, `pretty-print`, etc will call the `object->serial-number` procedure to get the serial number, and this may cause the serial number to be allocated.

The `serial-number->object` procedure takes an exact integer argument  $n$  and returns the object whose serial number is  $n$ , or `#f` if that object no longer exists or the serial number has never been used before. The reader defines the following abbreviation for calling `serial-number->object`: the syntax `# $n$` , where  $n$  is a sequence of decimal digits and it is not followed by `'=` or `#'`, is equivalent to the list `(serial-number->object  $n$ )`.

For example:

```
> (define z (list (lambda (x) (* x x)) (lambda (y) (/ 1 y))))
> z
(#<procedure #2> #<procedure #3>)
> (#3 10)
1/10
> '(#3 10)
((serial-number->object 3) 10)
> car
#<procedure #4 car>
> (#4 z)
#<procedure #2>
```

`(pretty-print obj [port])` [procedure]

This procedure pretty-prints *obj* on the port *port*. If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current output-port.

For example:

```
> (pretty-print
  (let* ((x '(1 2 3 4)) (y (list x x x)) (list y y y)))
  ((1 2 3 4) (1 2 3 4) (1 2 3 4))
  ((1 2 3 4) (1 2 3 4) (1 2 3 4))
  ((1 2 3 4) (1 2 3 4) (1 2 3 4)))
```

`(pp obj [port])` [procedure]

This procedure pretty-prints *obj* on the port *port*. When *obj* is a procedure created by the interpreter or a procedure created by code compiled with the `'-debug'` option, the procedure's source code is displayed. If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the interaction channel (i.e. the output will appear at the REPL).

For example:

```
> (define (f g) (+ (time (g 100)) (time (g 1000))))
> (pp f)
(lambda (g)
  (+ (##time (lambda () (g 100)) '(g 100))
     (##time (lambda () (g 1000)) '(g 1000))))
```

`(gc-report-set! report?)` [procedure]

This procedure controls the generation of reports during garbage collections. If the argument is true, a brief report of memory usage is generated after every garbage collection. It contains: the time taken for this garbage collection, the amount of memory allocated in megabytes since the program was started, the size of the heap in megabytes, the heap memory in megabytes occupied by live data, the proportion of the heap occupied by live data, and the number of bytes occupied by movable and nonmovable objects.

## 5.4 Console line-editing

The console implements a simple Scheme-friendly line-editing user-interface that is enabled by default. It offers parentheses balancing, a history of previous commands, and several emacs-compatible keyboard commands. The user's input is displayed in a bold font and the output produced by the system is in a plain font. Here are the keyboard commands available (where the 'M-' prefix means the escape key is typed and the 'C-' prefix means the control key is pressed):

C-d	Generate an end-of-file when the line is empty, otherwise delete character at cursor.
C-a	Move cursor to beginning of line.
C-e	Move cursor to end of line.
C-b or <i>left-arrow</i>	Move cursor left one character.
M-C-b or M- <i>left-arrow</i>	Move cursor left one S-expression.
C-f or <i>right-arrow</i>	Move cursor right one character.
M-C-f or M- <i>right-arrow</i>	Move cursor right one S-expression.
C-p or <i>up-arrow</i>	Move to previous line in history.
C-n or <i>down-arrow</i>	Move to next line in history.
C-t	Transpose character at cursor with previous character.
M-C-t	Transpose S-expression at cursor with previous S-expression.
C-l	Clear console and redraw line being edited.
C-nul	Set the mark to the cursor.
C-w	Delete the text between the cursor and the mark and keep a copy of this text on the internal clipboard.
C-k	Delete the text from the cursor to the end of the line and keep a copy of this text on the internal clipboard.
C-y	Paste the text that is on the internal clipboard.
F8	Same as typing '#     #, c ;' (REPL command to continue the computation).
F9	Same as typing '#     #, - ;' (REPL command to move to newer frame).
F10	Same as typing '#     #, + ;' (REPL command to move to older frame).
F11	Same as typing '#     #, s ;' (REPL command to step the computation).
F12	Same as typing '#     #, l ;' (REPL command to leap the computation).

Note that on Mac OS X, depending on your configuration, you may have to press the **fn** key to access the function key F12 and the **option** key to access the other function keys.

## 5.5 Emacs interface

Gambit comes with the Emacs package ‘gambit.el’ which provides a nice environment for running Gambit from within the Emacs editor. This package filters the standard output of the Gambit process and when it intercepts a location information (in the format ‘*stream@line.column*’ where *stream* is either ‘(stdin)’ when the expression was obtained from standard input, ‘(console)’ when the expression was obtained from the console, or a string naming a file) it opens a window to highlight the corresponding expression.

To use this package, make sure the file ‘gambit.el’ is accessible from your load-path and that the following lines are in your ‘.emacs’ file:

```
(autoload 'gambit-inferior-mode "gambit" "Hook Gambit mode into cmuscheme.")
(autoload 'gambit-mode "gambit" "Hook Gambit mode into scheme.")
(add-hook 'inferior-scheme-mode-hook (function gambit-inferior-mode))
(add-hook 'scheme-mode-hook (function gambit-mode))
(setq scheme-program-name "gsi -:d-")
```

Alternatively, if you don’t mind always loading this package, you can simply add this line to your ‘.emacs’ file:

```
(require 'gambit)
```

You can then start an inferior Gambit process by typing ‘M-x run-scheme’. The commands provided in ‘cmuscheme’ mode will be available in the Gambit interaction buffer (i.e. ‘\*scheme\*’) and in buffers attached to Scheme source files. Here is a list of the most useful commands (for a complete list type ‘C-h m’ in the Gambit interaction buffer):

C-x C-e	Evaluate the expression which is before the cursor (the expression will be copied to the Gambit interaction buffer).
C-c C-z	Switch to Gambit interaction buffer.
C-c C-l	Load a file (file attached to current buffer is default) using (load <i>file</i> ).
C-c C-k	Compile a file (file attached to current buffer is default) using (compile-file <i>file</i> ).

The file ‘gambit.el’ provides these additional commands:

F8 or C-c c	Continue the computation (same as typing ‘#   #,c;’ to the REPL).
F9 or C-c ]	Move to newer frame (same as typing ‘#   #,-;’ to the REPL).
F10 or C-c [	Move to older frame (same as typing ‘#   #,+;’ to the REPL).
F11 or C-c s	Step the computation (same as typing ‘#   #,s;’ to the REPL).
F12 or C-c l	Leap the computation (same as typing ‘#   #,l;’ to the REPL).
C-c _	Removes the last window that was opened to highlight an expression.

The two keystroke version of these commands can be shortened to ‘M-c’, ‘M-[’, ‘M-]’, ‘M-s’, ‘M-l’, and ‘M-\_\_’ respectively by adding this line to your ‘.emacs’ file:

```
(setq gambit-repl-command-prefix "\e")
```

This is more convenient to type than the two keystroke ‘C-c’ based sequences but the purist may not like this because it does not follow normal Emacs conventions.

Here is what a typical ‘.emacs’ file will look like:

```
(setq load-path
      (cons "/usr/local/Gambit-C/share/emacs/site-lisp" ; location of gambit.el
            load-path))
(setq scheme-program-name "/tmp/gsi -:d-") ; if gsi not in executable path
(setq gambit-highlight-color "gray") ; if you don't like the default
(setq gambit-repl-command-prefix "\e") ; if you want M-c, M-s, etc
(require 'gambit)
```

## 5.6 IDE

The implementation and documentation for the Gambit IDE are not yet complete.



## 6 Scheme extensions

### 6.1 Extensions to standard procedures

(transcript-on *file*) [procedure]  
 (transcript-off) [procedure]  
 These procedures do nothing.

### 6.2 Extensions to standard special forms

(lambda *lambda-formals body*) [special form]  
 (define (*variable define-formals*) *body*) [special form]  
   *lambda-formals* = ( *formal-argument-list* ) | *r4rs-lambda-formals*  
   *define-formals* = *formal-argument-list* | *r4rs-define-formals*  
   *formal-argument-list* = *reqs opts rest keys*  
   *reqs* = *required-formal-argument\**  
   *required-formal-argument* = *variable*  
   *opts* = #!optional *optional-formal-argument\** | *empty*  
   *optional-formal-argument* = *variable* | ( *variable initializer* )  
   *rest* = #!rest *rest-formal-argument* | *empty*  
   *rest-formal-argument* = *variable*  
   *keys* = #!key *keyword-formal-argument\** | *empty*  
   *keyword-formal-argument* = *variable* | ( *variable initializer* )  
   *initializer* = *expression*  
   *r4rs-lambda-formals* = ( *variable\** ) | ( *variable+ . variable* ) | *variable*  
   *r4rs-define-formals* = *variable\** | *variable\* . variable*

These forms are extended versions of the `lambda` and `define` special forms of standard Scheme. They allow the use of optional and keyword formal arguments with the syntax and semantics of the DSSSL standard.

When the procedure introduced by a `lambda` (or `define`) is applied to a list of actual arguments, the formal and actual arguments are processed as specified in the R4RS if the *lambda-formals* (or *define-formals*) is a *r4rs-lambda-formals* (or *r4rs-define-formals*), otherwise they are processed as specified in the DSSSL language standard:

- a. *Variables* in *required-formal-arguments* are bound to successive actual arguments starting with the first actual argument. It shall be an error if there are fewer actual arguments than *required-formal-arguments*.
- b. Next *variables* in *optional-formal-arguments* are bound to remaining actual arguments. If there are fewer remaining actual arguments than *optional-formal-arguments*, then the variables are bound to the result of evaluating *initializer*, if one was specified, and otherwise to #f. The *initializer* is evaluated in an environment in which all previous formal arguments have been bound.

- c. If there is a *rest-formal-argument*, then it is bound to a list of all remaining actual arguments. These remaining actual arguments are also eligible to be bound to *keyword-formal-arguments*. If there is no *rest-formal-argument* and there are no *keyword-formal-arguments*, then it shall be an error if there are any remaining actual arguments.
- d. If `#!key` was specified in the *formal-argument-list*, there shall be an even number of remaining actual arguments. These are interpreted as a series of pairs, where the first member of each pair is a keyword specifying the argument name, and the second is the corresponding value. It shall be an error if the first member of a pair is not a keyword. It shall be an error if the argument name is not the same as a variable in a *keyword-formal-argument*, unless there is a *rest-formal-argument*. If the same argument name occurs more than once in the list of actual arguments, then the first value is used. If there is no actual argument for a particular *keyword-formal-argument*, then the variable is bound to the result of evaluating *initializer* if one was specified, and otherwise to `#f`. The *initializer* is evaluated in an environment in which all previous formal arguments have been bound.

It shall be an error for a *variable* to appear more than once in a *formal-argument-list*. It is unspecified whether variables receive their value by binding or by assignment. Currently the compiler and interpreter use different methods, which can lead to different semantics if `call-with-current-continuation` is used in an *initializer*. Note that this is irrelevant for DSSSL programs because `call-with-current-continuation` does not exist in DSSSL.

For example:

```
> ((lambda (#!rest x) x) 1 2 3)
(1 2 3)
> (define (f a #!optional b) (list a b))
> (define (g a #!optional (b a) #!key (c (* a b))) (list a b c))
> (define (h a #!rest b #!key c) (list a b c))
> (f 1)
(1 #f)
> (f 1 2)
(1 2)
> (g 3)
(3 3 9)
> (g 3 4)
(3 4 12)
> (g 3 4 c: 5)
(3 4 5)
> (g 3 4 c: 5 c: 6)
(3 4 5)
> (h 7)
(7 () #f)
> (h 7 c: 8)
(7 (c: 8) 8)
> (h 7 c: 8 z: 9)
(7 (c: 8 z: 9) 8)
```

## 6.3 Miscellaneous extensions

(keyword? *obj*)

[procedure]

```
(keyword->string keyword) [procedure]
(string->keyword string) [procedure]
```

These procedures implement the *keyword* data type. Keywords are similar to symbols but are self evaluating and distinct from the symbol data type. The lexical syntax of keywords is specified in [Section 16.6 \[Keyword syntax\], page 132](#). The procedure `keyword?` returns `#t` if *obj* is a keyword, and otherwise returns `#f`. The procedure `keyword->string` returns the name of *keyword* as a string. The procedure `string->keyword` returns the keyword whose name is *string*.

For example:

```
> (keyword? 'color)
#f
> (keyword? color:)
#t
> (keyword->string color:)
"color"
> (string->keyword "color")
color:
```

```
(make-will testator action) [procedure]
(will? obj) [procedure]
(will-testator will) [procedure]
(will-execute! will) [procedure]
```

These procedures implement the *will* data type. Will objects provide support for finalization. A will is an object that contains a reference to a *testator* object (the object attached to the will), and an *action* procedure which is a one parameter procedure which is called when the will is executed.

The `make-will` procedure creates a will object with the given *testator* object and *action* procedure. The `will?` procedure tests if *obj* is a will object. The `will-testator` procedure gets the testator object attached to the *will*. The `will-execute!` procedure executes *will*.

An object is *finalizable* if all paths to the object from the roots (i.e. continuations of runnable threads, global variables, etc) pass through a will object. Note that by this definition an object that is not reachable at all from the roots is finalizable. Some objects, including symbols, small integers (fixnums), booleans and characters, are considered to be always reachable and are therefore never finalizable.

When the runtime system detects that a will's testator "T" is finalizable the current computation is interrupted, the will's testator is set to `#f` and the will's action procedure is called with "T" as the sole argument. Currently only the garbage collector detects when objects become finalizable but this may change in future versions of Gambit (for example the compiler could perform an analysis to infer finalizability at compile time). The garbage collector builds a list of all wills whose testators are finalizable. Shortly after a garbage collection, the action procedures of these wills will be called. The link from the will to the action procedure is severed when the action procedure is called.

Note that the testator object will not be reclaimed during the garbage collection that detected finalizability of the testator object. It is only when an object is not reachable from the roots (not even through will objects) that it is reclaimed by the garbage collector.

A remarkable feature of wills is that an action procedure can “resurrect” an object after it has become finalizable, by making it nonfinalizable. An action procedure could for example assign the testator object to a global variable.

For example:

```
> (define a (list 123))
> (set-cdr! a a) ; create a circular list
> (define b (vector a))
> (define c #f)
> (define w
  (let ((obj a))
    (make-will obj
      (lambda (x) ; x will be eq? to obj
        (display "executing action procedure")
        (newline)
        (set! c x))))))

> (will? w)
#t
> (car (will-testator w))
123
> (##gc)
> (set! a #f)
> (##gc)
> (set! b #f)
> (##gc)
executing action procedure
> (will-testator w)
#f
> (car c)
123
```

(gensym [*prefix*]) [procedure]

This procedure returns a new *uninterned symbol*. Uninterned symbols are guaranteed to be distinct from the symbols generated by the procedures `read` and `string->symbol`. The symbol *prefix* is the prefix used to generate the new symbol’s name. If it is not specified, the prefix defaults to ‘g’.

For example:

```
> (gensym)
#:g0
> (gensym)
#:g1
> (gensym 'star-trek-)
#:star-trek-2
```

(void) [procedure]

This procedure returns the void object. The read-eval-print loop prints nothing when the result is the void object.

(eval *expr* [*env*]) [procedure]

The first argument is a datum representing an expression. The `eval` procedure evaluates this expression in the global interaction environment and returns the result. If present, the second argument is ignored (it is provided for compatibility with R5RS).

For example:

```

> (eval '(+ 1 2))
3
> ((eval 'car) '(1 2))
1
> (eval '(define x 5))
> x
5

```

(include *file*) [special form]

The *file* argument must be a string naming an existing file containing Scheme source code. The `include` special form splices the content of the specified source file. This form can only appear where a `define` form is acceptable.

For example:

```

(include "macros.scm")

(define (f lst)
  (include "sort.scm")
  (map sqrt (sort lst)))

```

(define-macro (*name arg...*) *body*) [special form]

Define *name* as a macro special form which expands into *body*. This form can only appear where a `define` form is acceptable. Macros are lexically scoped. The scope of a local macro definition extends from the definition to the end of the body of the surrounding binding construct. Macros defined at the top level of a Scheme module are only visible in that module. To have access to the macro definitions contained in a file, that file must be included using the `include` special form. Macros which are visible from the REPL are also visible during the compilation of Scheme source files.

For example:

```

(define-macro (push val var)
  `(set! ,var (cons ,val ,var)))

(define-macro (unless test . body)
  `(if ,test #f (begin ,@body)))

```

To examine the code into which a macro expands you can use the compiler's `'-expansion'` option or the `pp` procedure. For example:

```

> (define-macro (push val var) `(set! ,var (cons ,val ,var)))
> (pp (lambda () (push 1 stack) (push 2 stack) (push 3 stack)))
(lambda ()
  (set! stack (cons 1 stack))
  (set! stack (cons 2 stack))
  (set! stack (cons 3 stack)))

```

(define-syntax *name expander*) [special form]

Define *name* as a macro special form whose expansion is specified by *expander*. This form is available only after evaluating `(load "~~/syntax-case")`, which can be done at the REPL or in the initialization file. This file contains Hieb and Dybvig's portable `syntax-case` implementation that has been ported to the Gambit interpreter and compiler. Note that this implementation of `syntax-case` does not correctly track source code location information, so the error messages will be much less precise.

For example:

```

> (load "~/syntax-case")
"/usr/local/Gambit-C/syntax-case.scm"
> (define-syntax unless
  (syntax-rules ()
    ((unless test body ...)
     (if test #f (begin body ...)))))
> (let ((test 111)) (unless (= 1 2) (list test test)))
(111 111)
> (pp (lambda () (let ((test 111)) (unless (= 1 2) (list test test)))))
(lambda () ((lambda (#:test15) (if (= 1 2) #f (list #:test15 #:test15))) 111))
> (unless #f (pp xxx))
*** ERROR IN (console)@8.1 -- Unbound variable: xxx

```

(declare *declaration*...) [special form]

This form introduces declarations to be used by the compiler (currently the interpreter ignores the declarations). This form can only appear where a `define` form is acceptable. Declarations are lexically scoped in the same way as macros. The following declarations are accepted by the compiler:

(*dialect*)            Use the given dialect's semantics. *dialect* can be: 'ieee-scheme' or 'r4rs-scheme'.

(*strategy*)           Select block compilation or separate compilation. In block compilation, the compiler assumes that global variables defined in the current file that are not mutated in the file will never be mutated. *strategy* can be: 'block' or 'separate'.

([not] inline)       Allow (or disallow) inlining of user procedures.

(inlining-limit *n*)       Select the degree to which the compiler inlines user procedures. *n* is the upper-bound, in percent, on code expansion that will result from inlining. Thus, a value of 300 indicates that the size of the program will not grow by more than 300 percent (i.e. it will be at most 4 times the size of the original). A value of 0 disables inlining. The size of a program is the total number of subexpressions it contains (i.e. the size of an expression is one plus the size of its immediate subexpressions). The following conditions must hold for a procedure to be inlined: inlining the procedure must not cause the size of the call site to grow more than specified by the inlining limit, the site of definition (the `define` or `lambda`) and the call site must be declared as (`inline`), and the compiler must be able to find the definition of the procedure referred to at the call site (if the procedure is bound to a global variable, the definition site must have a (`block`) declaration). Note that inlining usually causes much less code expansion than specified by the inlining limit (an expansion around 10% is common for *n*=300).

([not] lambda-lift)       Lambda-lift (or don't lambda-lift) locally defined procedures.

- ([not] constant-fold) Allow (or disallow) constant-folding of primitive procedures.
- ([not] standard-bindings var...) The given global variables are known (or not known) to be equal to the value defined for them in the dialect (all variables defined in the standard if none specified).
- ([not] extended-bindings var...) The given global variables are known (or not known) to be equal to the value defined for them in the runtime system (all variables defined in the runtime if none specified).
- ([not] safe) Generate (or don't generate) code that will prevent fatal errors at run time. Note that in 'safe' mode certain semantic errors will not be checked as long as they can't crash the system. For example the primitive `char=?` may disregard the type of its arguments in 'safe' as well as 'not safe' mode.
- ([not] interrupts-enabled) Generate (or don't generate) interrupt checks. Interrupt checks are used to detect user interrupts and also to check for stack overflows. Interrupt checking should not be turned off casually.
- (*number-type primitive...*) Numeric arguments and result of the specified primitives are known to be of the given type (all primitives if none specified). *number-type* can be: 'generic', 'fixnum', or 'flonum'.

The default declarations used by the compiler are equivalent to:

```
(declare
  (ieee-scheme)
  (separate)
  (inline)
  (inlining-limit 300)
  (constant-fold)
  (lambda-lift)
  (not standard-bindings)
  (not extended-bindings)
  (safe)
  (interrupts-enabled)
  (generic)
)
```

These declarations are compatible with the semantics of Scheme. Typically used declarations that enhance performance, at the cost of violating the Scheme semantics, are: (standard-bindings), (block), (not safe) and (fixnum).

## 7 Characters and strings

Gambit supports the Unicode character encoding standard (ISO/IEC-10646-1). Scheme characters can be any of the characters in the 16 bit subset of Unicode known as UCS-2. Scheme strings can contain any character in UCS-2. Source code can also contain any character in UCS-2. However, to read such source code properly `gsi` and `gsc` must be told which character encoding to use for reading the source code (i.e. UTF-8, UCS-2, or UCS-4). This can be done by specifying the runtime option ‘-:f’ when `gsi` and `gsc` are started.

### 7.1 Extensions to character procedures

(char->integer *char*) [procedure]  
 (integer->char *n*) [procedure]

The procedure `char->integer` returns the Unicode encoding of the character *char*.

The procedure `integer->char` returns the character whose Unicode encoding is the exact integer *n*.

For example:

```
> (char->integer #\!)
33
> (integer->char 65)
#\A
> (integer->char (char->integer #\#x1234))
#\#x1234
```

(char=? *char1*...) [procedure]  
 (char<? *char1*...) [procedure]  
 (char>? *char1*...) [procedure]  
 (char<=? *char1*...) [procedure]  
 (char>=? *char1*...) [procedure]  
 (char-ci=? *char1*...) [procedure]  
 (char-ci<? *char1*...) [procedure]  
 (char-ci>? *char1*...) [procedure]  
 (char-ci<=? *char1*...) [procedure]  
 (char-ci>=? *char1*...) [procedure]

These procedures take any number of arguments including no argument. This is useful to test if the elements of a list are sorted in a particular order. For example, testing that the list of characters `lst` is sorted in nondecreasing order can be done with the call `(apply char<? lst)`.

### 7.2 Extensions to string procedures

(string=? *string1*...) [procedure]  
 (string<? *string1*...) [procedure]  
 (string>? *string1*...) [procedure]  
 (string<=? *string1*...) [procedure]  
 (string>=? *string1*...) [procedure]  
 (string-ci=? *string1*...) [procedure]



<code>(string-ci&lt;? <i>string1</i>...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(string-ci&gt;? <i>string1</i>...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(string-ci&lt;=? <i>string1</i>...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(string-ci&gt;=? <i>string1</i>...)</code>	[procedure]

These procedures take any number of arguments including no argument. This is useful to test if the elements of a list are sorted in a particular order. For example, testing that the list of strings `lst` is sorted in nondecreasing order can be done with the call `(apply string<? lst)`.

## 8 Numbers

### 8.1 Extensions to numeric procedures

<code>(= z1...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(&lt; x1...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(&gt; x1...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(&lt;= x1...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(&gt;= x1...)</code>	[procedure]

These procedures take any number of arguments including no argument. This is useful to test if the elements of a list are sorted in a particular order. For example, testing that the list of numbers `lst` is sorted in nondecreasing order can be done with the call `(apply < lst)`.

### 8.2 IEEE floating point arithmetic

To better conform to IEEE floating point arithmetic the standard numeric tower is extended with these special inexact reals:

<code>+inf.</code>	positive infinity
<code>-inf.</code>	negative infinity
<code>+nan.</code>	“not a number”
<code>-0.</code>	negative zero ( <code>'0.'</code> is the positive zero)

The infinities and “not a number” are reals (i.e. `(real? +inf.)` is `#t`) but are not rational (i.e. `(rational? +inf.)` is `#f`).

Both zeros are numerically equal (i.e. `(= -0. 0.)` is `#t`) but are not equivalent (i.e. `(eqv? -0. 0.)` and `(equal? -0. 0.)` are `#f`). All numerical comparisons with “not a number”, including `(= +nan. +nan.)`, are `#f`.

### 8.3 Integer square root and nth root

<code>(integer-sqrt n)</code>	[procedure]
-------------------------------	-------------

This procedure returns the integer part of the square root of the nonnegative exact integer `n`.

For example:

```
> (integer-sqrt 123)
11
```

<code>(integer-nth-root n1 n2)</code>	[procedure]
---------------------------------------	-------------

This procedure returns the integer part of `n1` raised to the power  $1/n2$ , where `n1` is a nonnegative exact integer and `n2` is a positive exact integer.

For example:

```
> (integer-nth-root 100 3)
4
```

## 8.4 Bitwise-operations on exact integers

The procedures defined in this section are compatible with the withdrawn “Integer Bitwise-operation Library SRFI” (SRFI 33). Note that some of the procedures specified in SRFI 33 are not provided.

Most procedures in this section are specified in terms of the binary representation of exact integers. The two’s complement representation is assumed where an integer is composed of an infinite number of bits. The upper section of an integer (the most significant bits) are either an infinite sequence of ones when the integer is negative, or they are an infinite sequence of zeros when the integer is nonnegative.

`(arithmetic-shift n1 n2)` [procedure]

This procedure returns *n1* shifted to the left by *n2* bits, that is `(floor (* n1 (expt 2 n2)))`. Both *n1* and *n2* must be exact integers.

For example:

```
> (arithmetic-shift 1000 7) ; n1=...00000001111101000
128000
> (arithmetic-shift 1000 -6) ; n1=...00000001111101000
15
> (arithmetic-shift -23 -3) ; n1=...1111111111101001
-3
```

`(bitwise-merge n1 n2 n3)` [procedure]

This procedure returns an exact integer whose bits combine the bits from *n2* and *n3* depending on *n1*. The bit at index *i* of the result depends only on the bits at index *i* in *n1*, *n2* and *n3*: it is equal to the bit in *n2* when the bit in *n1* is 0 and it is equal to the bit in *n3* when the bit in *n1* is 1. All arguments must be exact integers.

For example:

```
> (bitwise-merge -4 -11 10) ; ...11111100 ...11110101 ...00001010
9
> (bitwise-merge 12 -11 10) ; ...00001100 ...11110101 ...00001010
-7
```

`(bitwise-and n...)` [procedure]

This procedure returns the bitwise “and” of the exact integers *n...*. The value -1 is returned when there are no arguments.

For example:

```
> (bitwise-and 6 12) ; ...00000110 ...00001100
4
> (bitwise-and 6 -4) ; ...00000110 ...11111100
4
> (bitwise-and -6 -4) ; ...11111010 ...11111100
-8
> (bitwise-and)
-1
```

`(bitwise-ior n...)` [procedure]

This procedure returns the bitwise “inclusive-or” of the exact integers *n...*. The value 0 is returned when there are no arguments.

For example:

```

> (bitwise-ior 6 12) ; ...00000110 ...00001100
14
> (bitwise-ior 6 -4) ; ...00000110 ...11111100
-2
> (bitwise-ior -6 -4) ; ...11111010 ...11111100
-2
> (bitwise-ior)
0

```

(bitwise-xor *n*...) [procedure]

This procedure returns the bitwise “exclusive-or” of the exact integers *n*... The value 0 is returned when there are no arguments.

For example:

```

> (bitwise-xor 6 12) ; ...00000110 ...00001100
10
> (bitwise-xor 6 -4) ; ...00000110 ...11111100
-6
> (bitwise-xor -6 -4) ; ...11111010 ...11111100
6
> (bitwise-xor)
0

```

(bitwise-not *n*) [procedure]

This procedure returns the bitwise complement of the exact integer *n*.

For example:

```

> (bitwise-not 3) ; ...00000011
-4
> (bitwise-not -1) ; ...11111111
0

```

(bit-count *n*) [procedure]

This procedure returns the bit count of the exact integer *n*. If *n* is nonnegative, the bit count is the number of 1 bits in the two’s complement representation of *n*. If *n* is negative, the bit count is the number of 0 bits in the two’s complement representation of *n*.

For example:

```

> (bit-count 0) ; ...00000000
0
> (bit-count 1) ; ...00000001
1
> (bit-count 2) ; ...00000010
1
> (bit-count 3) ; ...00000011
2
> (bit-count 4) ; ...00000100
1
> (bit-count -23) ; ...11101001
3

```

(integer-length *n*) [procedure]

This procedure returns the bit length of the exact integer *n*. If *n* is a positive integer the bit length is one more than the index of the highest 1 bit (the least significant bit is at index 0). If *n* is a negative integer the bit length is one more than the index of the highest 0 bit. If *n* is zero, the bit length is 0.

For example:

```
> (integer-length 0) ; ...00000000
0
> (integer-length 1) ; ...00000001
1
> (integer-length 2) ; ...00000010
2
> (integer-length 3) ; ...00000011
2
> (integer-length 4) ; ...00000100
3
> (integer-length -23) ; ...11101001
5
```

(bit-set? *n1* *n2*) [procedure]

This procedure returns a boolean indicating if the bit at index *n1* of *n2* is set (i.e. equal to 1) or not. Both *n1* and *n2* must be exact integers, and *n1* must be nonnegative.

For example:

```
> (map (lambda (i) (bit-set? i -23)) ; ...11101001
      '(7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0))
(#t #t #t #f #t #f #f #t)
```

(any-bits-set? *n1* *n2*) [procedure]

This procedure returns a boolean indicating if the bitwise and of *n1* and *n2* is different from zero or not. This procedure is implemented more efficiently than the naive definition:

```
(define (any-bits-set? n1 n2) (not (zero? (bitwise-and n1 n2))))
```

For example:

```
> (any-bits-set? 5 10) ; ...00000101 ...00001010
#f
> (any-bits-set? -23 32) ; ...11101001 ...00100000
#t
```

(all-bits-set? *n1* *n2*) [procedure]

This procedure returns a boolean indicating if the bitwise and of *n1* and *n2* is equal to *n1* or not. This procedure is implemented more efficiently than the naive definition:

```
(define (all-bits-set? n1 n2) (= n1 (bitwise-and n1 n2)))
```

For example:

```
> (all-bits-set? 1 3) ; ...00000001 ...00000011
#f
> (all-bits-set? 7 3) ; ...00000111 ...00000011
#t
```

(first-set-bit *n*) [procedure]

This procedure returns the bit index of the least significant bit of *n* equal to 1 (which is also the number of 0 bits that are below the least significant 1 bit). This procedure returns #f when *n* is zero.

For example:

```
> (first-set-bit 24) ; ...00011000
3
> (first-set-bit 0) ; ...00000000
#f
```

```

(extract-bit-field n1 n2 n3) [procedure]
(test-bit-field? n1 n2 n3) [procedure]
(clear-bit-field n1 n2 n3) [procedure]
(replace-bit-field n1 n2 n3 n4) [procedure]
(copy-bit-field n1 n2 n3 n4) [procedure]

```

These procedures operate on a bit-field which is *n1* bits wide starting at bit index *n2*.

All arguments must be exact integers and *n1* and *n2* must be nonnegative.

The procedure `extract-bit-field` returns the bit-field of *n3* shifted to the right so that the least significant bit of the bit-field is the least significant bit of the result.

The procedure `test-bit-field?` returns `#t` if any bit in the bit-field of *n3* is equal to 1, otherwise `#f` is returned.

The procedure `clear-bit-field` returns *n3* with all bits in the bit-field replaced with 0.

The procedure `replace-bit-field` returns *n4* with the bit-field replaced with the least-significant *n1* bits of *n3*.

The procedure `copy-bit-field` returns *n4* with the bit-field replaced with the (same index and size) bit-field in *n3*.

For example:

```

> (extract-bit-field 5 2 -37) ; ...11011011
22
> (test-bit-field? 5 2 -37) ; ...11011011
#t
> (test-bit-field? 1 2 -37) ; ...11011011
#f
> (clear-bit-field 5 2 -37) ; ...11011011
-125
> (replace-bit-field 5 2 -6 -37) ; ...11111010 ...11011011
-21
> (copy-bit-field 5 2 -6 -37) ; ...11111010 ...11011011
-5

```

## 8.5 Pseudo random numbers

The procedures and variables defined in this section are compatible with the “Sources of Random Bits SRFI” (SRFI 27). The implementation is based on Pierre L’Ecuyer’s MRG32k3a pseudo random number generator. At the heart of SRFI 27’s interface is the random source type which encapsulates the state of a pseudo random number generator. The state of a random source object changes every time a pseudo random number is generated from this random source object.

```
default-random-source [variable]
```

The global variable `default-random-source` is bound to the random source object which is used by the `random-integer` and `random-real` procedures.

```
(random-integer n) [procedure]
```

This procedure returns a pseudo random exact integer in the range 0 to *n*-1. The random source object in the global variable `default-random-source` is used to generate this number. The parameter *n* must be a positive exact integer.

For example:

```
(random-real) [procedure]
```

```
(make-random-source) [procedure]
```

```
(random-source? obj)
```

[procedure]

```
(random-source-state-ref random-source)
```

[procedure]

```
(random-source-state-set! random-source state)
```

[procedure]

```
(random-source-randomize! random-source)
```

[procedure]

These procedures change the state of the random source object *random-source*. The procedure `random-source-randomize!` sets the random source object to a state that depends on the current time (which for typical uses can be considered to randomly initialize the state). The procedure `random-source-pseudo-randomize!` sets the random source object to a state that is determined only by the current state and the nonnegative exact integers  $i$  and  $j$ . For both procedures the value returned is unspecified.

[illegible]

This procedure returns a procedure for generating pseudo random exact integers using the random source object *random-source*. The returned procedure accepts a single parameter *n*, a positive exact integer, and returns a pseudo random exact integer in the range 0 to *n*-1.

```
> (define rs (make-random-source))
> (define ri (random-source-make-integers rs))
> (ri 10000000)
8583952
> (ri 10000000)
2879793
```

This procedure returns a procedure for generating pseudo random inexact reals using the random source object *random-source*. The returned procedure accepts no parameters and returns a pseudo random inexact real between, but not including, 0 and 1.

```
> (define rs (make-random-source))
> (define rr (random-source-make-reals rs))
> (rr)
.857402537562821
> (rr)
.2876463473845367
```



## 9 Homogeneous vectors

Homogeneous vectors are vectors containing raw numbers of the same type (signed or unsigned exact integers or inexact reals). There are 10 types of homogeneous vectors: ‘s8vector’ (vector of exact integers in the range  $-2^7$  to  $2^7-1$ ), ‘u8vector’ (vector of exact integers in the range 0 to  $2^8-1$ ), ‘s16vector’ (vector of exact integers in the range  $-2^{15}$  to  $2^{15}-1$ ), ‘u16vector’ (vector of exact integers in the range 0 to  $2^{16}-1$ ), ‘s32vector’ (vector of exact integers in the range  $-2^{31}$  to  $2^{31}-1$ ), ‘u32vector’ (vector of exact integers in the range 0 to  $2^{32}-1$ ), ‘s64vector’ (vector of exact integers in the range  $-2^{63}$  to  $2^{63}-1$ ), ‘u64vector’ (vector of exact integers in the range 0 to  $2^{64}-1$ ), ‘f32vector’ (vector of 32 bit floating point numbers), and ‘f64vector’ (vector of 64 bit floating point numbers).

The lexical syntax of homogeneous vectors is specified in [Section 16.8 \[Homogeneous vector syntax\]](#), [page 133](#).

The procedures available for homogeneous vectors, listed below, are the analog of the normal vector/string procedures for each of the homogeneous vector types.

(s8vector? <i>obj</i> )	[procedure]
(make-s8vector <i>k</i> [ <i>fill</i> ])	[procedure]
(s8vector exact-int8...)	[procedure]
(s8vector-length <i>s8vector</i> )	[procedure]
(s8vector-ref <i>s8vector</i> <i>k</i> )	[procedure]
(s8vector-set! <i>s8vector</i> <i>k</i> exact-int8)	[procedure]
(s8vector->list <i>s8vector</i> )	[procedure]
(list->s8vector <i>list-of-exact-int8</i> )	[procedure]
(s8vector-fill! <i>s8vector</i> <i>fill</i> )	[procedure]
(s8vector-copy <i>s8vector</i> )	[procedure]
(s8vector-append <i>s8vector</i> ...)	[procedure]
(subs8vector <i>s8vector</i> <i>start</i> <i>end</i> )	[procedure]
(u8vector? <i>obj</i> )	[procedure]
(make-u8vector <i>k</i> [ <i>fill</i> ])	[procedure]
(u8vector exact-int8...)	[procedure]
(u8vector-length <i>u8vector</i> )	[procedure]
(u8vector-ref <i>u8vector</i> <i>k</i> )	[procedure]
(u8vector-set! <i>u8vector</i> <i>k</i> exact-int8)	[procedure]
(u8vector->list <i>u8vector</i> )	[procedure]
(list->u8vector <i>list-of-exact-int8</i> )	[procedure]
(u8vector-fill! <i>u8vector</i> <i>fill</i> )	[procedure]
(u8vector-copy <i>u8vector</i> )	[procedure]
(u8vector-append <i>u8vector</i> ...)	[procedure]
(subu8vector <i>u8vector</i> <i>start</i> <i>end</i> )	[procedure]
(s16vector? <i>obj</i> )	[procedure]
(make-s16vector <i>k</i> [ <i>fill</i> ])	[procedure]
(s16vector exact-int16...)	[procedure]
(s16vector-length <i>s16vector</i> )	[procedure]
(s16vector-ref <i>s16vector</i> <i>k</i> )	[procedure]

<code>(s16vector-set! s16vector k exact-int16)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s16vector-&gt;list s16vector)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(list-&gt;s16vector list-of-exact-int16)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s16vector-fill! s16vector fill)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s16vector-copy s16vector)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s16vector-append s16vector...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(subs16vector s16vector start end)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u16vector? obj)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(make-u16vector k [fill])</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u16vector exact-int16...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u16vector-length u16vector)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u16vector-ref u16vector k)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u16vector-set! u16vector k exact-int16)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u16vector-&gt;list u16vector)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(list-&gt;u16vector list-of-exact-int16)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u16vector-fill! u16vector fill)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u16vector-copy u16vector)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u16vector-append u16vector...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(subu16vector u16vector start end)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s32vector? obj)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(make-s32vector k [fill])</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s32vector exact-int32...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s32vector-length s32vector)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s32vector-ref s32vector k)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s32vector-set! s32vector k exact-int32)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s32vector-&gt;list s32vector)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(list-&gt;s32vector list-of-exact-int32)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s32vector-fill! s32vector fill)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s32vector-copy s32vector)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s32vector-append s32vector...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(subs32vector s32vector start end)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u32vector? obj)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(make-u32vector k [fill])</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u32vector exact-int32...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u32vector-length u32vector)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u32vector-ref u32vector k)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u32vector-set! u32vector k exact-int32)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u32vector-&gt;list u32vector)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(list-&gt;u32vector list-of-exact-int32)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u32vector-fill! u32vector fill)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u32vector-copy u32vector)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(u32vector-append u32vector...)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(subu32vector u32vector start end)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(s64vector? obj)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(make-s64vector k [fill])</code>	[procedure]

<code>(s64vector exact-int64...)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(s64vector-length s64vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(s64vector-ref s64vector k)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(s64vector-set! s64vector k exact-int64)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(s64vector-&gt;list s64vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(list-&gt;s64vector list-of-exact-int64)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(s64vector-fill! s64vector fill)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(s64vector-copy s64vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(s64vector-append s64vector...)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(subs64vector s64vector start end)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(u64vector? obj)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(make-u64vector k [fill])</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(u64vector exact-int64...)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(u64vector-length u64vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(u64vector-ref u64vector k)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(u64vector-set! u64vector k exact-int64)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(u64vector-&gt;list u64vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(list-&gt;u64vector list-of-exact-int64)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(u64vector-fill! u64vector fill)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(u64vector-copy u64vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(u64vector-append u64vector...)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(subu64vector u64vector start end)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f32vector? obj)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(make-f32vector k [fill])</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f32vector inexact-real...)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f32vector-length f32vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f32vector-ref f32vector k)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f32vector-set! f32vector k inexact-real)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f32vector-&gt;list f32vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(list-&gt;f32vector list-of-inexact-real)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f32vector-fill! f32vector fill)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f32vector-copy f32vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f32vector-append f32vector...)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(subf32vector f32vector start end)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f64vector? obj)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(make-f64vector k [fill])</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f64vector inexact-real...)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f64vector-length f64vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f64vector-ref f64vector k)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f64vector-set! f64vector k inexact-real)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f64vector-&gt;list f64vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(list-&gt;f64vector list-of-inexact-real)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f64vector-fill! f64vector fill)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f64vector-copy f64vector)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>
<code>(f64vector-append f64vector...)</code>	<code>[procedure]</code>

(subf64vector *f64vector start end*)

[procedure]

For example:

```
> (define v (u8vector 10 255 13))
> (u8vector-set! v 2 99)
> v
#u8(10 255 99)
> (u8vector-ref v 1)
255
> (u8vector->list v)
(10 255 99)
```

## 10 Records

(`define-structure` *name field...*) [special form]

Record data types similar to Pascal records and C `struct` types can be defined using the `define-structure` special form. The identifier *name* specifies the name of the new data type. The structure name is followed by *k* identifiers naming each field of the record. The `define-structure` expands into a set of definitions of the following procedures:

- ‘*make-name*’ – A *k* argument procedure which constructs a new record from the value of its *k* fields.
- ‘*name?*’ – A procedure which tests if its single argument is of the given record type.
- ‘*name-field*’ – For each field, a procedure taking as its single argument a value of the given record type and returning the content of the corresponding field of the record.
- ‘*name-field-set!*’ – For each field, a two argument procedure taking as its first argument a value of the given record type. The second argument gets assigned to the corresponding field of the record and the void object is returned.

Record data types have a printed representation that includes the name of the type and the name and value of each field. Record data types can not be read by the `read` procedure.

For example:

```
> (define-structure point x y color)
> (define p (make-point 3 5 'red))
> p
#<point #3 x: 3 y: 5 color: red>
> (point-x p)
3
> (point-color p)
red
> (point-color-set! p 'black)
> p
#<point #3 x: 3 y: 5 color: black>
```

## 11 Threads

Gambit supports the execution of multiple Scheme threads. These threads are managed entirely by Gambit’s runtime and are not related to the host operating system’s threads. Gambit’s runtime does not currently take advantage of multiprocessors (i.e. at most one thread is running).

### 11.1 Introduction

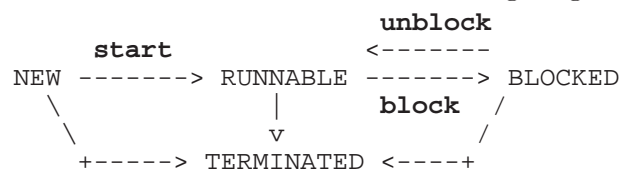
Multithreading is a paradigm that is well suited for building complex systems such as: servers, GUIs, and high-level operating systems. Gambit’s thread system offers mechanisms for creating new threads of execution and for synchronizing them. The thread system also supports features which are useful in a real-time context, such as priorities, priority inheritance and timeouts.

The thread system provides the following data types:

- Thread (a virtual processor which shares object space with all other threads)
- Mutex (a mutual exclusion device, also known as a lock and binary semaphore)
- Condition variable (a set of blocked threads)

### 11.2 Thread objects

A *running thread* is a thread that is currently executing. A *runnable thread* is a thread that is ready to execute or running. A thread is *blocked* if it is waiting for a mutex to become unlocked, an I/O operation to become possible, the end of a “sleep” period, etc. A *new thread* is a thread that has not yet become runnable. A new thread becomes runnable when it is started. A *terminated thread* is a thread that can no longer become runnable (but *deadlocked threads* are not considered terminated). The only valid transitions between the thread states are from new to runnable, between runnable and blocked, and from any state to terminated as indicated in the following diagram:



Each thread has a *base priority*, which is a real number (where a higher numerical value means a higher priority), a *priority boost*, which is a nonnegative real number representing the priority increase applied to a thread when it blocks, and a *quantum*, which is a nonnegative real number representing a duration in seconds.

Each thread has a *specific field* which can be used in an application specific way to associate data with the thread (some thread systems call this “thread local storage”).

### 11.3 Mutex objects

A mutex can be in one of four states: *locked* (either *owned* or *not owned*) and *unlocked* (either *abandoned* or *not abandoned*).

An attempt to lock a mutex only succeeds if the mutex is in an unlocked state, otherwise the current thread will wait. A mutex in the locked/owned state has an associated *owner*

*thread*, which by convention is the thread that is responsible for unlocking the mutex (this case is typical of critical sections implemented as “lock mutex, perform operation, unlock mutex”). A mutex in the locked/not-owned state is not linked to a particular thread.

A mutex becomes locked when a thread locks it using the ‘mutex-lock!’ primitive. A mutex becomes unlocked/abandoned when the owner of a locked/owned mutex terminates. A mutex becomes unlocked/not-abandoned when a thread unlocks it using the ‘mutex-unlock!’ primitive.

The mutex primitives do not implement *recursive mutex semantics*. An attempt to lock a mutex that is locked implies that the current thread waits even if the mutex is owned by the current thread (this can lead to a deadlock if no other thread unlocks the mutex).

Each mutex has a *specific field* which can be used in an application specific way to associate data with the mutex.

## 11.4 Condition variable objects

A condition variable represents a set of blocked threads. These blocked threads are waiting for a certain condition to become true. When a thread modifies some program state that might make the condition true, the thread unblocks some number of threads (one or all depending on the primitive used) so they can check if the condition is now true. This allows complex forms of interthread synchronization to be expressed more conveniently than with mutexes alone.

Each condition variable has a *specific field* which can be used in an application specific way to associate data with the condition variable.

## 11.5 Fairness

In various situations the scheduler must select one thread from a set of threads (e.g. which thread to run when a running thread blocks or expires its quantum, which thread to unblock when a mutex becomes unlocked or a condition variable is signaled). The constraints on the selection process determine the scheduler’s *fairness*. The selection depends on the order in which threads become runnable or blocked and on the *priority* attached to the threads.

The definition of fairness requires the notion of time ordering, i.e. “event *A* occurred before event *B*”. For the purpose of establishing time ordering, the scheduler uses a clock with a discrete, usually variable, resolution (a “tick”). Events occurring in a given tick can be considered to be simultaneous (i.e. if event *A* occurred before event *B* in real time, then the scheduler will claim that event *A* occurred before event *B* unless both events fall within the same tick, in which case the scheduler arbitrarily chooses a time ordering).

Each thread *T* has three priorities which affect fairness; the *base priority*, the *boosted priority*, and the *effective priority*.

- The *base priority* is the value contained in *T*’s *base priority* field (which is set with the ‘thread-base-priority-set!’ primitive).
- *T*’s *boosted flag* field contains a boolean that affects *T*’s *boosted priority*. When the boosted flag field is false, the boosted priority is equal to the base priority, otherwise the boosted priority is equal to the base priority plus the value contained in *T*’s *priority boost* field (which is set with the ‘thread-priority-boost-set!’ primitive). The boosted flag field is set to false when a thread is created, when its quantum expires,

and when *thread-yield!* is called. The boosted flag field is set to true when a thread blocks. By carefully choosing the base priority and priority boost, relatively to the other threads, it is possible to set up an interactive thread so that it has good I/O response time without being a CPU hog when it performs long computations.

- The *effective priority* is equal to the maximum of  $T$ 's boosted priority and the effective priority of all the threads that are blocked on a mutex owned by  $T$ . This *priority inheritance* avoids priority inversion problems that would prevent a high priority thread blocked at the entry of a critical section to progress because a low priority thread inside the critical section is preempted for an arbitrary long time by a medium priority thread.

Let  $P(T)$  be the effective priority of thread  $T$  and let  $R(T)$  be the most recent time when one of the following events occurred for thread  $T$ , thus making it runnable:  $T$  was started by calling 'thread-start!',  $T$  called 'thread-yield!',  $T$  expired its quantum, or  $T$  became unblocked. Let the relation  $NL(T1, T2)$ , " $T1$  no later than  $T2$ ", be true if  $P(T1) < P(T2)$  or  $P(T1) = P(T2)$  and  $R(T1) > R(T2)$ , and false otherwise. The scheduler will schedule the execution of threads in such a way that whenever there is at least one runnable thread, 1) within a finite time at least one thread will be running, and 2) there is never a pair of runnable threads  $T1$  and  $T2$  for which  $NL(T1, T2)$  is true and  $T1$  is not running and  $T2$  is running.

A thread  $T$  expires its quantum when an amount of time equal to  $T$ 's quantum has elapsed since  $T$  entered the running state and  $T$  did not block, terminate or call 'thread-yield!'. At that point  $T$  exits the running state to allow other threads to run. A thread's quantum is thus an indication of the rate of progress of the thread relative to the other threads of the same priority. Moreover, the resolution of the timer measuring the running time may cause a certain deviation from the quantum, so a thread's quantum should only be viewed as an approximation of the time it can run before yielding to another thread.

Threads blocked on a given mutex or condition variable will unblock in an order which is consistent with decreasing priority and increasing blocking time (i.e. the highest priority thread unblocks first, and among equal priority threads the one that blocked first unblocks first).

## 11.6 Memory coherency

Read and write operations on the store (such as reading and writing a variable, an element of a vector or a string) are not atomic. It is an error for a thread to write a location in the store while some other thread reads or writes that same location. It is the responsibility of the application to avoid write/read and write/write races through appropriate uses of the synchronization primitives.

Concurrent reads and writes to ports are allowed. It is the responsibility of the implementation to serialize accesses to a given port using the appropriate synchronization primitives.

## 11.7 Timeouts

All synchronization primitives which take a timeout parameter accept three types of values as a timeout, with the following meaning:



- a time object represents an absolute point in time
- an exact or inexact real number represents a relative time in seconds from the moment the primitive was called
- ‘#f’ means that there is no timeout

When a timeout denotes the current time or a time in the past, the synchronization primitive claims that the timeout has been reached only after the other synchronization conditions have been checked. Moreover the thread remains running (it does not enter the blocked state). For example, `(mutex-lock! m 0)` will lock mutex `m` and return ‘#t’ if `m` is currently unlocked, otherwise ‘#f’ is returned because the timeout is reached.

## 11.8 Primordial thread

The execution of a program is initially under the control of a single thread known as the *primordial thread*. The primordial thread has an unspecified base priority, priority boost, boosted flag, quantum, name, specific field, dynamic environment, ‘dynamic-wind’ stack, and exception-handler. All threads are terminated when the primordial thread terminates (normally or not).

## 11.9 Procedures

`(current-thread)` [procedure]

This procedure returns the current thread. For example:

```
> (current-thread)
#<thread #1 primordial>
> (eq? (current-thread) (current-thread))
#t
```

`(thread? obj)` [procedure]

This procedure returns #t when *obj* is a thread object and #f otherwise.

For example:

```
> (thread? (current-thread))
#t
> (thread? 'foo)
#f
```

`(make-thread thunk [name [thread-group]])` [procedure]

This procedure creates and returns a new thread. This thread is not automatically made runnable (the procedure `thread-start!` must be used for this). A thread has the following fields: base priority, priority boost, boosted flag, quantum, name, specific, end-result, end-exception, and a list of locked/owned mutexes it owns. The thread’s execution consists of a call to *thunk* with the *initial continuation*. This continuation causes the (then) current thread to store the result in its end-result field, abandon all mutexes it owns, and finally terminate. The ‘dynamic-wind’ stack of the initial continuation is empty. The optional *name* is an arbitrary Scheme object which identifies the thread (useful for debugging); it defaults to an unspecified value. The specific field is set to an unspecified value. The optional *thread-group* indicates which thread group this thread belongs to; it defaults to the thread group of the current thread. The base priority, priority boost, and quantum of the thread

are set to the same value as the current thread and the boosted flag is set to false. The thread inherits the dynamic environment from the current thread. Moreover, in this dynamic environment the exception-handler is bound to the *initial exception-handler* which is a unary procedure which causes the (then) current thread to store in its end-exception field an uncaught-exception object whose “reason” is the argument of the handler, abandon all mutexes it owns, and finally terminate.

For example:

```
> (make-thread (lambda () (write 'hello)))
#<thread #2>
> (make-thread (lambda () (write 'world)) 'a-name)
#<thread #3 a-name>
```

(thread-name *thread*) [procedure]

This procedure returns the name of the *thread*. For example:

```
> (thread-name (make-thread (lambda () #f) 'foo))
foo
```

(thread-specific *thread*) [procedure]

(thread-specific-set! *thread obj*) [procedure]

The thread-specific procedure returns the content of the *thread*’s specific field.

The thread-specific-set! procedure stores *obj* into the *thread*’s specific field and returns an unspecified value.

For example:

```
> (thread-specific-set! (current-thread) "hello")
> (thread-specific (current-thread))
"hello"
```

(thread-base-priority *thread*) [procedure]

(thread-base-priority-set! *thread priority*) [procedure]

The procedure thread-base-priority returns a real number which corresponds to the base priority of the *thread*.

The procedure thread-base-priority-set! changes the base priority of the *thread* to *priority* and returns an unspecified value. The *priority* must be a real number.

For example:

```
> (thread-base-priority-set! (current-thread) 12.3)
> (thread-base-priority (current-thread))
12.3
```

(thread-priority-boost *thread*) [procedure]

(thread-priority-boost-set! *thread priority-boost*) [procedure]

The procedure thread-priority-boost returns a real number which corresponds to the priority boost of the *thread*.

The procedure thread-priority-boost-set! changes the priority boost of the *thread* to *priority-boost* and returns an unspecified value. The *priority-boost* must be a nonnegative real.

For example:

```
> (thread-priority-boost-set! (current-thread) 2.5)
> (thread-priority-boost (current-thread))
2.5
```

`(thread-quantum thread)` [procedure]  
`(thread-quantum-set! thread quantum)` [procedure]

The procedure `thread-quantum` returns a real number which corresponds to the quantum of the *thread*.

The procedure `thread-quantum-set!` changes the quantum of the *thread* to *quantum* and returns an unspecified value. The *quantum* must be a nonnegative real. A value of zero selects the smallest quantum supported by the implementation.

For example:

```
> (thread-quantum-set! (current-thread) 1.5)
> (thread-quantum (current-thread))
1.5
> (thread-quantum-set! (current-thread) 0)
> (thread-quantum (current-thread))
.01
```

`(thread-start! thread)` [procedure]

This procedure makes *thread* runnable and returns the *thread*. The *thread* must be a new thread.

For example:

```
> (let ((t (thread-start! (make-thread (lambda () (write 'a))))))
    (write 'b)
    (thread-join! t))
ab> or ba>
```

NOTE: It is useful to separate thread creation and thread activation to avoid the race condition that would occur if the created thread tries to examine a table in which the current thread stores the created thread. See the last example of the `thread-terminate!` procedure which contains mutually recursive threads.

`(thread-yield!)` [procedure]

This procedure causes the current thread to exit the running state as if its quantum had expired and returns an unspecified value.

For example:

```
; a busy loop that avoids being too wasteful of the CPU

(let loop ()
  (if (mutex-lock! m 0) ; try to lock m but don't block
      (begin
        (display "locked mutex m")
        (mutex-unlock! m))
      (begin
        (do-something-else)
        (thread-yield!) ; relinquish rest of quantum
        (loop))))
```

`(thread-sleep! timeout)` [procedure]

This procedure causes the current thread to wait until the timeout is reached and returns an unspecified value. This blocks the thread only if *timeout* represents a point in the future. It is an error for *timeout* to be '#f'.

For example:

; a clock with a gradual drift:

```
(let loop ((x 1))
  (thread-sleep! 1)
  (write x)
  (loop (+ x 1)))
```

; a clock with no drift:

```
(let ((start (time->seconds (current-time))))
  (let loop ((x 1))
    (thread-sleep! (seconds->time (+ x start)))
    (write x)
    (loop (+ x 1)))))
```

(thread-terminate! *thread*) [procedure]

This procedure causes an abnormal termination of the *thread*. If the *thread* is not already terminated, all mutexes owned by the *thread* become unlocked/abandoned and a terminated-thread-exception object is stored in the *thread*'s end-exception field. If *thread* is the current thread, thread-terminate! does not return. Otherwise thread-terminate! returns an unspecified value; the termination of the *thread* will occur at some point between the calling of thread-terminate! and a finite time in the future (an explicit thread synchronization is needed to detect termination, see thread-join!).

For example:

```
(define (amb thunk1 thunk2)
  (let ((result #f)
        (result-mutex (make-mutex))
        (done-mutex (make-mutex)))
    (letrec ((child1
              (make-thread
               (lambda ()
                 (let ((x (thunk1)))
                   (mutex-lock! result-mutex #f #f)
                   (set! result x)
                   (thread-terminate! child2)
                   (mutex-unlock! done-mutex))))))
            (child2
              (make-thread
               (lambda ()
                 (let ((x (thunk2)))
                   (mutex-lock! result-mutex #f #f)
                   (set! result x)
                   (thread-terminate! child1)
                   (mutex-unlock! done-mutex))))))
      (mutex-lock! done-mutex #f #f)
      (thread-start! child1)
      (thread-start! child2)
      (mutex-lock! done-mutex #f #f)
      result)))
```

NOTE: This operation must be used carefully because it terminates a thread abruptly and it is impossible for that thread to perform any kind of cleanup. This may be a problem if the thread is in the middle of a critical section where some structure has been put in an inconsistent state. However, another thread attempting to enter this

critical section will raise an `abandoned-mutex-exception` object because the mutex is unlocked/abandoned. This helps avoid observing an inconsistent state. Clean termination can be obtained by polling, as shown in the example below.

For example:

```
(define (spawn thunk)
  (let ((t (make-thread thunk)))
    (thread-specific-set! t #t)
    (thread-start! t)
    t))

(define (stop! thread)
  (thread-specific-set! thread #f)
  (thread-join! thread))

(define (keep-going?)
  (thread-specific (current-thread)))

(define count!
  (let ((m (make-mutex))
        (i 0))
    (lambda ()
      (mutex-lock! m)
      (let ((x (+ i 1)))
        (set! i x)
        (mutex-unlock! m)
        x))))

(define (increment-forever!)
  (let loop () (count!) (if (keep-going?) (loop))))

(let ((t1 (spawn increment-forever!))
      (t2 (spawn increment-forever!)))
  (thread-sleep! 1)
  (stop! t1)
  (stop! t2)
  (count!)) ==> 377290
```

`(thread-join! thread [timeout [timeout-val]])` [procedure]

This procedure causes the current thread to wait until the *thread* terminates (normally or not) or until the timeout is reached if *timeout* is supplied. If the timeout is reached, *thread-join!* returns *timeout-val* if it is supplied, otherwise a `join-timeout-exception` object is raised. If the *thread* terminated normally, the content of the end-result field is returned, otherwise the content of the end-exception field is raised.

For example:

```
(let ((t (thread-start! (make-thread (lambda () (expt 2 100))))))
  (do-something-else)
  (thread-join! t)) ==> 1267650600228229401496703205376

(let ((t (thread-start! (make-thread (lambda () (raise 123))))))
  (do-something-else)
  (with-exception-handler
   (lambda (exc)
     (if (uncaught-exception? exc)
         (* 10 (uncaught-exception-reason exc))
         99999)))
```

```

(lambda ()
  (+ 1 (thread-join! t)))) ==> 1231

(define thread-alive?
  (let ((unique (list 'unique)))
    (lambda (thread)
      ; Note: this procedure raises an exception if
      ; the thread terminated abnormally.
      (eq? (thread-join! thread 0 unique) unique))))

(define (wait-for-termination! thread)
  (let ((eh (current-exception-handler)))
    (with-exception-handler
      (lambda (exc)
        (if (not (or (terminated-thread-exception? exc)
                     (uncaught-exception? exc)))
            (eh exc))) ; unexpected exceptions are handled by eh
      (lambda ()
        ; The following call to thread-join! will wait until the
        ; thread terminates. If the thread terminated normally
        ; thread-join! will return normally. If the thread
        ; terminated abnormally then one of these two exception
        ; objects is raised by thread-join!:
        ; - terminated-thread-exception object
        ; - uncaught-exception object
        (thread-join! thread)
        #f)))) ; ignore result of thread-join!

```

(mutex? *obj*) [procedure]

This procedure returns #t when *obj* is a mutex object and #f otherwise.

For example:

```

> (mutex? (make-mutex))
#t
> (mutex? 'foo)
#f

```

(make-mutex [*name*]) [procedure]

This procedure returns a new mutex in the unlocked/not-abandoned state. The optional *name* is an arbitrary Scheme object which identifies the mutex (useful for debugging); it defaults to an unspecified value. The mutex's specific field is set to an unspecified value.

For example:

```

> (make-mutex)
#<mutex #2>
> (make-mutex 'foo)
#<mutex #3 foo>

```

(mutex-name *mutex*) [procedure]

Returns the name of the *mutex*. For example:

```

> (mutex-name (make-mutex 'foo))
foo

```

(mutex-specific *mutex*) [procedure]

(mutex-specific-set! *mutex obj*) [procedure]

The mutex-specific procedure returns the content of the *mutex*'s specific field.

The `mutex-specific-set!` procedure stores *obj* into the *mutex*'s specific field and returns an unspecified value.

For example:

```
> (define m (make-mutex))
> (mutex-specific-set! m "hello")
> (mutex-specific m)
"hello"
> (define (mutex-lock-recursively! mutex)
      (if (eq? (mutex-state mutex) (current-thread))
          (let ((n (mutex-specific mutex)))
              (mutex-specific-set! mutex (+ n 1)))
          (begin
              (mutex-lock! mutex)
              (mutex-specific-set! mutex 0))))
> (define (mutex-unlock-recursively! mutex)
      (let ((n (mutex-specific mutex)))
          (if (= n 0)
              (mutex-unlock! mutex)
              (mutex-specific-set! mutex (- n 1)))))
> (mutex-lock-recursively! m)
> (mutex-lock-recursively! m)
> (mutex-lock-recursively! m)
> (mutex-specific m)
2
```

(mutex-state *mutex*) [procedure]

This procedure returns information about the state of the *mutex*. The possible results are:

- thread *T*: the *mutex* is in the locked/owned state and thread *T* is the owner of the *mutex*
- symbol not-owned: the *mutex* is in the locked/not-owned state
- symbol abandoned: the *mutex* is in the unlocked/abandoned state
- symbol not-abandoned: the *mutex* is in the unlocked/not-abandoned state

For example:

```
(mutex-state (make-mutex)) ==> not-abandoned

(define (thread-alive? thread)
  (let ((mutex (make-mutex)))
    (mutex-lock! mutex #f thread)
    (let ((state (mutex-state mutex)))
      (mutex-unlock! mutex) ; avoid space leak
      (eq? state thread))))
```

(mutex-lock! *mutex* [*timeout* [*thread*]]) [procedure]

This procedure locks *mutex*. If the *mutex* is currently locked, the current thread waits until the *mutex* is unlocked, or until the timeout is reached if *timeout* is supplied. If the timeout is reached, `mutex-lock!` returns '#f'. Otherwise, the state of the *mutex* is changed as follows:

- if *thread* is '#f' the *mutex* becomes locked/not-owned,
- otherwise, let *T* be *thread* (or the current thread if *thread* is not supplied),
  - if *T* is terminated the *mutex* becomes unlocked/abandoned,

- otherwise *mutex* becomes locked/owned with *T* as the owner.

After changing the state of the *mutex*, an abandoned-mutex-exception object is raised if the *mutex* was unlocked/abandoned before the state change, otherwise *mutex-lock!* returns '#t'. It is not an error if the *mutex* is owned by the current thread (but the current thread will have to wait).

For example:

```
; an implementation of a mailbox object of depth one; this
; implementation does not behave well in the presence of forced
; thread terminations using thread-terminate! (deadlock can occur
; if a thread is terminated in the middle of a put! or get! operation)

(define (make-empty-mailbox)
  (let ((put-mutex (make-mutex)) ; allow put! operation
        (get-mutex (make-mutex))
        (cell #f))

    (define (put! obj)
      (mutex-lock! put-mutex #f #f) ; prevent put! operation
      (set! cell obj)
      (mutex-unlock! get-mutex)) ; allow get! operation

    (define (get!)
      (mutex-lock! get-mutex #f #f) ; wait until object in mailbox
      (let ((result cell))
        (set! cell #f) ; prevent space leaks
        (mutex-unlock! put-mutex) ; allow put! operation
        result))

    (mutex-lock! get-mutex #f #f) ; prevent get! operation

    (lambda (msg)
      (case msg
        ((put!) put!)
        ((get!) get!)
        (else (error "unknown message"))))))

(define (mailbox-put! m obj) ((m 'put!) obj))
(define (mailbox-get! m) ((m 'get!)))

; an alternate implementation of thread-sleep!

(define (sleep! timeout)
  (let ((m (make-mutex)))
    (mutex-lock! m #f #f)
    (mutex-lock! m timeout #f)))

; a procedure that waits for one of two mutexes to unlock

(define (lock-one-of! mutex1 mutex2)
  ; this procedure assumes that neither mutex1 or mutex2
  ; are owned by the current thread
  (let ((ct (current-thread))
        (done-mutex (make-mutex)))
    (mutex-lock! done-mutex #f #f)
    (let ((t1 (thread-start!
                  (make-thread
```



```

        (lambda ()
          (mutex-lock! mutex1 #f ct)
          (mutex-unlock! done-mutex))))
      (t2 (thread-start!
            (make-thread
              (lambda ()
                (mutex-lock! mutex2 #f ct)
                (mutex-unlock! done-mutex))))))
      (mutex-lock! done-mutex #f #f)
      (thread-terminate! t1)
      (thread-terminate! t2)
      (if (eq? (mutex-state mutex1) ct)
          (begin
            (if (eq? (mutex-state mutex2) ct)
                (mutex-unlock! mutex2)) ; don't lock both
            mutex1)
          mutex2))))
(mutex-unlock! mutex [condition-variable [timeout]]) [procedure]

```

This procedure unlocks the *mutex* by making it unlocked/not-abandoned. It is not an error to unlock an unlocked mutex and a mutex that is owned by any thread. If *condition-variable* is supplied, the current thread is blocked and added to the *condition-variable* before unlocking *mutex*; the thread can unblock at any time but no later than when an appropriate call to *condition-variable-signal!* or *condition-variable-broadcast!* is performed (see below), and no later than the timeout (if *timeout* is supplied). If there are threads waiting to lock this *mutex*, the scheduler selects a thread, the mutex becomes locked/owned or locked/not-owned, and the thread is unblocked. *mutex-unlock!* returns ‘#f’ when the timeout is reached, otherwise it returns ‘#t’.

NOTE: The reason the thread can unblock at any time (when *condition-variable* is supplied) is that the scheduler, when it detects a serious problem such as a deadlock, must interrupt one of the blocked threads (such as the primordial thread) so that it can perform some appropriate action. After a thread blocked on a condition-variable has handled such an interrupt it would be wrong for the scheduler to return the thread to the blocked state, because any calls to *condition-variable-broadcast!* during the interrupt will have gone unnoticed. It is necessary for the thread to remain runnable and return from the call to *mutex-unlock!* with a result of ‘#t’.

NOTE: *mutex-unlock!* is related to the “wait” operation on condition variables available in other thread systems. The main difference is that “wait” automatically locks *mutex* just after the thread is unblocked. This operation is not performed by *mutex-unlock!* and so must be done by an explicit call to *mutex-lock!*. This has the advantages that a different timeout and exception-handler can be specified on the *mutex-lock!* and *mutex-unlock!* and the location of all the mutex operations is clearly apparent.

For example:

```

(let loop ()
  (mutex-lock! m)
  (if (condition-is-true?)
      (begin
        (do-something-when-condition-is-true)
        (mutex-unlock! m))
      (loop)))

```

```
(begin
  (mutex-unlock! m cv)
  (loop)))
```

(condition-variable? *obj*) [procedure]

This procedure returns #t when *obj* is a condition-variable object and #f otherwise.

For example:

```
> (condition-variable? (make-condition-variable))
#t
> (condition-variable? 'foo)
#f
```

(make-condition-variable [*name*]) [procedure]

This procedure returns a new empty condition variable. The optional *name* is an arbitrary Scheme object which identifies the condition variable (useful for debugging); it defaults to an unspecified value. The condition variable's specific field is set to an unspecified value.

For example:

```
> (make-condition-variable)
#<condition-variable #2>
```

(condition-variable-name *condition-variable*) [procedure]

This procedure returns the name of the *condition-variable*. For example:

```
> (condition-variable-name (make-condition-variable 'foo))
foo
```

(condition-variable-specific *condition-variable*) [procedure]

(condition-variable-specific-set! *condition-variable obj*) [procedure]

The condition-variable-specific procedure returns the content of the *condition-variable*'s specific field.

The condition-variable-specific-set! procedure stores *obj* into the *condition-variable*'s specific field and returns an unspecified value.

For example:

```
> (define cv (make-condition-variable))
> (condition-variable-specific-set! cv "hello")
> (condition-variable-specific cv)
"hello"
```

(condition-variable-signal! *condition-variable*) [procedure]

This procedure unblocks a thread blocked on the *condition-variable* (if there is at least one) and returns an unspecified value.

For example:

```
; an implementation of a mailbox object of depth one; this
; implementation behaves gracefully when threads are forcibly
; terminated using thread-terminate! (an abandoned-mutex-exception
; object will be raised when a put! or get! operation is attempted
; after a thread is terminated in the middle of a put! or get!
; operation)
```

```
(define (make-empty-mailbox)
```

```

(let ((mutex (make-mutex))
      (put-condvar (make-condition-variable))
      (get-condvar (make-condition-variable))
      (full? #f)
      (cell #f))

(define (put! obj)
  (mutex-lock! mutex)
  (if full?
      (begin
        (mutex-unlock! mutex put-condvar)
        (put! obj))
      (begin
        (set! cell obj)
        (set! full? #t)
        (condition-variable-signal! get-condvar)
        (mutex-unlock! mutex))))

(define (get!)
  (mutex-lock! mutex)
  (if (not full?)
      (begin
        (mutex-unlock! mutex get-condvar)
        (get!))
      (let ((result cell))
        (set! cell #f) ; avoid space leaks
        (set! full? #f)
        (condition-variable-signal! put-condvar)
        (mutex-unlock! mutex))))

(lambda (msg)
  (case msg
    ((put!) put!)
    ((get!) get!)
    (else (error "unknown message")))))

(define (mailbox-put! m obj) ((m 'put!) obj))
(define (mailbox-get! m) ((m 'get!)))

```

(condition-variable-broadcast! *condition-variable*) [procedure]

This procedure unblocks all the thread blocked on the *condition-variable* and returns an unspecified value.

For example:

```

(define (make-semaphore n)
  (vector n (make-mutex) (make-condition-variable)))

(define (semaphore-wait! sema)
  (mutex-lock! (vector-ref sema 1))
  (let ((n (vector-ref sema 0)))
    (if (> n 0)
        (begin
          (vector-set! sema 0 (- n 1))
          (mutex-unlock! (vector-ref sema 1)))
        (begin
          (mutex-unlock! (vector-ref sema 1) (vector-ref sema 2))
          (semaphore-wait! sema)))))

```

```
(define (semaphore-signal-by! sema increment)
  (mutex-lock! (vector-ref sema 1))
  (let ((n (+ (vector-ref sema 0) increment)))
    (vector-set! sema 0 n)
    (if (> n 0)
        (condition-variable-broadcast! (vector-ref sema 2)))
    (mutex-unlock! (vector-ref sema 1))))
```

## 12 Dynamic environment

The *dynamic environment* is the structure which allows the system to find the value returned by the standard procedures `current-input-port` and `current-output-port`. The standard procedures `with-input-from-file` and `with-output-to-file` extend the dynamic environment to produce a new dynamic environment which is in effect for the dynamic extent of the call to the thunk passed as their last argument. These procedures are essentially special purpose dynamic binding operations on hidden dynamic variables (one for `current-input-port` and one for `current-output-port`). Gambit generalizes this dynamic binding mechanism to allow the user to introduce new dynamic variables, called *parameter objects*, and dynamically bind them. The parameter objects implemented by Gambit are compatible with the specification of the “Parameter objects SRFI” (SRFI 39).

One important issue is the relationship between the dynamic environments of the parent and child threads when a thread is created. Each thread has its own dynamic environment that is accessed when looking up the value bound to a parameter object by that thread. When a thread’s dynamic environment is extended it does not affect the dynamic environment of other threads. When a thread is created it is given a dynamic environment whose bindings are inherited from the parent thread. In this inherited dynamic environment the parameter objects are bound to the same cells as the parent’s dynamic environment (in other words an assignment of a new value to a parameter object is visible in the other thread).

Another important issue is the interaction between the `dynamic-wind` procedure and dynamic environments. When a thread creates a continuation, the thread’s dynamic environment and the ‘dynamic-wind’ stack are saved within the continuation (an alternate but equivalent point of view is that the ‘dynamic-wind’ stack is part of the dynamic environment). When this continuation is invoked the required ‘dynamic-wind’ before and after thunks are called and the saved dynamic environment is reinstated as the dynamic environment of the current thread. During the call to each required ‘dynamic-wind’ before and after thunk, the dynamic environment and the ‘dynamic-wind’ stack in effect when the corresponding ‘dynamic-wind’ was executed are reinstated. Note that this specification precisely defines the semantics of calling ‘`call-with-current-continuation`’ or invoking a continuation within a before or after thunk. The semantics are well defined even when a continuation created by another thread is invoked. Below is an example exercising the subtleties of this semantics.

```
(with-output-to-file
  "foo"
  (lambda ()
    (let ((k (call-with-current-continuation
              (lambda (exit)
                (with-output-to-file
                  "bar"
                  (lambda ()
                    (dynamic-wind
                     (lambda ()
                       (write '(b1))
                       (force-output))
                     (lambda ()
                       (let ((x (call-with-current-continuation
```

```

                                (lambda (cont) (exit cont))))))
                                (write '(t1))
                                (force-output)
                                x))
                                (lambda ()
                                (write '(a1))
                                (force-output)))))))))
(if k
  (dynamic-wind
    (lambda ()
      (write '(b2))
      (force-output))
    (lambda ()
      (with-output-to-file
        "baz"
        (lambda ()
          (write '(t2))
          (force-output)
          ; go back inside (with-output-to-file "bar" ...)
          (k #f))))
      (lambda ()
        (write '(a2))
        (force-output))))))

```

The following actions will occur when this code is executed: (b1)(a1) is written to “bar”, (b2) is then written to “foo”, (t2) is then written to “baz”, (a2) is then written to “foo”, and finally (b1)(t1)(a1) is written to “bar”.

(make-parameter *obj* [*filter*]) [procedure]

The dynamic environment is composed of two parts: the *local dynamic environment* and the *global dynamic environment*. There is a single global dynamic environment, and it is used to lookup parameter objects that can’t be found in the local dynamic environment.

The make-parameter procedure returns a new *parameter object*. The *filter* argument is a one argument conversion procedure. If it is not specified, *filter* defaults to the identity function.

The global dynamic environment is updated to associate the parameter object to a new cell. The initial content of the cell is the result of applying the conversion procedure to *obj*.

A parameter object is a procedure which accepts zero or one argument. The cell bound to a particular parameter object in the dynamic environment is accessed by calling the parameter object. When no argument is passed, the content of the cell is returned. When one argument is passed the content of the cell is updated with the result of applying the parameter object’s conversion procedure to the argument. Note that the conversion procedure can be used for guaranteeing the type of the parameter object’s binding and/or to perform some conversion of the value.

For example:

```

> (define radix (make-parameter 10))
> (radix)
10
> (radix 2)
> (radix)

```

```

2
> (define prompt
  (make-parameter
    123
    (lambda (x)
      (if (string? x)
          x
          (object->string x))))))
> (prompt)
"123"
> (prompt "$")
"$"
> (prompt)
"$"
> (define write-shared
  (make-parameter
    #f
    (lambda (x)
      (if (boolean? x)
          x
          (error "only booleans are accepted by write-shared")))))
> (write-shared 123)
*** ERROR IN ##make-parameter -- only booleans are accepted by write-
shared

```

`(parameterize ((parameter value)...) body)` [special form]

The `parameterize` form, evaluates all *parameter* and *value* expressions in an unspecified order. All the *parameter* expressions must evaluate to parameter objects. Then, for each parameter object and in an unspecified order, a new cell is created, initialized, and bound to the parameter object in the local dynamic environment. The value contained in the cell is the result of applying the parameter object's conversion procedure to *value*. The resulting dynamic environment is then used for the evaluation of *body*. The result(s) of the `parameterize` form are the result(s) of the *body*.

For example:

```

> (radix)
2
> (parameterize ((radix 16)) (radix))
16
> (radix)
2
> (define (f n) (number->string n (radix)))
> (f 10)
"1010"
> (parameterize ((radix 8)) (f 10))
"12"
> (parameterize ((radix 8) (prompt (f 10))) (prompt))
"1010"

```

## 13 Exceptions

### 13.1 Exception-handling

Gambit’s exception-handling model is inspired from the withdrawn “Exception Handling SRFI” (SRFI 12), the “Multithreading support SRFI” (SRFI 18), and the “Exception Handling for Programs SRFI” (SRFI 34). The two fundamental operations are the dynamic binding of an exception handler (i.e. the procedure `with-exception-handler`) and the invocation of the exception handler (i.e. the procedure `raise`).

All predefined procedures which check for errors (including type errors, memory allocation errors, host operating-system errors, etc) report these errors using the exception-handling system (i.e. they “raise” an exception that can be handled in a user-defined exception handler). When an exception is raised and the exception is not handled by a user-defined exception handler, the predefined exception handler will display an error message (if the primordial thread raised the exception) or the thread will silently terminate with no error message (if it is not the primordial thread that raised the exception). This default behavior can be changed through the ‘-:d’ runtime option (see [Chapter 4 \[Runtime options\]](#), page 17).

Predefined procedures normally raise exceptions by performing a tail-call to the exception handler (the exceptions are “complex” procedures such as `eval`, `compile-file`, `read`, `write`, etc). This means that the continuation of the exception handler and of the REPL that may be started due to this is normally the continuation of the predefined procedure that raised the exception. By exiting the REPL with the `,(c expression)` command it is thus possible to resume the program as though the call to the predefined procedure returned the value of *expression*. For example:

```
> (define (f x) (+ (car x) 1))
> (f 2) ; typo... we meant to say (f '(2))
*** ERROR IN f, (console)@1.18 -- (Argument 1) PAIR expected
(car 2)
1> ,(c 2)
3
```

`(current-exception-handler [new-exception-handler])` [procedure]

The parameter object `current-exception-handler` is bound to the current exception-handler. Calling this procedure with no argument returns the current exception-handler and calling this procedure with one argument sets the current exception-handler to *new-exception-handler*.

For example:

```
> (current-exception-handler)
#<procedure #2 primordial-exception-handler>
> (current-exception-handler (lambda (exc) (pp exc) 999))
> (/ 1 0)
#<divide-by-zero-exception #3>
999
```

`(with-exception-handler handler thunk)` [procedure]

Returns the result(s) of calling *thunk* with no arguments. The *handler*, which must be a procedure, is installed as the current exception-handler in the dynamic environment



in effect during the call to *thunk*. Note that the dynamic environment in effect during the call to *handler* has *handler* as the exception-handler. Consequently, an exception raised during the call to *handler* may lead to an infinite loop.

For example:

```
> (with-exception-handler
   (lambda (e) (write e) 5)
   (lambda () (+ 1 (* 2 3) 4)))
11
> (with-exception-handler
   (lambda (e) (write e) 5)
   (lambda () (+ 1 (* 'foo 3) 4)))
#<type-exception #2>10
> (with-exception-handler
   (lambda (e) (write e 9))
   (lambda () (+ 1 (* 'foo 3) 4)))
infinite loop
```

(with-exception-catcher *handler thunk*) [procedure]

Returns the result(s) of calling *thunk* with no arguments. A new exception-handler is installed as the current exception-handler in the dynamic environment in effect during the call to *thunk*. This new exception-handler will call the *handler*, which must be a procedure, with the exception object as an argument and with the same continuation as the call to *with-exception-catcher*. This implies that the dynamic environment in effect during the call to *handler* is the same as the one in effect at the call to *with-exception-catcher*. Consequently, an exception raised during the call to *handler* will not lead to an infinite loop.

For example:

```
> (with-exception-catcher
   (lambda (e) (write e) 5)
   (lambda () (+ 1 (* 2 3) 4)))
11
> (with-exception-catcher
   (lambda (e) (write e) 5)
   (lambda () (+ 1 (* 'foo 3) 4)))
#<type-exception #2>10
> (with-exception-catcher
   (lambda (e) (write e 9))
   (lambda () (+ 1 (* 'foo 3) 4)))
*** ERROR IN (console)@7.1 -- (Argument 2) OUTPUT PORT expected
(write '#<type-exception #3> 9)
1>
```

(raise *obj*) [procedure]

This procedure tail-calls the current exception-handler with *obj* as the sole argument. If the exception-handler returns, the continuation of the call to *raise* is invoked.

For example:

```
> (with-exception-handler
   (lambda (exc)
     (pp exc)
     100)
   (lambda ()
     (+ 1 (raise "hello"))))
"hello"
101
```

```
(abort obj) [procedure]
(noncontinuable-exception? obj) [procedure]
(noncontinuable-exception-reason exc) [procedure]
```

The procedure `abort` calls the current exception-handler with *obj* as the sole argument. If the exception-handler returns, the procedure `abort` will be tail-called with a noncontinuable-exception object, whose reason field is *obj*, as sole argument.

Noncontinuable-exception objects are raised by the `abort` procedure when the exception-handler returns. The parameter *exc* must be a noncontinuable-exception object.

The procedure `noncontinuable-exception?` returns `#t` when *obj* is a noncontinuable-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `noncontinuable-exception-reason` returns the argument of the call to `abort` that raised *exc*.

For example:

```
> (call-with-current-continuation
   (lambda (k)
     (with-exception-handler
      (lambda (exc)
        (pp exc)
        (if (noncontinuable-exception? exc)
            (k (list (noncontinuable-exception-reason exc)))
            100))
      (lambda ()
        (+ 1 (abort "hello"))))))
"hello"
#<noncontinuable-exception #2>
("hello")
```

## 13.2 Exception objects related to memory management

```
(heap-overflow-exception? obj) [procedure]
```

Heap-overflow-exception objects are raised when the allocation of an object would cause the heap to use more memory space than is available.

The procedure `heap-overflow-exception?` returns `#t` when *obj* is a heap-overflow-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
   (if (heap-overflow-exception? exc)
       exc
       'not-heap-overflow-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
   handler
   (lambda ()
     (define (f x) (f (cons 1 x)))
     (f '()))))
#<heap-overflow-exception #2>
```

```
(stack-overflow-exception? obj) [procedure]
```

Stack-overflow-exception objects are raised when the allocation of a continuation frame would cause the heap to use more memory space than is available.

The procedure `stack-overflow-exception?` returns `#t` when *obj* is a stack-overflow-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
    (if (stack-overflow-exception? exc)
        exc
        'not-stack-overflow-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
    handler
    (lambda ()
      (define (f) (+ 1 (f))))
    (f)))
#<stack-overflow-exception #2>
```

### 13.3 Exception objects related to the host environment

<code>(os-exception? obj)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(os-exception-procedure exc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(os-exception-arguments exc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(os-exception-code exc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(os-exception-message exc)</code>	[procedure]

Os-exception objects are raised by procedures which access the host operating-system's services when the requested operation fails. The parameter *exc* must be a os-exception object.

The procedure `os-exception?` returns `#t` when *obj* is a os-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `os-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised *exc*.

The procedure `os-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised *exc*.

The procedure `os-exception-code` returns an exact integer error code that can be converted to a string by the `err-code->string` procedure. Note that the error code is operating-system dependent.

The procedure `os-exception-message` returns `#f` or a string giving details of the exception in a human-readable form.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
    (if (os-exception? exc)
        (list (os-exception-procedure exc)
              (os-exception-arguments exc)
              (err-code->string (os-exception-code exc))
              (os-exception-message exc))
        'not-os-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
    handler
    (lambda () (host-info "x.y.z"))))
(#<procedure #2 host-info> ("x.y.z") "Unknown host" #f)
```

<code>(no-such-file-or-directory-exception? obj)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(no-such-file-or-directory-exception-procedure exc)</code>	[procedure]

```
(no-such-file-or-directory-exception-arguments      [procedure]
  exc)
```

No-such-file-or-directory-exception objects are raised by procedures which access the filesystem (such as `open-input-file` and `directory-files`) when the path specified can't be found on the filesystem. The parameter `exc` must be a no-such-file-or-directory-exception object.

The procedure `no-such-file-or-directory-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a no-such-file-or-directory-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `no-such-file-or-directory-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `no-such-file-or-directory-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised `exc`.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
  (if (no-such-file-or-directory-exception? exc)
      (list (no-such-file-or-directory-exception-procedure exc)
            (no-such-file-or-directory-exception-arguments exc))
      'not-no-such-file-or-directory-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
  handler
  (lambda () (with-input-from-file "nofile" read)))
(#<procedure #2 with-input-from-file> ("nofile" #<procedure #3 read>))
```

```
(unbound-os-environment-variable-exception? obj)      [procedure]
```

```
(unbound-os-environment-variable-exception-
  procedure
  exc)
```

```
(unbound-os-environment-variable-exception-
  arguments
  exc)      [procedure]
```

Unbound-os-environment-variable-exception objects are raised when an unbound operating-system environment variable is accessed by the procedures `getenv` and `setenv`. The parameter `exc` must be an unbound-os-environment-variable-exception object.

The procedure `unbound-os-environment-variable-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is an unbound-os-environment-variable-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `unbound-os-environment-variable-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `unbound-os-environment-variable-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised `exc`.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
  (if (unbound-os-environment-variable-exception? exc)
      (list (unbound-os-environment-variable-exception-procedure exc)
            (unbound-os-environment-variable-exception-arguments exc))
      'not-unbound-os-environment-variable-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
```

```

      handler
      (lambda () (getenv "DOES_NOT_EXIST")))
    (#<procedure #2 getenv> ("DOES_NOT_EXIST"))

```

## 13.4 Exception objects related to threads

```

(scheduler-exception? obj) [procedure]
(scheduler-exception-reason exc) [procedure]

```

Scheduler-exception objects are raised by the scheduler when some operation requested from the host operating system failed (e.g. checking the status of the devices in order to wake up threads waiting to perform I/O on these devices). The parameter *exc* must be a scheduler-exception object.

The procedure `scheduler-exception?` returns #t when *obj* is a scheduler-exception object and #f otherwise.

The procedure `scheduler-exception-reason` returns the os-exception object that describes the failure detected by the scheduler.

```

(deadlock-exception? obj) [procedure]

```

Deadlock-exception objects are raised when the scheduler discovers that all threads are blocked and can make no further progress. In that case the scheduler unblocks the primordial-thread and forces it to raise a deadlock-exception object.

The procedure `deadlock-exception?` returns #t when *obj* is a deadlock-exception object and #f otherwise.

For example:

```

> (define (handler exc)
    (if (deadlock-exception? exc)
        exc
        'not-deadlock-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
    handler
    (lambda () (read (open-vector))))
#<deadlock-exception #2>

```

```

(abandoned-mutex-exception? obj) [procedure]

```

Abandoned-mutex-exception objects are raised when the current thread locks a mutex that was owned by a thread which terminated (see `mutex-lock!`).

The procedure `abandoned-mutex-exception?` returns #t when *obj* is a abandoned-mutex-exception object and #f otherwise.

For example:

```

> (define (handler exc)
    (if (abandoned-mutex-exception? exc)
        exc
        'not-abandoned-mutex-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
    handler
    (lambda ()
      (let ((m (make-mutex)))
        (thread-join!
         (thread-start!
          (make-thread

```

```

        (lambda () (mutex-lock! m))))
      (mutex-lock! m))))
    <abandoned-mutex-exception #2>

```

```

(join-timeout-exception? obj) [procedure]
(join-timeout-exception-procedure exc) [procedure]
(join-timeout-exception-arguments exc) [procedure]

```

Join-timeout-exception objects are raised when a call to the `thread-join!` procedure reaches its timeout before the target thread terminates and a timeout-value parameter is not specified. The parameter `exc` must be a join-timeout-exception object.

The procedure `join-timeout-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a join-timeout-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `join-timeout-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `join-timeout-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised `exc`.

For example:

```

> (define (handler exc)
  (if (join-timeout-exception? exc)
      (list (join-timeout-exception-procedure exc)
            (join-timeout-exception-arguments exc))
      'not-join-timeout-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
   handler
   (lambda ()
     (thread-join!
      (thread-start!
       (make-thread
        (lambda () (thread-sleep! 10))))
      5))))
(#<procedure #2 thread-join!> (#<thread #3> 5))

```

```

(started-thread-exception? obj) [procedure]
(started-thread-exception-procedure exc) [procedure]
(started-thread-exception-arguments exc) [procedure]

```

Started-thread-exception objects are raised when the target thread of a call to the procedure `thread-start!` is already started. The parameter `exc` must be a started-thread-exception object.

The procedure `started-thread-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a started-thread-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `started-thread-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `started-thread-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised `exc`.

For example:

```

> (define (handler exc)
  (if (started-thread-exception? exc)
      (list (started-thread-exception-procedure exc)

```

```

                (started-thread-exception-arguments exc))
            'not-started-thread-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
   handler
   (lambda ()
     (let ((t (make-thread (lambda () (expt 2 1000)))))
       (thread-start! t)
       (thread-start! t))))
   (#<procedure #2 thread-start!> (#<thread #3>))

(terminated-thread-exception? obj) [procedure]
(terminated-thread-exception-procedure exc) [procedure]
(terminated-thread-exception-arguments exc) [procedure]

```

Terminated-thread-exception objects are raised when the `thread-join!` procedure is called and the target thread has terminated as a result of a call to the `thread-terminate!` procedure. The parameter `exc` must be a terminated-thread-exception object.

The procedure `terminated-thread-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a terminated-thread-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `terminated-thread-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `terminated-thread-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised `exc`.

For example:

```

> (define (handler exc)
   (if (terminated-thread-exception? exc)
       (list (terminated-thread-exception-procedure exc)
             (terminated-thread-exception-arguments exc))
       'not-terminated-thread-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
   handler
   (lambda ()
     (thread-join!
      (thread-start!
       (make-thread
        (lambda () (thread-terminate! (current-thread))))))))
   (#<procedure #2 thread-join!> (#<thread #3>))

(uncaught-exception? obj) [procedure]
(uncaught-exception-procedure exc) [procedure]
(uncaught-exception-arguments exc) [procedure]
(uncaught-exception-reason exc) [procedure]

```

Uncaught-exception objects are raised when an object is raised in a thread and that thread does not handle it (i.e. the thread terminated because it did not catch an exception it raised). The parameter `exc` must be an uncaught-exception object.

The procedure `uncaught-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is an uncaught-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `uncaught-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `uncaught-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `uncaught-exception-reason` returns the object that was raised by the thread and not handled by that thread.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
  (if (uncaught-exception? exc)
      (list (uncaught-exception-procedure exc)
            (uncaught-exception-arguments exc)
            (uncaught-exception-reason exc))
      'not-uncaught-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
  handler
  (lambda ()
    (thread-join!
     (thread-start!
      (make-thread
       (lambda () (open-input-file "data" 99)))))))
(#<procedure #2 thread-join!>
 (#<thread #3>)
 #<wrong-number-of-arguments-exception #4>)
```

## 13.5 Exception objects related to C-interface

<code>(cfun-conversion-exception? obj)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(cfun-conversion-exception-procedure exc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(cfun-conversion-exception-arguments exc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(cfun-conversion-exception-code exc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(cfun-conversion-exception-message exc)</code>	[procedure]

Cfun-conversion-exception objects are raised by the C-interface when converting between the Scheme representation and the C representation of a value during a call from Scheme to C. The parameter `exc` must be a cfun-conversion-exception object.

The procedure `cfun-conversion-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a cfun-conversion-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `cfun-conversion-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `cfun-conversion-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `cfun-conversion-exception-code` returns an exact integer error code that can be converted to a string by the `err-code->string` procedure.

The procedure `cfun-conversion-exception-message` returns `#f` or a string giving details of the exception in a human-readable form.

For example:

```
% cat test.scm
(define weird
  (c-lambda (char-string) nonnull-char-string
    "__result = __arg1;"))
% gsc -dynamic test.scm
% gsi
```



```
Gambit Version 4.0 beta 11

> (load "test")
"/u/feeley/test.ol"
> (weird "hello")
"hello"
> (define (handler exc)
  (if (cfun-conversion-exception? exc)
      (list (cfun-conversion-exception-procedure exc)
            (cfun-conversion-exception-arguments exc)
            (err-code->string (cfun-conversion-exception-code exc))
            (cfun-conversion-exception-message exc))
      'not-cfun-conversion-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
  handler
  (lambda () (weird 'not-a-string)))
(#<procedure #2 weird>
 (not-a-string)
 "(Argument 1) Can't convert to C char-string"
 #f)
> (with-exception-catcher
  handler
  (lambda () (weird #f)))
(#<procedure #2 weird>
 (#f)
 "Can't convert result from C nonnull-char-string"
 #f)
```

(sfun-conversion-exception? <i>obj</i> )	[procedure]
(sfun-conversion-exception-procedure <i>exc</i> )	[procedure]
(sfun-conversion-exception-arguments <i>exc</i> )	[procedure]
(sfun-conversion-exception-code <i>exc</i> )	[procedure]
(sfun-conversion-exception-message <i>exc</i> )	[procedure]

Sfun-conversion-exception objects are raised by the C-interface when converting between the Scheme representation and the C representation of a value during a call from C to Scheme. The parameter *exc* must be a sfun-conversion-exception object.

The procedure sfun-conversion-exception? returns #t when *obj* is a sfun-conversion-exception object and #f otherwise.

The procedure sfun-conversion-exception-procedure returns the procedure that raised *exc*.

The procedure sfun-conversion-exception-arguments returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised *exc*.

The procedure sfun-conversion-exception-code returns an exact integer error code that can be converted to a string by the err-code->string procedure.

The procedure sfun-conversion-exception-message returns #f or a string giving details of the exception in a human-readable form.

For example:

```
% cat test.scm
(c-define (f str) (nonnull-char-string) int "f" ""
  (string->number str))
(define t1 (c-lambda () int "___result = f (\"123\");"))
(define t2 (c-lambda () int "___result = f (NULL);"))
```

```

(define t3 (c-lambda () int "___result = f (\"1.5\");"))
% gsc -dynamic test.scm
% gsi
Gambit Version 4.0 beta 11

> (load "test")
"/u/feeley/test.ol"
> (t1)
123
> (define (handler exc)
  (if (sfun-conversion-exception? exc)
      (list (sfun-conversion-exception-procedure exc)
            (sfun-conversion-exception-arguments exc)
            (err-code->string (sfun-conversion-exception-code exc))
            (sfun-conversion-exception-message exc))
      'not-sfun-conversion-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher handler t2)
(#<procedure #2 f>
 ()
 "(Argument 1) Can't convert from C nonnull-char-string"
 #f)
> (with-exception-catcher handler t3)
(#<procedure #2 f> () "Can't convert result to C int" #f)

```

(multiple-c-return-exception? *obj*) [procedure]

Multiple-c-return-exception objects are raised by the C-interface when a C to Scheme procedure call returns and that call's stack frame is no longer on the C stack because the call has already returned, or has been removed from the C stack by a longjump.

The procedure `multiple-c-return-exception?` returns `#t` when *obj* is a multiple-c-return-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

For example:

```

% cat test.scm
(c-define (f str) (char-string) scheme-object "f" ""
  (pp (list 'entry 'str= str))
  (let ((k (call-with-current-continuation (lambda (k) k))))
    (pp (list 'exit 'k= k))
    k))
(define scheme-to-c-to-scheme-and-back
  (c-lambda (char-string) scheme-object
    "___result = f (___arg1);"))
% gsc -dynamic test.scm
% gsi
Gambit Version 4.0 beta 11

> (load "test")
"/u/feeley/test.ol"
> (define (handler exc)
  (if (multiple-c-return-exception? exc)
      exc
      'not-multiple-c-return-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
  handler
  (lambda ()
    (let ((c (scheme-to-c-to-scheme-and-back "hello"))))
      (pp c)
      (c 999)))))

```

```

(entry str= "hello")
(exit k= #<procedure #2>)
#<procedure #2>
(exit k= 999)
#<multiple-c-return-exception #3>

```

## 13.6 Exception objects related to the reader

```

(datum-parsing-exception? obj) [procedure]
(datum-parsing-exception-kind exc) [procedure]
(datum-parsing-exception-parameters exc) [procedure]

```

Datum-parsing-exception objects are raised by the reader (i.e. the `read` procedure) when the input does not conform to the grammar for datum. The parameter `exc` must be a datum-parsing-exception object.

The procedure `datum-parsing-exception?` returns `#t` when *obj* is a datum-parsing-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `datum-parsing-exception-kind` returns a symbol denoting the kind of parsing error that was encountered by the reader when it raised *exc*. Here is a table of the possible return values:

<code>datum-or-eof-expected</code>	Datum or EOF expected
<code>datum-expected</code>	Datum expected
<code>improperly-placed-dot</code>	Improperly placed dot
<code>incomplete-form-eof-reached</code>	Incomplete form, EOF reached
<code>incomplete-form</code>	Incomplete form
<code>character-out-of-range</code>	Character out of range
<code>invalid-character-name</code>	Invalid '#\' name
<code>illegal-character</code>	Illegal character
<code>s8-expected</code>	Signed 8 bit exact integer expected
<code>u8-expected</code>	Unsigned 8 bit exact integer expected
<code>s16-expected</code>	Signed 16 bit exact integer expected
<code>u16-expected</code>	Unsigned 16 bit exact integer expected
<code>s32-expected</code>	Signed 32 bit exact integer expected
<code>u32-expected</code>	Unsigned 32 bit exact integer expected
<code>s64-expected</code>	Signed 64 bit exact integer expected
<code>u64-expected</code>	Unsigned 64 bit exact integer expected
<code>inexact-real-expected</code>	Inexact real expected
<code>invalid-hex-escape</code>	Invalid hexadecimal escape
<code>invalid-escaped-character</code>	Invalid escaped character
<code>open-paren-expected</code>	'(' expected
<code>invalid-token</code>	Invalid token
<code>invalid-sharp-bang-name</code>	Invalid '#!' name
<code>duplicate-label-definition</code>	Duplicate definition for label
<code>missing-label-definition</code>	Missing definition for label
<code>illegal-label-definition</code>	Illegal definition of label
<code>invalid-infix-syntax-character</code>	Invalid infix syntax character
<code>invalid-infix-syntax-number</code>	Invalid infix syntax number

invalid-infix-syntax

Invalid infix syntax

The procedure `datum-parsing-exception-parameters` returns a list of the parameters associated with the parsing error that was encountered by the reader when it raised `exc`.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
  (if (datum-parsing-exception? exc)
      (list (datum-parsing-exception-kind exc)
            (datum-parsing-exception-parameters exc))
      'not-datum-parsing-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
   handler
   (lambda ()
     (with-input-from-string "(s #\\pace)" read)))
(invalid-character-name ("pace"))
```

## 13.7 Exception objects related to evaluation and compilation

<code>(expression-parsing-exception? obj)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(expression-parsing-exception-kind exc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(expression-parsing-exception-parameters exc)</code>	[procedure]

Expression-parsing-exception objects are raised by the evaluator and compiler (i.e. the procedures `eval`, `compile-file`, etc) when the input does not conform to the grammar for expression. The parameter `exc` must be a expression-parsing-exception object.

The procedure `expression-parsing-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a expression-parsing-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `expression-parsing-exception-kind` returns a symbol denoting the kind of parsing error that was encountered by the evaluator or compiler when it raised `exc`. Here is a table of the possible return values:

<code>id-expected</code>	Identifier expected
<code>ill-formed-namespace</code>	Ill-formed namespace
<code>ill-formed-namespace-prefix</code>	Ill-formed namespace prefix
<code>namespace-prefix-must-be-string</code>	Namespace prefix must be a string
<code>macro-used-as-variable</code>	Macro name can't be used as a variable
<code>ill-formed-macro-transformer</code>	Macro transformer must be a lambda expression
<code>reserved-used-as-variable</code>	Reserved identifier can't be used as a variable
<code>ill-formed-special-form</code>	Ill-formed special form
<code>cannot-open-file</code>	Can't open file
<code>filename-expected</code>	Filename expected
<code>ill-placed-define</code>	Ill-placed 'define'
<code>ill-placed-**include</code>	Ill-placed '##include'
<code>ill-placed-**define-macro</code>	Ill-placed '##define-macro'

<code>ill-placed-**declare</code>	Ill-placed '##declare'
<code>ill-placed-**namespace</code>	Ill-placed '##namespace'
<code>ill-formed-expression</code>	Ill-formed expression
<code>unsupported-special-form</code>	Interpreter does not support
<code>ill-placed-unquote</code>	Ill-placed 'unquote'
<code>ill-placed-unquote-splicing</code>	Ill-placed 'unquote-splicing'
<code>parameter-must-be-id</code>	Parameter must be an identifier
<code>parameter-must-be-id-or-default</code>	Parameter must be an identifier or default binding
<code>duplicate-parameter</code>	Duplicate parameter in parameter list
<code>ill-placed-dotted-rest-parameter</code>	Ill-placed dotted rest parameter
<code>parameter-expected-after-rest</code>	#!rest must be followed by a parameter
<code>ill-formed-default</code>	Ill-formed default binding
<code>ill-placed-optional</code>	Ill-placed #!optional
<code>ill-placed-rest</code>	Ill-placed #!rest
<code>ill-placed-key</code>	Ill-placed #!key
<code>key-expected-after-rest</code>	#!key expected after rest parameter
<code>ill-placed-default</code>	Ill-placed default binding
<code>duplicate-variable-definition</code>	Duplicate definition of a variable
<code>empty-body</code>	Body must contain at least one expression
<code>variable-must-be-id</code>	Defined variable must be an identifier
<code>else-clause-not-last</code>	Else clause must be last
<code>ill-formed-selector-list</code>	Ill-formed selector list
<code>duplicate-variable-binding</code>	Duplicate variable in bindings
<code>ill-formed-binding-list</code>	Ill-formed binding list
<code>ill-formed-call</code>	Ill-formed procedure call
<code>ill-formed-cond-expand</code>	Ill-formed 'cond-expand'
<code>unfulfilled-cond-expand</code>	Unfulfilled 'cond-expand'

The procedure `expression-parsing-exception-parameters` returns a list of the parameters associated with the parsing error that was encountered by the evaluator or compiler when it raised `exc`.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
  (if (expression-parsing-exception? exc)
      (list (expression-parsing-exception-kind exc)
            (expression-parsing-exception-parameters exc))
      'not-expression-parsing-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
   handler
   (lambda ()
     (eval '(+ do 1))))
(reserved-used-as-variable (do))
```

`(unbound-global-exception? obj)` [procedure]

`(unbound-global-exception-variable exc)` [procedure]

Unbound-global-exception objects are raised when an unbound global variable is accessed. The parameter `exc` must be an unbound-global-exception object.

The procedure `unbound-global-exception?` returns `#t` when *obj* is an unbound-global-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `unbound-global-exception-variable` returns a symbol identifying the unbound global variable.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
  (if (unbound-global-exception? exc)
      (list 'variable= (unbound-global-exception-variable exc))
      'not-unbound-global-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
  handler
  (lambda () foo))
(variable= foo)
```

## 13.8 Exception objects related to type checking

<code>(type-exception? obj)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(type-exception-procedure exc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(type-exception-arguments exc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(type-exception-arg-num exc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(type-exception-type-id exc)</code>	[procedure]

Type-exception objects are raised when a primitive procedure is called with an argument of incorrect type (i.e. when a run time type-check fails). The parameter *exc* must be a type-exception object.

The procedure `type-exception?` returns `#t` when *obj* is a type-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `type-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised *exc*.

The procedure `type-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised *exc*.

The procedure `type-exception-arg-num` returns the position of the argument whose type is incorrect. Position 1 is the first argument.

The procedure `type-exception-type-id` returns an identifier of the type expected. The type-id can be a symbol, such as `number` and `string-or-nonnegative-fixnum`, or a record type descriptor.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
  (if (type-exception? exc)
      (list (type-exception-procedure exc)
            (type-exception-arguments exc)
            (type-exception-arg-num exc)
            (type-exception-type-id exc))
      'not-type-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
  handler
  (lambda () (vector-ref '#(a b c) 'foo)))
(#<procedure #2 vector-ref> (#(a b c) foo) 2 exact-integer)
> (with-exception-catcher
  handler
```

```
(lambda () (time->seconds 'foo)))
(#<procedure #3 time->seconds> (foo) 1 #<type #4 time>)
```

```
(range-exception? obj) [procedure]
(range-exception-procedure exc) [procedure]
(range-exception-arguments exc) [procedure]
(range-exception-arg-num exc) [procedure]
```

Range-exception objects are raised when a numeric parameter is not in the allowed range. The parameter `exc` must be a range-exception object.

The procedure `range-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a range-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `range-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `range-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `range-exception-arg-num` returns the position of the argument which is not in the allowed range. Position 1 is the first argument.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
    (if (range-exception? exc)
        (list (range-exception-procedure exc)
              (range-exception-arguments exc)
              (range-exception-arg-num exc))
        'not-range-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
    handler
    (lambda () (string-ref "abcde" 10)))
(#<procedure #2 string-ref> ("abcde" 10) 2)
```

```
(divide-by-zero-exception? obj) [procedure]
(divide-by-zero-exception-procedure exc) [procedure]
(divide-by-zero-exception-arguments exc) [procedure]
```

Divide-by-zero-exception objects are raised when a division by zero is attempted. The parameter `exc` must be a divide-by-zero-exception object.

The procedure `divide-by-zero-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a divide-by-zero-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `divide-by-zero-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised `exc`.

The procedure `divide-by-zero-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised `exc`.

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
    (if (divide-by-zero-exception? exc)
        (list (divide-by-zero-exception-procedure exc)
              (divide-by-zero-exception-arguments exc))
        'not-divide-by-zero-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
    handler
    (lambda () (/ 5 0 7)))
(#<procedure #2 /> (5 0 7))
```



```

(improper-length-list-exception? obj)           [procedure]
(improper-length-list-exception-procedure exc)   [procedure]
(improper-length-list-exception-arguments exc)   [procedure]
(improper-length-list-exception-arg-num exc)     [procedure]

```

Improper-length-list-exception objects are raised by the map and for-each procedures when they are called with two or more list arguments and the lists are not of the same length. The parameter *exc* must be an improper-length-list-exception object.

The procedure `improper-length-list-exception?` returns #t when *obj* is an improper-length-list-exception object and #f otherwise.

The procedure `improper-length-list-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised *exc*.

The procedure `improper-length-list-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised *exc*.

The procedure `improper-length-list-exception-arg-num` returns the position of the argument whose length is the shortest. Position 1 is the first argument.

For example:

```

> (define (handler exc)
  (if (improper-length-list-exception? exc)
      (list (improper-length-list-exception-procedure exc)
            (improper-length-list-exception-arguments exc)
            (improper-length-list-exception-arg-num exc))
      'not-improper-length-list-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
   handler
   (lambda () (map + '(1 2) '(3) '(4 5))))
(#<procedure #2 map> (#<procedure #3 +> (1 2) (3) (4 5)) 3)

```

### 13.9 Exception objects related to procedure call

```

(wrong-number-of-arguments-exception? obj)       [procedure]
(wrong-number-of-arguments-exception-procedure    [procedure]
 exc)
(wrong-number-of-arguments-exception-arguments    [procedure]
 exc)

```

Wrong-number-of-arguments-exception objects are raised when a procedure is called with the wrong number of arguments. The parameter *exc* must be a wrong-number-of-arguments-exception object.

The procedure `wrong-number-of-arguments-exception?` returns #t when *obj* is a wrong-number-of-arguments-exception object and #f otherwise.

The procedure `wrong-number-of-arguments-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised *exc*.

The procedure `wrong-number-of-arguments-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised *exc*.

For example:

```

> (define (handler exc)
  (if (wrong-number-of-arguments-exception? exc)
      (list (wrong-number-of-arguments-exception-procedure exc)
            (wrong-number-of-arguments-exception-arguments exc))
      'not-wrong-number-of-arguments-exception))

```



```

                (wrong-number-of-arguments-exception-arguments exc))
                'not-wrong-number-of-arguments-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
   handler
   (lambda () (open-input-file "data" 99)))
(#<procedure #2 open-input-file> ("data" 99))

(number-of-arguments-limit-exception? obj)           [procedure]
(number-of-arguments-limit-exception-procedure exc)   [procedure]
(number-of-arguments-limit-exception-arguments exc)   [procedure]

```

Number-of-arguments-limit-exception objects are raised by the `apply` procedure when the procedure being called is passed more than 8192 arguments. The parameter `exc` must be a number-of-arguments-limit-exception object.

The procedure `number-of-arguments-limit-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a number-of-arguments-limit-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `number-of-arguments-limit-exception-procedure` returns the target procedure of the call to `apply` that raised `exc`.

The procedure `number-of-arguments-limit-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the target procedure of the call to `apply` that raised `exc`.

For example:

```

> (define (iota n) (if (= n 0) '() (cons n (iota (- n 1)))))
> (define (handler exc)
   (if (number-of-arguments-limit-exception? exc)
       (list (number-of-arguments-limit-exception-procedure exc)
             (length (number-of-arguments-limit-exception-arguments exc)))
       'not-number-of-arguments-limit-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
   handler
   (lambda () (apply + 1 2 3 (iota 8190))))
(#<procedure #2 +> 8193)

(nonprocedure-operator-exception? obj)           [procedure]
(nonprocedure-operator-exception-operator exc)   [procedure]
(nonprocedure-operator-exception-arguments exc)   [procedure]

```

Nonprocedure-operator-exception objects are raised when a procedure call is executed and the operator position is not a procedure. The parameter `exc` must be a nonprocedure-operator-exception object.

The procedure `nonprocedure-operator-exception?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a nonprocedure-operator-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `nonprocedure-operator-exception-operator` returns the value in operator position of the procedure call that raised `exc`.

The procedure `nonprocedure-operator-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure call that raised `exc`.

For example:

```

> (define (handler exc)
   (if (nonprocedure-operator-exception? exc)
       (list (nonprocedure-operator-exception-operator exc)
             (length (nonprocedure-operator-exception-arguments exc)))
       'not-nonprocedure-operator-exception))

```

```

                (nonprocedure-operator-exception-arguments exc))
            'not-nonprocedure-operator-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
   handler
   (lambda () (11 22 33)))
(11 (22 33))

```

```

(unknown-keyword-argument-exception? obj)           [procedure]
(unknown-keyword-argument-exception-procedure exc)   [procedure]
(unknown-keyword-argument-exception-arguments exc)   [procedure]

```

Unknown-keyword-argument-exception objects are raised when a procedure accepting keyword arguments is called and one of the keywords supplied is not among those that are expected. The parameter *exc* must be an unknown-keyword-argument-exception object.

The procedure `unknown-keyword-argument-exception?` returns `#t` when *obj* is an unknown-keyword-argument-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `unknown-keyword-argument-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised *exc*.

The procedure `unknown-keyword-argument-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised *exc*.

For example:

```

> (define (handler exc)
   (if (unknown-keyword-argument-exception? exc)
       (list (unknown-keyword-argument-exception-procedure exc)
             (unknown-keyword-argument-exception-arguments exc))
       'not-unknown-keyword-argument-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
   handler
   (lambda () ((lambda (#!key (foo 5)) foo) bar: 11)))
(#<procedure #2> (bar: 11))

```

```

(keyword-expected-exception? obj)           [procedure]
(keyword-expected-exception-procedure exc)   [procedure]
(keyword-expected-exception-arguments exc)   [procedure]

```

Keyword-expected-exception objects are raised when a procedure accepting keyword arguments is called and a nonkeyword was supplied where a keyword was expected.

The parameter *exc* must be an keyword-expected-exception object.

The procedure `keyword-expected-exception?` returns `#t` when *obj* is an keyword-expected-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `keyword-expected-exception-procedure` returns the procedure that raised *exc*.

The procedure `keyword-expected-exception-arguments` returns the list of arguments of the procedure that raised *exc*.

For example:

```

> (define (handler exc)
   (if (keyword-expected-exception? exc)
       (list (keyword-expected-exception-procedure exc)
             (keyword-expected-exception-arguments exc))
       'not-keyword-expected-exception))

```

```
> (with-exception-catcher
    handler
    (lambda () ((lambda (!key (foo 5)) foo) 11 22)))
(#<procedure #2> (11 22))
```

### 13.10 Other exception objects

(error-exception? <i>obj</i> )	[procedure]
(error-exception-message <i>exc</i> )	[procedure]
(error-exception-parameters <i>exc</i> )	[procedure]
(error <i>message obj...</i> )	[procedure]

Error-exception objects are raised when the `error` procedure is called. The parameter *exc* must be an error-exception object.

The procedure `error-exception?` returns `#t` when *obj* is an error-exception object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `error-exception-message` returns the first argument of the call to `error` that raised *exc*.

The procedure `error-exception-parameters` returns the list of arguments, starting with the second argument, of the call to `error` that raised *exc*.

The `error` procedure raises an error-exception object whose message field is *message* and parameters field is the list of values *obj...*

For example:

```
> (define (handler exc)
    (if (error-exception? exc)
        (list (error-exception-message exc)
              (error-exception-parameters exc))
        'not-error-exception))
> (with-exception-catcher
    handler
    (lambda () (error "unexpected object:" 123)))
("unexpected object:" (123))
```

## 14 Host environment

The host environment is the set of resources, such as the filesystem, network and processes, that are managed by the operating system within which the Scheme program is executing. This chapter specifies how the host environment can be accessed from within the Scheme program.

In this chapter we say that the Scheme program being executed is a process, even though the concept of process does not exist in some operating systems supported by Gambit (e.g. MSDOS and Classic Mac OS).

### 14.1 Handling of file names

Gambit uses a naming convention for files that is compatible with the one used by the host environment but extended to allow referring to the *home directory* of the current user or some specific user and the *Gambit installation directory*.

A *path* is a string that denotes a file, for example "src/readme.txt". Each component of a path is separated by a '/' under UNIX and Mac OS X, by a '/' or '\' under MSDOS and Microsoft Windows, and by a ':' under Classic Mac OS. A leading separator indicates an absolute path under UNIX, Mac OS X, MSDOS and Microsoft Windows but indicates a relative path under Classic Mac OS. A path which does not contain a path separator is relative to the *current working directory* on all operating systems, including Classic Mac OS. A volume specifier such as 'C:' may prefix a file name under MSDOS and Microsoft Windows.

Under Classic Mac OS the folder 'Gambit-C' must exist in the 'Preferences' folder in the 'System' folder and must not be an alias.

The rest of this section uses '/' to represent the path separator.

A path which starts with the characters '~/' denotes a file in the Gambit installation directory. This directory is normally '/usr/local/Gambit-C/' under UNIX and Mac OS X, 'C:\Gambit-C\' under MSDOS and Microsoft Windows, and under Classic Mac OS the 'Gambit-C' folder. To override this binding under UNIX, Mac OS X, MSDOS and Microsoft Windows, use the '-:=<dir>' runtime option or define the 'GAMBCOPT' environment variable.

A path which starts with the characters '~/' denotes a file in the user's home directory. The user's home directory is contained in the 'HOME' environment variable under UNIX, Mac OS X, MSDOS and Microsoft Windows. Under MSDOS and Microsoft Windows, if the 'HOME' environment variable is not defined, the environment variables 'HOMEDRIVE' and 'HOMEPATH' are concatenated if they are defined. If this fails to yield a home directory, the Gambit installation directory is used instead. Under Classic Mac OS the user's home directory is the folder which contains the application.

A path which starts with the characters '~username/' denotes a file in the home directory of the given user. Under UNIX and Mac OS X this is found using the password file. There is no equivalent under MSDOS, Microsoft Windows, and Classic Mac OS.

(current-directory [*new-current-directory*]) [procedure]

The parameter object *current-directory* is bound to the *current working directory*. Calling this procedure with no argument returns the absolute *normalized*

*path* of the directory and calling this procedure with one argument sets the directory to *new-current-directory*. The initial binding of this parameter object is the current working directory of the current process. Modifications of the parameter object do not change the current working directory of the current process (i.e. that is accessible with the UNIX `getcwd()` function). It is an error to mutate the string returned by `current-directory`.

For example under UNIX:

```
> (current-directory)
"/u/feeley/work/"
> (current-directory "..")
> (current-directory)
"/u/feeley/"
> (parameterize ((current-directory "~/")) (path-expand "foo"))
"/usr/local/Gambit-C/foo"
```

`(path-expand path [origin-directory])` [procedure]

The procedure `path-expand` takes the path of a file or directory and returns an expanded path, which is an absolute path when *path* or *origin-directory* are absolute paths. The optional *origin-directory* parameter, which defaults to the current working directory, is the directory used to resolve relative paths. Components of the paths *path* and *origin-directory* need not exist.

For example under UNIX:

```
> (path-expand "foo")
"/u/feeley/work/foo"
> (path-expand "~/foo")
"/u/feeley/foo"
> (path-expand "~/~/foo")
"/usr/local/Gambit-C/foo"
> (path-expand "../foo")
"/u/feeley/work/../foo"
> (path-expand "foo" "")
"foo"
> (path-expand "foo" "/tmp")
"/tmp/foo"
> (path-expand "this/file/does/not/exist")
"/u/feeley/work/this/file/does/not/exist"
> (path-expand "")
"/u/feeley/work/"
```

`(path-normalize path [allow-relative? [origin-directory]])` [procedure]

The procedure `path-normalize` takes a path of a file or directory and returns its normalized path. The optional *origin-directory* parameter, which defaults to the current working directory, is the directory used to resolve relative paths. All components of the paths *path* and *origin-directory* must exist, except possibly the last component of *path*. A normalized path is a path containing no redundant parts and which is consistent with the current structure of the filesystem. A normalized path of a directory will always end with a path separator (i.e. `'/'`, `'\'`, or `':'` depending on the operating system). The optional *allow-relative?* parameter, which defaults to `#f`, indicates if the path returned can be expressed relatively to *origin-directory*: a `#f` requests an absolute path, the symbol `shortest` requests the shortest of the absolute and

relative paths, and any other value requests the relative path. The shortest path is useful for interaction with the user because short relative paths are typically easier to read than long absolute paths.

For example under UNIX:

```
> (path-expand "../foo")
"/u/feeley/work/../foo"
> (path-normalize "../foo")
"/u/feeley/work/foo/"
> (path-normalize "this/file/does/not/exist")
*** ERROR IN (console)@3.1 -- No such file or directory
(path-normalize "this/file/does/not/exist")
```

(path-extension <i>path</i> )	[procedure]
(path-strip-extension <i>path</i> )	[procedure]
(path-directory <i>path</i> )	[procedure]
(path-strip-directory <i>path</i> )	[procedure]
(path-volume <i>path</i> )	[procedure]
(path-strip-volume <i>path</i> )	[procedure]

These procedures extract various parts of a path, which need not be a normalized path. The procedure `path-extension` returns the file extension (including the period) or the empty string if there is no extension. The procedure `path-strip-extension` returns the path with the extension stripped off. The procedure `path-directory` returns the file's directory (including the last path separator) or the empty string if no directory is specified in the path. The procedure `path-strip-directory` returns the path with the directory stripped off. The procedure `path-volume` returns the file's volume (including the last path separator) or the empty string if no volume is specified in the path. The procedure `path-strip-volume` returns the path with the volume stripped off.

For example under UNIX:

```
> (path-extension "/tmp/foo")
""
> (path-extension "/tmp/foo.txt")
".txt"
> (path-strip-extension "/tmp/foo.txt")
"/tmp/foo"
> (path-directory "/tmp/foo.txt")
"/tmp/"
> (path-strip-directory "/tmp/foo.txt")
"foo.txt"
> (path-volume "/tmp/foo.txt")
""
> (path-volume "C:/tmp/foo.txt")
"" ; result is "C:" under Microsoft Windows
> (path-strip-volume "C:/tmp/foo.txt")
"C:/tmp/foo.txt" ; result is "/tmp/foo.txt" under Microsoft Windows
```

## 14.2 Filesystem operations

`(create-directory path-or-settings)` [procedure]

This procedure creates a directory. The argument *path-or-settings* is either a string denoting a filesystem path or a list of port settings which must contain a *path:* setting. Here are the settings allowed:

- *path: string*  
This setting indicates the location of the directory to create in the filesystem. There is no default value for this setting.
- *permissions: 12-bit-exact-integer*  
This setting controls the UNIX permissions that will be attached to the file if it is created. The default value of this setting is `#o666`.

For example:

```
> (create-directory "newdir")
> (create-directory "newdir")
*** ERROR IN (console)@34.1 -- File exists
(create-directory "newdir")
```

`(create-fifo path-or-settings)` [procedure]

This procedure creates a FIFO. The argument *path-or-settings* is either a string denoting a filesystem path or a list of port settings which must contain a *path:* setting. Here are the settings allowed:

- *path: string*  
This setting indicates the location of the FIFO to create in the filesystem. There is no default value for this setting.
- *permissions: 12-bit-exact-integer*  
This setting controls the UNIX permissions that will be attached to the file if it is created. The default value of this setting is `#o666`.

For example:

```
> (create-fifo "fifo")
> (define a (open-input-file "fifo"))
> (define b (open-output-file "fifo"))
> (display "1 22 333" b)
> (force-output b)
> (read a)
1
> (read a)
22
```

`(create-link source-path destination-path)` [procedure]

This procedure creates a hard link between *source-path* and *destination-path*. The argument *source-path* must be a string denoting the path of an existing file. The argument *destination-path* must be a string denoting the path of the link to create.

`(create-symbolic-link source-path destination-path)` [procedure]

This procedure creates a symbolic link between *source-path* and *destination-path*. The argument *source-path* must be a string denoting the path of an existing file. The argument *destination-path* must be a string denoting the path of the symbolic link to create.



`(rename-file source-path destination-path)` [procedure]

This procedure renames the file *source-path* to *destination-path*. The argument *source-path* must be a string denoting the path of an existing file. The argument *destination-path* must be a string denoting the new path of the file.

`(copy-file source-path destination-path)` [procedure]

This procedure copies the file *source-path* to *destination-path*. The argument *source-path* must be a string denoting the path of an existing file. The argument *destination-path* must be a string denoting the path of the file to create.

`(delete-file path)` [procedure]

This procedure deletes the file *path*. The argument *path* must be a string denoting the path of an existing file.

`(delete-directory path)` [procedure]

This procedure deletes the directory *path*. The argument *path* must be a string denoting the path of an existing directory.

`(directory-files [path-or-settings])` [procedure]

This procedure returns the list of the files in a directory. The argument *path-or-settings* is either a string denoting a filesystem path to a directory or a list of settings which must contain a `path:` setting. If it is not specified, *path-or-settings* defaults to the current directory (the value bound to the `current-directory` parameter object). Here are the settings allowed:

- `path: string`

This setting indicates the location of the directory in the filesystem. There is no default value for this setting.

- `ignore-hidden: ( #f | #t | dot-and-dot-dot )`

This setting controls whether hidden-files will be returned. Under UNIX and Mac OS X hidden-files are those that start with a period (such as `.'`, `..`, and `.profile`). Under Microsoft Windows hidden files are the `.'` and `..` entries and the files whose “hidden file” attribute is set. A setting of `#f` will enumerate all the files. A setting of `#t` will only enumerate the files that are not hidden. A setting of `dot-and-dot-dot` will enumerate all the files except for the `.'` and `..` hidden files. The default value of this setting is `#t`.

For example:

```
> (directory-files)
("complex" "README" "simple")
> (directory-files "../include")
("config.h" "config.h.in" "gambit.h" "makefile" "makefile.in")
> (directory-files (list path: "../include" ignore-hidden: #f))
("." ".." "config.h" "config.h.in" "gambit.h" "makefile" "makefile.in")
```

## 14.3 Shell command execution

`(shell-command command)` [procedure]

The procedure `shell-command` calls up the shell to execute *command* which must be a string. This procedure returns the exit status of the shell in the form that the C library's `system` routine returns.



For example under UNIX:

```
> (shell-command "ls -sk f*.scm")
4 fact.scm    4 fib.scm
0
```

## 14.4 Process termination

(exit [*status*]) [procedure]

The procedure `exit` causes the process to terminate with the status *status* which must be an exact integer in the range 0 to 255. If it is not specified, *status* defaults to 0.

For example under UNIX:

```
% gsi
Gambit Version 4.0 beta 11

> (exit 42)
% echo $?
42
```

## 14.5 Command line arguments

(command-line) [procedure]

This procedure returns a list of strings corresponding to the command line arguments, including the program file name as the first element of the list. When the interpreter executes a Scheme script, the list returned by `command-line` contains the script's absolute path followed by the remaining command line arguments.

For example under UNIX:

```
% gsi -:d -e "(pretty-print (command-line))"
("gsi" "-e" "(pretty-print (command-line))")
% cat foo
#!/usr/local/Gambit-C/bin/gsi-script
(pretty-print (command-line))
% ./foo 1 2 "3 4"
("/u/feeley/./foo" "1" "2" "3 4")
```

## 14.6 Environment variables

(getenv *name* [*default*]) [procedure]

(setenv *name* *new-value*) [procedure]

The procedure `getenv` returns the value of the environment variable *name* of the current process. Variable names are denoted with strings. A string is returned if the environment variable is bound, otherwise *default* is returned if it is specified, otherwise an exception is raised.

The procedure `setenv` changes the binding of the environment variable *name* to *new-value* which must be a string or `#f`. If *new-value* is `#f` the binding is removed.

For example under UNIX:

```
> (getenv "HOME")
"/u/feeley"
> (setenv "DOES_NOT_EXIST" #f)
```

```
#f
> (setenv "DOES_NOT_EXIST" "it does now")
> (getenv "DOES_NOT_EXIST" #f)
"it does now"
> (setenv "DOES_NOT_EXIST" #f)
> (getenv "DOES_NOT_EXIST" #f)
#f
> (getenv "DOES_NOT_EXIST")
*** ERROR IN (console)@7.1 -- Unbound OS environment variable
(getenv "DOES_NOT_EXIST")
```

## 14.7 Measuring time

Procedures are available for measuring real time (aka “wall” time) and cpu time (the amount of time the cpu has been executing the process). The resolution of the real time and cpu time clock is operating system dependent. Typically the resolution of the cpu time clock is rather coarse (measured in “ticks” of 1/60th or 1/100th of a second). Real time is internally computed relative to some arbitrary point in time using floating point numbers, which means that there is a gradual loss of resolution as time elapses. Moreover, some operating systems report time in number of ticks using a 32 bit integer so the value returned by the time related procedures may wraparound much before any significant loss of resolution occurs (for example 2.7 years if ticks are 1/50th of a second).

(current-time)	[procedure]
(time? <i>obj</i> )	[procedure]
(time->seconds <i>time</i> )	[procedure]
(seconds->time <i>x</i> )	[procedure]

The procedure `current-time` returns a *time object* representing the current point in real time.

The procedure `time?` returns `#t` when *obj* is a time object and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `time->seconds` converts the time object *time* into an inexact real number representing the number of seconds elapsed since the “epoch” (which is 00:00:00 Coordinated Universal Time 01-01-1970).

The procedure `seconds->time` converts the real number *x* representing the number of seconds elapsed since the “epoch” into a time object.

For example:

```
> (current-time)
#<time #2>
> (time? (current-time))
#t
> (time? 123)
#f
> (time->seconds (current-time))
1083118758.63973
> (time->seconds (current-time))
1083118759.909163
> (seconds->time (+ 10 (time->seconds (current-time)))
#<time #3> ; a time object representing 10 seconds in the future
```

(process-times)	[procedure]
(cpu-time)	[procedure]

`(real-time)` [procedure]

The procedure `process-times` returns a three element f64vector containing the cpu time that has been used by the program and the real time that has elapsed since it was started. The first element corresponds to “user” time in seconds, the second element corresponds to “system” time in seconds and the third element is the elapsed real time in seconds. On operating systems that can’t differentiate user and system time, the system time is zero. On operating systems that can’t measure cpu time, the user time is equal to the elapsed real time and the system time is zero.

The procedure `cpu-time` returns the cpu time in seconds that has been used by the program (user time plus system time).

The procedure `real-time` returns the real time that has elapsed since the program was started.

For example:

```
> (process-times)
#f64(.07 0. 486.77118492126465)
> (cpu-time)
.08
> (real-time)
615.2873070240021
```

`(time expr)` [special form]

The `time` special form evaluates `expr` and returns the result. As a side effect it displays a message on the interaction channel which indicates how long the evaluation took (in real time and cpu time), how much time was spent in the garbage collector, how much memory was allocated during the evaluation and how many minor and major page faults occurred (0 is reported if not running under UNIX).

For example:

```
> (define (f x)
  (let loop ((x x) (lst '()))
    (if (= x 0)
        lst
        (loop (- x 1) (cons x lst)))))
> (length (time (f 100000)))
(time (f 100000))
266 ms real time
260 ms cpu time (260 user, 0 system)
8 collections accounting for 41 ms real time (30 user, 0 system)
6400136 bytes allocated
859 minor faults
no major faults
100000
```

## 14.8 File information

`(file-exists? path)` [procedure]

The `path` argument must be a string. This procedure returns `#t` when a file by that name exists, and returns `#f` otherwise.

For example:

```
> (file-exists? "nofile")
#f
```

(*file-info path* [*chase?*]) [procedure]

This procedure accesses the filesystem to get information about the file whose location is given by the string *path*. A file-information record is returned that contains the file's type, the device number, the inode number, the mode (permission bits), the number of links, the file's user id, the file's group id, the file's size in bytes, the times of last-access, last-modification and last-change, the attributes, and the creation time.

When *chase?* is present and #f, symbolic links will not be chased, in other words if *path* refers to a symbolic link the *file-info* procedure will return information about the link rather than the file it links to.

For example:

```
> (file-info "/dev/tty")
#<file-info #2
  type: character-special
  device: 27420916
  inode: 28773124
  mode: 438
  number-of-links: 1
  owner: 0
  group: 0
  size: 0
  last-access-time: #<time #3>
  last-modification-time: #<time #4>
  last-change-time: #<time #5>
  attributes: 128
  creation-time: #<time #6>>
```

(*file-info? obj*) [procedure]

This procedure returns #t when *obj* is a file-information record and #f otherwise.

For example:

```
> (file-info? (file-info "/dev/tty"))
#t
> (file-info? 123)
#f
```

(*file-info-type file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the type field of the file-information record *file-info*. The type is denoted by a symbol. The following types are possible:

regular	Regular file
directory	Directory
character-special	Character special device
block-special	Block special device
fifo	FIFO
symbolic-link	Symbolic link
socket	Socket
unknown	File is of an unknown type

For example:

```
> (file-info-type (file-info "/dev/tty"))
character-special
> (file-info-type (file-info "/dev"))
directory
```

(file-info-device *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the device field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-device (file-info "/dev/tty"))
27420916
```

(file-info-inode *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the inode field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-inode (file-info "/dev/tty"))
28773124
```

(file-info-mode *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the mode field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-mode (file-info "/dev/tty"))
438
```

(file-info-number-of-links *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the number-of-links field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-number-of-links (file-info "/dev/tty"))
1
```

(file-info-owner *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the owner field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-owner (file-info "/dev/tty"))
0
```

(file-info-group *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the group field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-group (file-info "/dev/tty"))
0
```

(file-info-size *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the size field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-size (file-info "/dev/tty"))
0
```

(file-info-last-access-time *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the last-access-time field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-last-access-time (file-info "/dev/tty"))
#<time #2>
```

(file-info-last-modification-time *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the last-modification-time field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-last-modification-time (file-info "/dev/tty"))
#<time #2>
```

(file-info-last-change-time *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the last-change-time field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-last-change-time (file-info "/dev/tty"))
#<time #2>
```

(file-info-attributes *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the attributes field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-attributes (file-info "/dev/tty"))
128
```

(file-info-creation-time *file-info*) [procedure]

Returns the creation-time field of the file-information record *file-info*.

For example:

```
> (file-info-creation-time (file-info "/dev/tty"))
#<time #2>
```

(file-type *path*) [procedure]

(file-device *path*) [procedure]

(file-inode *path*) [procedure]

(file-mode *path*) [procedure]

(file-number-of-links *path*) [procedure]

(file-owner *path*) [procedure]

(file-group *path*) [procedure]

(file-size *path*) [procedure]

(file-last-access-time *path*) [procedure]

(file-last-modification-time *path*) [procedure]

(file-last-change-time *path*) [procedure]

(file-attributes *path*) [procedure]

(file-creation-time *path*) [procedure]

These procedures combine a call to the file-info procedure and a call to a file-information record field accessor. For instance (file-type *path*) is equivalent to (file-info-type (file-info *path*)).

## 14.9 Group information

`(group-info group-name-or-id)` [procedure]

This procedure accesses the group database to get information about the group identified by *group-name-or-id*, which is the group's symbolic name (string) or the group's GID (exact integer). A group-information record is returned that contains the group's symbolic name, the group's id (GID), and the group's members (list of symbolic user names).

For example:

```
> (group-info "daemon")
#<group-info #2
  name: "daemon"
  gid: 2
  members: ("root" "bin" "daemon")>
> (group-info 150)
#<group-info #3
  name: "guest"
  gid: 150
  members: ("john" "george")>
> (group-info 5000)
*** ERROR IN (console)@3.1 -- No such file or directory
(group-info 5000)
```

`(group-info? obj)` [procedure]

This procedure returns `#t` when *obj* is a group-information record and `#f` otherwise.

For example:

```
> (group-info? (group-info "daemon"))
#t
> (group-info? 123)
#f
```

`(group-info-name group-info)` [procedure]

Returns the symbolic name field of the group-information record *group-info*.

For example:

```
> (group-info-name (group-info 150))
"guest"
```

`(group-info-gid group-info)` [procedure]

Returns the group id field of the group-information record *group-info*.

For example:

```
> (group-info-gid (group-info "daemon"))
2
```

`(group-info-members group-info)` [procedure]

Returns the members field of the group-information record *group-info*.

For example:

```
> (group-info-members (group-info "daemon"))
("root" "bin" "daemon")
```

## 14.10 User information

`(user-info user-name-or-id)` [procedure]

This procedure accesses the user database to get information about the user identified by *user-name-or-id*, which is the user's symbolic name (string) or the user's UID (exact integer). A user-information record is returned that contains the user's symbolic name, the user's id (UID), the user's group id (GID), the path to the user's home directory, and the user's login shell.

For example:

```
> (user-info "feeley")
#<user-info #2
  name: "feeley"
  uid: 502
  gid: 599
  home: "/u/feeley"
  shell: "/bin/bash">
> (user-info 0)
#<user-info #3
  name: "root"
  uid: 0
  gid: 0
  home: "/var/root"
  shell: "/bin/sh">
> (user-info 5000)
*** ERROR IN (console)@3.1 -- No such file or directory
(user-info 5000)
```

`(user-info? obj)` [procedure]

This procedure returns `#t` when *obj* is a user-information record and `#f` otherwise.

For example:

```
> (user-info? (user-info "feeley"))
#t
> (user-info? 123)
#f
```

`(user-info-name user-info)` [procedure]

Returns the symbolic name field of the user-information record *user-info*.

For example:

```
> (user-info-name (user-info 0))
"root"
```

`(user-info-uid user-info)` [procedure]

Returns the user id field of the user-information record *user-info*.

For example:

```
> (user-info-uid (user-info "feeley"))
501
```

`(user-info-gid user-info)` [procedure]

Returns the group id field of the user-information record *user-info*.

For example:

```
> (user-info-gid (user-info "feeley"))
599
```



`(user-info-home user-info)` [procedure]

Returns the home directory field of the user-information record *user-info*.

For example:

```
> (user-info-home (user-info 0))
"/var/root"
```

`(user-info-shell user-info)` [procedure]

Returns the shell field of the user-information record *user-info*.

For example:

```
> (user-info-shell (user-info 0))
"/bin/sh"
```

## 14.11 Host information

`(host-info host-name)` [procedure]

This procedure accesses the internet host database to get information about the machine whose name is denoted by the string *host-name*. A host-information record is returned that contains the official name of the machine, a list of aliases (alternative names), and a non-empty list of IP addresses for this machine. An exception is raised when *host-name* does not appear in the database.

For example:

```
> (host-info "www.google.com")
#<host-info #2
  name: "www.google.akadns.net"
  aliases: ("www.google.com")
  addresses: (#u8(64 233 161 99) #u8(64 233 161 104))>
> (host-info "unknown.domain")
*** ERROR IN (console)@2.1 -- Unknown host
(host-info "unknown.domain")
```

`(host-info? obj)` [procedure]

This procedure returns `#t` when *obj* is a host-information record and `#f` otherwise.

For example:

```
> (host-info? (host-info "www.google.com"))
#t
> (host-info? 123)
#f
```

`(host-info-name host-info)` [procedure]

Returns the official name field of the host-information record *host-info*.

For example:

```
> (host-info-name (host-info "www.google.com"))
"www.google.akadns.net"
```

`(host-info-aliases host-info)` [procedure]

Returns the aliases field of the host-information record *host-info*. This field is a possibly empty list of strings.

For example:

```
> (host-info-aliases (host-info "www.google.com"))
("www.google.com")
```

`(host-info-addresses host-info)` [procedure]

Returns the addresses field of the host-information record *host-info*. This field is a non-empty list of u8vectors denoting IP addresses.

For example:

```
> (host-info-addresses (host-info "www.google.com"))  
(#u8(64 233 161 99) #u8(64 233 161 104))
```

## 15 I/O and ports

### 15.1 Unidirectional and bidirectional ports

Unidirectional ports allow communication between a producer of information and a consumer. An input-port's producer is typically a resource managed by the operating system (such as a file, a process or a network connection) and the consumer is the Scheme program. The roles are reversed for an output-port.

Associated with each port are settings that affect I/O operations on that port (encoding of characters to bytes, end-of-line encoding, type of buffering, etc). Port settings are specified when the port is created. Some port settings can be changed after a port is created.

Bidirectional ports, also called input-output-ports, allow communication in both directions. They are best viewed as an object that groups two separate unidirectional ports (one in each direction). Each direction has its own port settings and can be closed independently from the other direction.

### 15.2 Port classes

The four classes of ports listed below form an inheritance hierarchy. Operations possible for a certain class of port are also possible for the subclasses. Only device-ports are connected to a device managed by the operating system. For instance it is possible to create ports that behave as a FIFO where the Scheme program is both the producer and consumer of information (possibly one thread is the producer and another thread is the consumer).

1. An *object-port* (or simply a port) provides operations to read and write Scheme data (i.e. any Scheme object) to/from the port. It also provides operations to force output to occur, to change the way threads block on the port, and to close the port. Note that the class of objects for which write/read invariance is guaranteed depends on the particular class of port.
2. A *character-port* provides all the operations of an object-port, and also operations to read and write individual characters to/from the port. When a Scheme object is written to a character-port, it is converted into the sequence of characters that corresponds to its external-representation. When reading a Scheme object, an inverse conversion occurs. Note that some Scheme objects do not have an external textual representation that can be read back.
3. A *byte-port* provides all the operations of a character-port, and also operations to read and write individual bytes to/from the port. When a character is written to a byte-port, some encoding of that character into a sequence of bytes will occur (for example, `#\newline` will be encoded as the 2 bytes CR-LF when using LATIN-1 character encoding and `cr-lf` end-of-line encoding, and a non-ASCII character will generate more than 1 byte when using UTF8 character encoding). When reading a character, a similar decoding occurs.
4. A *device-port* provides all the operations of a byte-port, and also operations to control the operating system managed device (file, network connection, terminal, etc) that is connected to the port.

## 15.3 Port settings

Some port settings are only valid for specific port classes whereas some others are valid for all ports. Port settings are specified when a port is created. The settings that are not specified will default to some reasonable values. Keyword objects are used to name the settings to be set. As a simple example, a device-port connected to the file "foo" can be created using the call

```
(open-input-file "foo")
```

This will use default settings for the character encoding, buffering, etc. If the UTF8 character encoding is desired, then the port could be opened using the call

```
(open-input-file (list path: "foo" char-encoding: 'utf8))
```

Here the argument of the procedure `open-input-file` has been replaced by a *port settings list* which specifies the value of each port setting that should not be set to the default value. Note that some port settings have no useful default and it is therefore required to specify a value for them, such as the `path:` in the case of the file opening procedures. All port creation procedures (i.e. named `open-...`) take a single argument that can either be a port settings list or a value of a type that depends on the kind of port being created (a path string for files, an IP port number for TCP servers, etc).

## 15.4 Object-ports

### 15.4.1 Object-port settings

The following is a list of port settings that are valid for all types of ports.

- `direction:` ( `input` | `output` | `input-output` )

This setting controls the direction of the port. The symbol `input` indicates a unidirectional input-port, the symbol `output` indicates a unidirectional output-port, and the symbol `input-output` indicates a bidirectional port. The default value of this setting depends on the port creation procedure.

- `buffering:` ( `#f` | `#t` | `line` )

This setting controls the buffering of the port. To set each direction separately the keywords `input-buffering:` and `output-buffering:` must be used instead of `buffering:`. The value `#f` selects unbuffered I/O, the value `#t` selects fully buffered I/O, and the symbol `line` selects line buffered I/O (the output buffer is drained when a `#\newline` character is written). Line buffered I/O only applies to character-ports. The default value of this setting is operating system dependent except consoles which are unbuffered.

### 15.4.2 Object-port operations

<code>(input-port? obj)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(output-port? obj)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(port? obj)</code>	[procedure]

The procedure `input-port?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a unidirectional input-port or a bidirectional port and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `output-port?` returns `#t` when `obj` is a unidirectional output-port or a bidirectional port and `#f` otherwise.

The procedure `port?` returns `#t` when *obj* is a port (either unidirectional or bidirectional) and `#f` otherwise.

For example:

```
> (input-port? (current-input-port))
#t
> (call-with-input-string "some text" output-port?)
#f
> (port? (current-output-port))
#t
```

`(read [port])` [procedure]

This procedure reads and returns the next Scheme datum from the input-port *port*. The end-of-file object is returned when the end of the stream is reached. If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current input-port.

For example:

```
> (call-with-input-string "some text" read)
some
> (call-with-input-string "" read)
#!eof
```

`(read-all [port [reader]])` [procedure]

This procedure repeatedly calls the procedure *reader* with *port* as the sole argument and accumulates a list of each value returned up to the end-of-file object. The procedure `read-all` returns the accumulated list without the end-of-file object. If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current input-port. If it is not specified, *reader* defaults to the procedure `read`.

For example:

```
> (call-with-input-string "3,2,1\ngo!" read-all)
(3 ,2 ,1 go!)
> (call-with-input-string "3,2,1\ngo!"
    (lambda (p) (read-all p read-char)))
(#\3 #\,, #\2 #\,, #\1 #\newline #\g #\o #\!)
> (call-with-input-string "3,2,1\ngo!"
    (lambda (p) (read-all p read-line)))
("3,2,1" "go!")
```

`(write obj [port])` [procedure]

This procedure writes the Scheme datum *obj* to the output-port *port* and the value returned is unspecified. If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current output-port.

For example:

```
> (write (list 'compare (list 'quote '@x) 'and (list 'unquote '@x)))
(compare '@x and , @x)>
```

`(newline [port])` [procedure]

This procedure writes an “object separator” to the output-port *port* and the value returned is unspecified. The separator ensures that the next Scheme datum written with the `write` procedure will not be confused with the latest datum that was written. On character-ports this is done by writing the character `#\newline`. On ports where successive objects are implicitly distinct (such as “vector ports”) this procedure does nothing.

Regardless of the class of a port *p* and assuming that the external textual representation of the object *x* is readable, the expression `(begin (write x p) (newline p))` will write to *p* a representation of *x* that can be read back with the procedure `read`. If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current output-port.

For example:

```
> (begin (write 123) (newline) (write 456) (newline))
123
456
```

`(force-output port)` [procedure]

The procedure `force-output` causes the output buffers of the output-port *port* to be drained (i.e. the data is sent to its destination). If *port* is not specified, the current output port is used.

For example:

```
> (define p (open-tcp-client
  (list server-address: "www.iro.umontreal.ca"
        port-number: 80)))
> (display "GET /\n" p)
> (force-output p)
> (read-line p)
"<!DOCTYPE HTML PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD HTML 4.01 Transitional//EN\""
```

`(close-input-port port)` [procedure]

`(close-output-port port)` [procedure]

`(close-port port)` [procedure]

The *port* argument of these procedures must be a unidirectional or a bidirectional port. For all three procedures the value returned is unspecified.

The procedure `close-input-port` closes the input-port side of *port*, which must not be a unidirectional output-port.

The procedure `close-output-port` closes the output-port side of *port*, which must not be a unidirectional input-port. The output buffers are drained before *port* is closed.

The procedure `close-port` closes all sides of the *port*. Unless *port* is a unidirectional input-port, the output buffers are drained before *port* is closed.

For example:

```
> (define p (open-tcp-client
  (list server-address: "www.iro.umontreal.ca"
        port-number: 80)))
> (display "GET /\n" p)
> (close-output-port p)
> (read-line p)
"<!DOCTYPE HTML PUBLIC "-//W3C//DTD HTML 4.01 Transitional//EN\""
```

`(input-port-timeout-set! port timeout [thunk])` [procedure]

`(output-port-timeout-set! port timeout [thunk])` [procedure]

When a thread tries to perform an I/O operation on a port, the requested operation may not be immediately possible and the thread must wait. For example, the thread may be trying to read a line of text from the console and the user has not typed anything yet, or the thread may be trying to write to a network connection faster than the network can handle. In such situations the thread normally blocks until the operation becomes possible.

It is sometimes necessary to guarantee that the thread will not block too long. For this purpose, to each input-port and output-port is attached a *timeout* and *timeout-thunk*. The timeout indicates the point in time beyond which the thread should stop waiting on an input and output operation respectively. When the timeout is reached, the thread calls the port's timeout-thunk. If the timeout-thunk returns `#f` the thread abandons trying to perform the operation (in the case of an input operation an end-of-file is read and in the case of an output operation an exception is raised). Otherwise, the thread will block again waiting for the operation to become possible (note that if the port's timeout has not changed the thread will immediately call the timeout-thunk again).

The procedure `input-port-timeout-set!` sets the timeout of the input-port *port* to *timeout* and the timeout-thunk to *thunk*. The procedure `output-port-timeout-set!` sets the timeout of the output-port *port* to *timeout* and the timeout-thunk to *thunk*. If it is not specified, the *thunk* defaults to a thunk that returns `#f`. The *timeout* is either a time object indicating an absolute point in time, or it is a real number which indicates the number of seconds relative to the moment the procedure is called. For both procedures the value returned is unspecified.

When a port is created the timeout is set to infinity (`+inf.`). This causes the thread to wait as long as needed for the operation to become possible. Setting the timeout to a point in the past (`-inf.`) will cause the thread to attempt the I/O operation and never block (i.e. the timeout-thunk is called if the operation is not immediately possible).

The following example shows how to cause the REPL to terminate when the user does not enter an expression within the next 60 seconds.

```
> (input-port-timeout-set! (repl-input-port) 60)
>
*** EOF again to exit
```

## 15.5 Character-ports

### 15.5.1 Character-port settings

The following is a list of port settings that are valid for character-ports.

- `readtable`: *readtable*

This setting determines the readtable attached to the character-port. To set each direction separately the keywords `input-readtable:` and `output-readtable:` must be used instead of `readtable:`. Readtables control the external textual representation of Scheme objects, that is the encoding of Scheme objects using characters. The behavior of the `read` procedure depends on the port's input-readtable and the behavior of the procedures `write`, `pretty-print`, and related procedures is affected by the port's output-readtable. The default value of this setting is the value bound to the parameter object `current-readtable`.

- `output-width`: *positive-integer*

This setting indicates the width of the character output-port in number of characters. This information is used by the pretty-printer. The default value of this setting is 80.

### 15.5.2 Character-port operations

(input-port-line *port*) [procedure]  
 (input-port-column *port*) [procedure]  
 (output-port-line *port*) [procedure]  
 (output-port-column *port*) [procedure]

The current character location of a character input-port is the location of the next character to read. The current character location of a character output-port is the location of the next character to write. Location is denoted by a line number (the first line is line 1) and a column number, that is the location on the current line (the first column is column 1). The procedures `input-port-line` and `input-port-column` return the line location and the column location respectively of the character input-port *port*. The procedures `output-port-line` and `output-port-column` return the line location and the column location respectively of the character output-port *port*.

For example:

```
> (call-with-output-string
    '()
    (lambda (p)
      (display "abc\n123def" p)
      (write (list (output-port-line p) (output-port-column p))
              p)))
"abc\n123def(2 7)"
```

(output-port-width *port*) [procedure]

This procedure returns the width, in characters, of the character output-port *port*. The value returned is the port's output-width setting.

For example:

```
> (output-port-width (repl-output-port))
80
```

(read-char [*port*]) [procedure]

This procedure reads the character input-port *port* and returns the character at the current character location and advances the current character location to the next character, unless the *port* is already at end-of-file in which case `read-char` returns the end-of-file object. If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current input-port.

For example:

```
> (call-with-input-string
    "some text"
    (lambda (p)
      (let ((a (read-char p))) (list a (read-char p)))))
(#\s #\o)
> (call-with-input-string "" read-char)
#!eof
```

(peek-char [*port*]) [procedure]

This procedure returns the same result as `read-char` but it does not advance the current character location of the input-port *port*. If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current input-port.

For example:



```

> (call-with-input-string
   "some text"
   (lambda (p)
     (let ((a (peek-char p))) (list a (read-char p)))))
(#\s #\s)
> (call-with-input-string "" peek-char)
#!eof

```

(write-char *char* [*port*]) [procedure]

This procedure writes the character *char* to the character output-port *port* and advances the current character location of that output-port. The value returned is unspecified. If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current output-port.

For example:

```

> (write-char #\=)
=>

```

(read-line [*port* [*separator* [*include-separator?*]]) [procedure]

This procedure reads characters from the character input-port *port* until a specific *separator* or the end-of-file is encountered and returns a string containing the sequence of characters read. The *separator* is included at the end of the string only if it was the last character read and *include-separator?* is not #f. The *separator* must be a character or #f (in which case all the characters until the end-of-file are read). If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current input-port. If it is not specified, *separator* defaults to #\newline. If it is not specified, *include-separator?* defaults to #f.

For example:

```

> (define (split sep)
   (lambda (str)
     (call-with-input-string
      str
      (lambda (p)
        (read-all p (lambda (p) (read-line p sep)))))))
> ((split #\,) "a,b,c")
("a" "b" "c")
> (map (split #\,)
      (call-with-input-string "1,2,3\n4,5"
        (lambda (p) (read-all p read-line))))
(("1" "2" "3") ("4" "5"))

```

(read-substring *string* *start* *end* [*port*]) [procedure]

(write-substring *string* *start* *end* [*port*]) [procedure]

These procedures support bulk character I/O. The part of the string *string* starting at index *start* and ending just before index *end* is used as a character buffer that will be the target of read-substring or the source of the write-substring. Up to *end-start* characters will be transferred. The number of characters transferred, possibly zero, is returned by these procedures. Fewer characters will be read by read-substring if an end-of-file is read, or a timeout occurs before all the requested characters are transferred and the timeout thunk returns #f (see the procedure input-port-timeout-set!). Fewer characters will be written by write-substring if a timeout occurs before all the requested characters are transferred and the timeout thunk returns #f (see the procedure output-port-timeout-set!).

If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current input-port and current output-port respectively.

For example:

```
> (define s (make-string 10 #\x))
> (read-substring s 2 5)123456789
3
> 456789
> s
"xx123xxxxx"
```

## 15.6 Byte-ports

### 15.6.1 Byte-port settings

The following is a list of port settings that are valid for byte-ports.

- `char-encoding:` *encoding*

This setting controls the character encoding of the byte-port. For bidirectional byte-ports, the character encoding for input and output is set. To set each direction separately the keywords `input-char-encoding:` and `output-char-encoding:` must be used instead of `char-encoding:`. The default value of this setting is operating system dependent, but this can be overridden through the runtime options (see [Chapter 4 \[Runtime options\]](#), page 17). The following encodings are supported:

<code>latin1</code>	LATIN1 character encoding. Each character is encoded by a single byte. Only Unicode characters with a code in the range 0 to 255 are allowed.
<code>ascii</code>	ASCII character encoding. Each character is encoded by a single byte. In principle only Unicode characters with a code in the range 0 to 127 are allowed but most types of ports treat this exactly like <code>latin1</code> .
<code>ucs2</code>	UCS2 character encoding. Each character is encoded by 16 bits, i.e. two bytes. The 16 bits may be encoded using little-endian encoding or big-endian encoding. If the port is an input-port and the first two bytes read are a BOM (“Byte Order Mark” character with hexadecimal code FEFF) then the BOM will be discarded and the endianness will be set accordingly, otherwise the endianness depends on the operating system and how the Gambit runtime was compiled. If the port is an output-port then a BOM will be output at the beginning of the stream and the endianness depends on the operating system and how the Gambit runtime was compiled.
<code>ucs2le</code>	UCS2 character encoding with little-endian endianness. It is like <code>ucs2</code> except the endianness is set to little-endian and there is no BOM processing. If a BOM is needed at the beginning of the stream then it must be explicitly written.
<code>ucs2be</code>	UCS2 character encoding with big-endian endianness. It is like <code>ucs2le</code> except the endianness is set to big-endian.

- |                     |   |
|---------------------|---|
| <code>ucs4</code>   | UCS4 character encoding. Each character is encoded by 32 bits, i.e. four bytes. The 32 bits may be encoded using little-endian encoding or big-endian encoding. If the port is an input-port and the first four bytes read are a BOM (“Byte Order Mark” character with hexadecimal code 0000FEFF) then the BOM will be discarded and the endianness will be set accordingly, otherwise the endianness depends on the operating system and how the Gambit runtime was compiled. If the port is an output-port then a BOM will be output at the beginning of the stream and the endianness depends on the operating system and how the Gambit runtime was compiled. |
| <code>ucs4le</code> | UCS4 character encoding with little-endian endianness. It is like <code>ucs4</code> except the endianness is set to little-endian and there is no BOM processing. If a BOM is needed at the beginning of the stream then it must be explicitly written.   |
| <code>ucs4be</code> | UCS4 character encoding with big-endian endianness. It is like <code>ucs4le</code> except the endianness is set to big-endian.  |
| <code>native</code> | Native character encoding using one byte per character. Currently this is treated the same as <code>latin1</code> .   |
- `eol-encoding:` *encoding*  
 This setting controls the end-of-line encoding of the byte-port. To set each direction separately the keywords `input-eol-encoding:` and `output-eol-encoding:` must be used instead of `eol-encoding:`. The default value of this setting is operating system dependent, but this can be overridden through the runtime options (see [Chapter 4 \[Runtime options\]](#), page 17). Note that for output-ports the end-of-line encoding is applied before the character encoding, and for input-ports it is applied after. The following encodings are supported:
 

<code>lf</code>	For an output-port, writing a <code>#\newline</code> character outputs a <code>#\linefeed</code> character to the stream (Unicode character code 10). For an input-port, a <code>#\newline</code> character is read when a <code>#\linefeed</code> character is encountered on the stream. Note that <code>#\linefeed</code> and <code>#\newline</code> are two names for the same character, so this end-of-line encoding is actually the identity function. Text files created by UNIX applications typically use this end-of-line encoding.
<code>cr</code>	For an output-port, writing a <code>#\newline</code> character outputs a <code>#\return</code> character to the stream (Unicode character code 10). For an input-port, a <code>#\newline</code> character is read when a <code>#\linefeed</code> character or a <code>#\return</code> character is encountered on the stream. Text files created by Classic Mac OS applications typically use this end-of-line encoding.
<code>cr-lf</code>	For an output-port, writing a <code>#\newline</code> character outputs to the stream a <code>#\return</code> character followed by a <code>#\linefeed</code> character. For an input-port, a <code>#\newline</code> character is read when a <code>#\linefeed</code> character or a <code>#\return</code> character is encountered

on the stream. Moreover, if this character is immediately followed by the opposite character (`#\linefeed` followed by `#\return` or `#\return` followed by `#\linefeed`) then the second character is ignored. In other words, all four possible end-of-line encodings are read as a single `#\newline` character. Text files created by DOS and Microsoft Windows applications typically use this end-of-line encoding.

### 15.6.2 Byte-port operations

`(read-byte [port])` [procedure]

This procedure reads the byte input-port *port* and returns the byte at the current byte location and advances the current byte location to the next byte, unless the *port* is already at end-of-file in which case `read-byte` returns the end-of-file object. If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current input-port.

This procedure must be called before any use of the port in a character input operation (i.e. a call to the procedures `read`, `read-char`, `peek-char`, etc) because otherwise the character-stream and byte-stream may be out of sync due to the port buffering.

For example:

```
> (call-with-input-u8vector
   '#u8(11 22 33 44)
   (lambda (p)
     (let ((a (read-byte p))) (list a (read-byte p)))))
(11 22)
> (call-with-input-u8vector '#u8() read-byte)
#!eof
```

`(write-byte n [port])` [procedure]

This procedure writes the byte *n* to the byte output-port *port* and advances the current byte location of that output-port. The value returned is unspecified. If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current output-port.

For example:

```
> (call-with-output-u8vector '() (lambda (p) (write-byte 33 p)))
#u8(33)
```

`(read-subu8vector u8vector start end [port])` [procedure]

`(write-subu8vector u8vector start end [port])` [procedure]

These procedures support bulk byte I/O. The part of the `u8vector` *u8vector* starting at index *start* and ending just before index *end* is used as a byte buffer that will be the target of `read-subu8vector` or the source of the `write-subu8vector`. Up to *end-start* bytes will be transferred. The number of bytes transferred, possibly zero, is returned by these procedures. Fewer bytes will be read by `read-subu8vector` if an end-of-file is read, or a timeout occurs before all the requested bytes are transferred and the timeout thunk returns `#f` (see the procedure `input-port-timeout-set!`). Fewer bytes will be written by `write-subu8vector` if a timeout occurs before all the requested bytes are transferred and the timeout thunk returns `#f` (see the procedure `output-port-timeout-set!`). If it is not specified, *port* defaults to the current input-port and current output-port respectively.

The procedure `read-subu8vector` must be called before any use of the port in a character input operation (i.e. a call to the procedures `read`, `read-char`, `peek-char`, etc) because otherwise the character-stream and byte-stream may be out of sync due to the port buffering.

For example:

```
> (define v (make-u8vector 10))
> (read-subu8vector v 2 5)123456789
3
> 456789
> v
#u8(0 0 49 50 51 0 0 0 0 0)
```

## 15.7 Device-ports

### 15.7.1 Filesystem devices

<code>(open-file <i>path-or-settings</i>)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(open-input-file <i>path-or-settings</i>)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(open-output-file <i>path-or-settings</i>)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(call-with-input-file <i>path-or-settings proc</i>)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(call-with-output-file <i>path-or-settings proc</i>)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(with-input-from-file <i>path-or-settings thunk</i>)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(with-output-to-file <i>path-or-settings thunk</i>)</code>	[procedure]

All of these procedures create a port to interface to a byte-stream device (such as a file, console, serial port, named pipe, etc) whose name is given by a path of the filesystem. The `direction:` setting will default to the value `input` for the procedures `open-input-file`, `call-with-input-file` and `with-input-from-file`, to the value `output` for the procedures `open-output-file`, `call-with-output-file` and `with-output-to-file`, and to the value `input-output` for the procedure `open-file`. The procedures `open-file`, `open-input-file` and `open-output-file` return the port that is created. The procedures `call-with-input-file` and `call-with-output-file` call the procedure `proc` with the port as single argument, and then return the value(s) of this call after closing the port. The procedures `with-input-from-file` and `with-output-to-file` dynamically bind the current input-port and current output-port respectively to the port created for the duration of a call to the procedure `thunk` with no argument. The value(s) of the call to `thunk` are returned after closing the port.

The first argument of these procedures is either a string denoting a filesystem path or a list of port settings which must contain a `path:` setting. Here are the settings allowed in addition to the generic settings of byte-ports:

- `path:` *string*  
This setting indicates the location of the file in the filesystem. There is no default value for this setting.
- `append:` ( `#f` | `#t` )  
This setting controls whether output will be added to the end of the file. This is useful for writing to log files that might be open by more than one process. The default value of this setting is `#f`.

- `create: ( #f | #t | maybe )`

This setting controls whether the file will be created when it is opened. A setting of `#f` requires that the file exist (otherwise an exception is raised). A setting of `#t` requires that the file does not exist (otherwise an exception is raised). A setting of `maybe` will create the file if it does not exist. The default value of this setting is `maybe` for output-ports and `#f` for input-ports and bidirectional ports.

- `permissions: 12-bit-exact-integer`

This setting controls the UNIX permissions that will be attached to the file if it is created. The default value of this setting is `#o666`.

- `truncate: ( #f | #t )`

This setting controls whether the file will be truncated when it is opened. For input-ports, the default value of this setting is `#f`. For output-ports, the default value of this setting is `#t` when the `append:` setting is `#f`, and `#f` otherwise.

For example:

```
> (with-output-to-file
   (list path: "nofile"
         create: #f)
   (lambda ()
     (display "hello world!\n")))
*** ERROR IN (console)@1.1 -- No such file or directory
(with-output-to-file '(path: "nofile" create: #f) '#<procedure #2>)
```

## 15.7.2 Process devices

`(open-process path-or-settings)` [procedure]

This procedure starts a new process and returns a port that allows communication with that process on its standard input and standard output. The default value of the `direction:` setting is `input-output`, i.e. the Scheme program can write to the process' standard input and can read from the process' standard output.

The first argument of this procedure is either a string denoting a filesystem path of an executable program or a list of port settings which must contain a `path:` setting. Here are the settings allowed in addition to the generic settings of byte-ports:

- `path: string`

This setting indicates the location of the executable program in the filesystem. There is no default value for this setting.

- `arguments: list-of-strings`

This setting indicates the string arguments that are passed to the program. The default value of this setting is the empty list (i.e. no arguments).

- `environment: list-of-strings`

This setting indicates the set of environment variable bindings that the process receives. Each element of the list is a string of the form "`VAR=VALUE`", where `VAR` is the name of the variable and `VALUE` is its binding. If `list-of-strings` is `#f`, the process inherits the environment variable bindings of the Scheme program. The default value of this setting is `#f`.

- `stderr-redirection: ( #f | #t )`

This setting indicates how the standard error of the process is redirected. A setting of `#t` will redirect the standard error to the standard output (i.e. all output to standard error can be read from the process-port). A setting of `#f` will leave the standard error as-is, which typically results in error messages being output to the console. The default value of this setting is `#f`.

- `pseudo-terminal: ( #f | #t )`

This setting indicates what type of device will be bound to the process' standard input and standard output. A setting of `#t` will use a pseudo-terminal device (this is a device that behaves like a tty device even though there is no real terminal or user directly involved). A setting of `#f` will use a pair of pipes. The difference is important for programs which behave differently when they are used interactively, for example shells. The default value of this setting is `#f`.

For example:

```
> (define p (open-process (list path: "/bin/ls"
                                arguments: '("../examples"))))
> (read-line p)
"complex"
> (read-line p)
"README"
> (close-port p)
> (define p (open-process "/usr/bin/dc"))
> (display "2 100 ^ p\n" p)
> (force-output p)
> (read-line p)
"1267650600228229401496703205376"
```

### 15.7.3 Network devices

`(open-tcp-client settings)` [procedure]

This procedure opens a network connection to a TCP/IP server and returns a `tcp-client-port` (a subtype of `device-port`) that represents this connection and allows communication with that server. The default value of the `direction:` setting is `input-output`, i.e. the Scheme program can send information to the server and receive information from the server. The sending direction can be “shutdown” using the `close-output-port` procedure and the receiving direction can be “shutdown” using the `close-input-port` procedure. The `close-port` procedure closes both directions of the connection.

The first argument of this procedure is a list of port settings which must contain a `server-address:` setting and a `port-number:` setting. Here are the settings allowed in addition to the generic settings of byte-ports:

- `server-address: string-or-u8vector`

This setting indicates the internet address of the server. It can be a string denoting a host name, which will be translated to an IP address by the `host-info` procedure, or a 4 or 16 element `u8vector` which contains the 32-bit IPv4 or 128-bit IPv6 address respectively. There is no default value for this setting.



- `port-number`: *16-bit-exact-integer*

This setting indicates the IP port-number of the server to connect to (e.g. 80 for the standard HTTP server, 23 for the standard telnet server). There is no default value for this setting.

- `keep-alive`: ( `#f` | `#t` )

This setting controls the use of the “keep alive” option on the connection. The “keep alive” option will periodically send control packets on otherwise idle network connections to ensure that the server host is active and reachable. The default value of this setting is `#f`.

- `coalesce`: ( `#f` | `#t` )

This setting controls the use of TCP’s “Nagle algorithm” which reduces the number of small packets by delaying their transmission and coalescing them into larger packets. A setting of `#t` will coalesce small packets into larger ones. A setting of `#f` will transmit packets as soon as possible. The default value of this setting is `#f`. Note that this setting does not affect the buffering of the port.

Here is an example of the client-side code that opens a connection to an HTTP server on port 8080 on the same computer (for the server-side code see the example for the procedure `open-tcp-server`):

```
> (define p (open-tcp-client (list server-address: '#u8(127 0 0 1)
                                port-number: 8080
                                eol-encoding: 'cr-lf)))

> p
#<input-output-port #2 (tcp-client #u8(127 0 0 1) 8080)>
> (display "GET / HTTP/1.1\n" p)
> (force-output p)
> (read-line p)
"<HTML>"
```

(`open-tcp-server` *port-number-or-settings*) [procedure]

This procedure sets up a socket to accept network connection requests from clients and returns a `tcp-server-port` from which network connections to clients are obtained. `Tcp-server-ports` are a direct subtype of `object-ports` (i.e. they are not `character-ports`) and are `input-ports`. Reading from a `tcp-server-port` with the `read` procedure will block until a network connection request is received from a client. The `read` procedure will then return a `tcp-client-port` (a subtype of `device-port`) that represents this connection and allows communication with that client. Closing a `tcp-server-port` with either the `close-input-port` or `close-port` procedures will cause the network subsystem to stop accepting connections on that socket.

The first argument of this procedure is an IP port-number (16-bit nonnegative exact integer) or a list of port settings which must contain a `port-number`: setting. Below is a list of the settings allowed in addition to the settings `keep-alive`: and `coalesce`: allowed by the `open-tcp-client` procedure and the generic settings of `byte-ports`. The settings which are not listed below apply to the `tcp-client-port` that is returned by `read` when a connection is accepted and have the same meaning as if they were used in a call to the `open-tcp-client` procedure.



- `port-number`: *16-bit-exact-integer*

This setting indicates the IP port-number assigned to the socket which accepts connection requests from clients. So called “well-known ports”, which are reserved for standard services, have a port-number below 1024 and can only be assigned to a socket by a process with superuser privileges (e.g. 80 for the HTTP service, 23 for the telnet service). No special privileges are needed to assign higher port-numbers to a socket. There is no default value for this setting.

- `backlog`: *positive-exact-integer*

This setting indicates the maximum number of connection requests that can be waiting to be accepted by a call to `read` (technically it is the value passed as the second argument of the UNIX `listen()` function). The default value of this setting is 128.

- `reuse-address`: ( `#f` | `#t` )

This setting controls whether it is possible to assign a port-number that is currently active. Note that when a server process terminates, the socket it was using to accept connection requests does not become inactive immediately. Instead it remains active for a few minutes to ensure clean termination of the connections. A setting of `#f` will cause an exception to be raised in that case. A setting of `#t` will allow a port-number to be used even if it is active. The default value of this setting is `#t`.

Here is an example of the server-side code that accepts connections on port 8080 (for the client-side code see the example for the procedure `open-tcp-client`):

```
> (define s (open-tcp-server (list port-number: 8080
                                   eol-encoding: 'cr-lf)))
> (define p (read s)) ; blocks until client connects
> p
#<input-output-port #2 (tcp-client 8080)>
> (read-line p)
"GET / HTTP/1.1"
> (display "<HTML>\n" p)
> (force-output p)
```

## 15.8 Directory-ports

(`open-directory` *path-or-settings*) [procedure]

This procedure opens a directory of the filesystem for reading its entries and returns a directory-port from which the entries can be enumerated. Directory-ports are a direct subtype of object-ports (i.e. they are not character-ports) and are input-ports. Reading from a directory-port with the `read` procedure returns the next file name in the directory as a string. The end-of-file object is returned when all the file names have been enumerated. Another way to get the list of all files in a directory is the `directory-files` procedure which returns a list of the files in the directory. The advantage of using directory-ports is that it allows iterating over the files in a directory in constant space, which is interesting when the number of files in the directory is not known in advance and may be large. Note that the order in which the names are returned is operating-system dependent.

The first argument of this procedure is either a string denoting a filesystem path to a directory or a list of port settings which must contain a `path:` setting. Here are the settings allowed in addition to the generic settings of object-ports:

- `path:` *string*

This setting indicates the location of the directory in the filesystem. There is no default value for this setting.

- `ignore-hidden:` ( `#f` | `#t` | `dot-and-dot-dot` )

This setting controls whether hidden-files will be returned. Under UNIX and Mac OS X hidden-files are those that start with a period (such as `.'`, `..`, and `.profile`). Under Microsoft Windows hidden files are the `.'` and `..` entries and the files whose “hidden file” attribute is set. A setting of `#f` will enumerate all the files. A setting of `#t` will only enumerate the files that are not hidden. A setting of `dot-and-dot-dot` will enumerate all the files except for the `.'` and `..` hidden files. The default value of this setting is `#t`.

For example:

```
> (let ((p (open-directory (list path: "../examples"
                                ignore-hidden: #f))))
    (let loop ()
      (let ((fn (read p)))
        (if (string? fn)
            (begin
              (pp (path-expand fn))
              (loop))))
      (close-input-port p))
  "/u/feeley/examples/."
  "/u/feeley/examples/.."
  "/u/feeley/examples/complex"
  "/u/feeley/examples/README"
  "/u/feeley/examples/simple"
> (define x (open-directory "../examples"))
> (read-all x)
("complex" "README" "simple")
```

## 15.9 Vector-ports

<code>(open-vector [vector-or-settings])</code>	[procedure]
<code>(open-input-vector [vector-or-settings])</code>	[procedure]
<code>(open-output-vector [vector-or-settings])</code>	[procedure]
<code>(call-with-input-vector vector-or-settings proc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(call-with-output-vector vector-or-settings proc)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(with-input-from-vector vector-or-settings thunk)</code>	[procedure]
<code>(with-output-to-vector vector-or-settings thunk)</code>	[procedure]

Vector-ports represent streams of Scheme objects. They are a direct subtype of object-ports (i.e. they are not character-ports). All of these procedures create vector-ports that are either unidirectional or bidirectional. The `direction:` setting will default to the value `input` for the procedures `open-input-vector`, `call-with-input-vector` and `with-input-from-vector`, to the value `output` for the procedures `open-output-vector`, `call-with-output-vector` and `with-output-to-vector`, and to the value `input-output` for the procedure `open-vector`. Bidi-

rectional vector-ports behave like FIFOs: data written to the port is added to the end of the stream that is read. It is only when a bidirectional vector-port's output-side is closed with a call to the `close-output-port` procedure that the stream's end is known (when the stream's end is reached, reading the port returns the end-of-file object).

The procedures `open-vector`, `open-input-vector` and `open-output-vector` return the port that is created. The procedures `call-with-input-vector` and `call-with-output-vector` call the procedure *proc* with the port as single argument, and then return the value(s) of this call after closing the port. The procedures `with-input-from-vector` and `with-output-to-vector` dynamically bind the current input-port and current output-port respectively to the port created for the duration of a call to the procedure *thunk* with no argument. The value(s) of the call to *thunk* are returned after closing the port.

The first argument of these procedures is either a vector of the elements used to initialize the stream or a list of port settings. If it is not specified, the argument of the `open-vector`, `open-input-vector`, and `open-output-vector` procedures defaults to an empty list of port settings. Here are the settings allowed in addition to the generic settings of object-ports:

- `init: vector`

This setting indicates the initial content of the stream. The default value of this setting is an empty vector.

- `permanent-close: ( #f | #t )`

This setting controls whether a call to the procedures `close-output-port` will close the output-side of a bidirectional vector-port permanently or not. A permanently closed bidirectional vector-port whose end-of-file has been reached on the input-side will return the end-of-file object for all subsequent calls to the `read` procedure. A non-permanently closed bidirectional vector-port will return to its opened state when its end-of-file is read. The default value of this setting is `#t`.

For example:

```
> (define p (open-vector))
> (write 1 p)
> (write 2 p)
> (write 3 p)
> (read p)
1
> (read p)
2
> (close-output-port p)
> (read p)
3
> (read p)
#!eof
```

`(open-vector-pipe [vector-or-settings1 [procedure] [vector-or-settings2]])`

The procedure `open-vector-pipe` creates two vector-ports and returns these two ports. The two ports are interrelated as follows: the first port's output-side is con-

nected to the second port's input-side and the first port's input-side is connected to the second port's output-side. The value *vector-or-settings1* is used to setup the first vector-port and *vector-or-settings2* is used to setup the second vector-port. The same settings as for *open-vector* are allowed. The default *direction:* setting is *input-output* (i.e. a bidirectional port is created). If it is not specified *vector-or-settings1* defaults to the empty list. If it is not specified *vector-or-settings2* defaults to *vector-or-settings1* but with the *init:* setting set to the empty vector and with the input and output settings exchanged (e.g. if the first port is an input-port then the second port is an output-port, if the first port's input-side is non-buffered then the second port's output-side is non-buffered).

For example:

```
> (define (server op)
    (receive (c s) (open-vector-pipe) ; client-side and server-side ports
      (thread-start!
        (make-thread
          (lambda ()
            (let loop ()
              (let ((request (read s)))
                (if (not (eof-object? request))
                    (begin
                      (write (op request) s)
                      (newline s)
                      (force-output s)
                      (loop))))))))
      c))
> (define a (server (lambda (x) (expt 2 x))))
> (define b (server (lambda (x) (expt 10 x))))
> (write 100 a)
> (write 30 b)
> (read a)
1267650600228229401496703205376
> (read b)
10000000000000000000000000000000
```

```
(get-output-vector vector-port)
```

[procedure]

The procedure `get-output-vector` takes an output vector-port or a bidirectional vector-port as argument and removes all the objects currently on the output-side, returning them in a vector. The port remains open and subsequent output to the port and calls to the procedure `get-output-vector` are possible.

For example:

```
> (define p (open-vector '(1 2 3)))
> (write 4 p)
> (get-output-vector p)
#(1 2 3 4)
> (write 5 p)
> (write 6 p)
> (get-output-vector p)
#(5 6)
```

## 15.10 String-ports

```
(open-string [string-or-settings])
```

[procedure]

```

(open-input-string [string-or-settings])           [procedure]
(open-output-string [string-or-settings])         [procedure]
(call-with-input-string string-or-settings proc) [procedure]
(call-with-output-string string-or-settings proc) [procedure]
(with-input-from-string string-or-settings thunk) [procedure]
(with-output-to-string string-or-settings thunk) [procedure]
(open-string-pipe [string-or-settings1
                  [string-or-settings2]])          [procedure]
(get-output-string string-port)                   [procedure]

```

String-ports represent streams of characters. They are a direct subtype of character-ports. These procedures are the string-port analog of the procedures specified in the vector-ports section. Note that these procedures are a superset of the procedures specified in the “Basic String Ports SRFI” (SRFI 6).

```

(object->string obj [n])                           [procedure]

```

This procedure converts the object *obj* to its external representation and returns it in a string. The parameter *n* specifies the maximal width of the resulting string. If the external representation is wider than *n*, the resulting string will be truncated to *n* characters and the last 3 characters will be set to periods. Note that the current readtable is used.

## 15.11 U8vector-ports

```

(open-u8vector [u8vector-or-settings])           [procedure]
(open-input-u8vector [u8vector-or-settings])       [procedure]
(open-output-u8vector [u8vector-or-settings])      [procedure]
(call-with-input-u8vector u8vector-or-settings
  proc)                                              [procedure]
(call-with-output-u8vector u8vector-or-settings
  proc)                                              [procedure]
(with-input-from-u8vector u8vector-or-settings
  thunk)                                             [procedure]
(with-output-to-u8vector u8vector-or-settings
  thunk)                                             [procedure]
(open-u8vector-pipe [u8vector-or-settings1
                    [u8vector-or-settings2]])      [procedure]
(get-output-u8vector u8vector-port)               [procedure]

```

U8vector-ports represent streams of bytes. They are a direct subtype of byte-ports. These procedures are the u8vector-port analog of the procedures specified in the vector-ports section.

## 15.12 Parameter objects related to I/O

```

(current-input-port [new-value])                   [procedure]
(current-output-port [new-value])                   [procedure]
(current-error-port [new-value])                    [procedure]

```

(`current-readtable` [*new-value*]) [procedure]

These procedures are parameter objects which represent respectively: the current input-port, the current output-port, the current error-port, and the current readtable.

## 16 Lexical syntax and readtables

### 16.1 Readtables

Readtables control the external textual representation of Scheme objects, that is the encoding of Scheme objects using characters. Readtables affect the behavior of the reader (i.e. the `read` procedure and the parser used by the `load` procedure and the interpreter and compiler) and the printer (i.e. the procedures `write`, `display`, `pretty-print`, and `pp`, and the procedure used by the REPL to print results). To preserve write/read invariance the printer and reader must be using compatible readtables. For example a symbol which contains upper case letters will be printed with special escapes if the readtable indicates that the reader is case-insensitive.

Readtables are immutable records whose fields specify various textual representation aspects. There are accessor procedures to retrieve the content of specific fields. There are also functional update procedures that create a copy of a readtable, with a specific field set to a new value.

`(readtable? obj)` [procedure]

This procedure returns `#t` when *obj* is a readtable and `#f` otherwise.

For example:

```
> (readtable? (current-readtable))
#t
> (readtable? 123)
#f
```

`(readtable-case-conversion? readtable)` [procedure]

`(readtable-case-conversion?-set readtable  
new-value)` [procedure]

The procedure `readtable-case-conversion?` returns the content of the ‘case-conversion?’ field of *readtable*. When the content of this field is `#f`, the reader preserves the case of symbols and keyword objects that are read (i.e. `Ice` and `ice` are distinct symbols). When the content of this field is the symbol `upcase`, the reader converts lowercase letters to uppercase when reading symbols and keywords (i.e. `Ice` is read as the symbol `(string->symbol "ICE")`). Otherwise the reader converts uppercase letters to lowercase when reading symbols and keywords (i.e. `Ice` is read as the symbol `(string->symbol "ice")`).

The procedure `readtable-case-conversion?-set` returns a copy of *readtable* where only the ‘case-conversion?’ field has been changed to *new-value*.

For example:

```
> (output-port-readtable-set!
   (repl-output-port)
   (readtable-case-conversion?-set
    (output-port-readtable (repl-output-port))
    #f))
> (input-port-readtable-set!
   (repl-input-port)
   (readtable-case-conversion?-set
    (input-port-readtable (repl-input-port))
```

```

      #f))
> 'Ice
Ice
> (input-port-readtable-set!
   (repl-input-port)
   (readtable-case-conversion?-set
    (input-port-readtable (repl-input-port))
    #t))
> 'Ice
ice
> (input-port-readtable-set!
   (repl-input-port)
   (readtable-case-conversion?-set
    (input-port-readtable (repl-input-port))
    'upcase))
> 'Ice
ICE

```

(readtable-keywords-allowed? *readtable*) [procedure]

(readtable-keywords-allowed?-set *readtable* *new-value*) [procedure]

The procedure `readtable-keywords-allowed?` returns the content of the ‘keywords-allowed?’ field of *readtable*. When the content of this field is `#f`, the reader does not recognize keyword objects (i.e. `:foo` and `foo:` are read as the symbols `(string->symbol ":foo")` and `(string->symbol "foo:")` respectively). When the content of this field is the symbol prefix, the reader recognizes keyword objects that start with a colon, as in Common Lisp (i.e. `:foo` is read as the keyword `(string->keyword "foo")`). Otherwise the reader recognizes keyword objects that end with a colon, as in DSSSL (i.e. `foo:` is read as the symbol `(string->symbol "foo")`).

The procedure `readtable-keywords-allowed?-set` returns a copy of *readtable* where only the ‘keywords-allowed?’ field has been changed to *new-value*.

For example:

```

> (input-port-readtable-set!
   (repl-input-port)
   (readtable-keywords-allowed?-set
    (input-port-readtable (repl-input-port))
    #f))
> (map keyword? '(foo :foo foo:))
(#f #f #f)
> (input-port-readtable-set!
   (repl-input-port)
   (readtable-keywords-allowed?-set
    (input-port-readtable (repl-input-port))
    #t))
> (map keyword? '(foo :foo foo:))
(#f #f #t)
> (input-port-readtable-set!
   (repl-input-port)
   (readtable-keywords-allowed?-set
    (input-port-readtable (repl-input-port))
    'prefix))
> (map keyword? '(foo :foo foo:))
(#f #t #f)

```



```
(readtable-sharing-allowed? readtable) [procedure]
(readtable-sharing-allowed?-set readtable [procedure]
  new-value)
```

The procedure `readtable-sharing-allowed?` returns the content of the ‘sharing-allowed?’ field of *readtable*. The reader recognizes the `#n#` and `#n=datum` notation for circular structures and the printer uses this notation if and only if the content of the ‘sharing-allowed?’ field is not `#f`. Moreover when the content of the ‘sharing-allowed?’ field is the symbol `serialize`, the printer uses a special external representation that the reader understands and that extends write/read invariance to the following types: records, procedures and continuations. Note that an object can be serialized and deserialized if and only if all of its components are serializable.

The procedure `readtable-sharing-allowed?-set` returns a copy of *readtable* where only the ‘sharing-allowed?’ field has been changed to *new-value*.

Here is a simple example:

```
> (define (wr obj allow?)
  (call-with-output-string
    '()
    (lambda (p)
      (output-port-readtable-set!
        p
        (readtable-sharing-allowed?-set
          (output-port-readtable p)
          allow?))
      (write obj p))))
> (define (rd str allow?)
  (call-with-input-string
    str
    (lambda (p)
      (input-port-readtable-set!
        p
        (readtable-sharing-allowed?-set
          (input-port-readtable p)
          allow?))
      (read p))))
> (define x (list 1 2 3))
> (set-car! (cdr x) (cddr x))
> (wr x #f)
"(1 (3) 3)"
> (wr x #t)
"(1 #0=(3) . #0#)"
> (define y (rd (wr x #t) #t))
> y
(1 (3) 3)
> (eq? (cadr y) (cddr y))
#t
> (define f #f)
> (let ((free (expt 2 10)))
  (set! f (lambda (x) (+ x free))))
> (define s (wr f 'serialize))
> (string-length s)
4198
> (define g (rd s 'serialize))
> (eq? f g)
```

```
#f
> (g 4)
1028
```

Continuations are tricky to serialize because they contain a dynamic environment and this dynamic environment may contain non-serializable objects, in particular ports attached to operating-system streams such as files, the console or standard input/output. Indeed, all dynamic environments contain a binding for the `current-input-port` and `current-output-port`. Moreover, any thread that has started a REPL has a continuation which refers to the *repl-context* object in its dynamic environment. A *repl-context* object contains the interaction channel, which is typically connected to a non-serializable port, such as the console. Another problem is that the `parameterize` form saves the old binding of the parameter in the continuation, so it is not possible to eliminate the references to these ports in the continuation by using the `parameterize` form alone.

Serialization of continuations can be achieved dependably by taking advantage of string-ports, which are serializable objects (unless there is a blocked thread), and the following features of threads: they inherit the dynamic environment of the parent thread and they start with an initial continuation that contains only serializable objects. So a thread created in a dynamic environment where `current-input-port` and `current-output-port` are bound to a dummy string-port has a serializable continuation.

Here is an example where continuations are serialized:

```
> (define (wr obj)
  (call-with-output-string
    '()
    (lambda (p)
      (output-port-readtable-set!
        p
        (readtable-sharing-allowed?-set
          (output-port-readtable p)
          'serialize))
      (write obj p))))
> (define (rd str)
  (call-with-input-string
    str
    (lambda (p)
      (input-port-readtable-set!
        p
        (readtable-sharing-allowed?-set
          (input-port-readtable p)
          'serialize))
      (read p))))
> (define fifo (open-vector))
> (define (suspend-and-die!)
  (call-with-current-continuation
    (lambda (k)
      (write (wr k) fifo)
      (newline fifo)
      (force-output fifo)
      (thread-terminate! (current-thread)))))
> (let ((dummy-port (open-string)))
  (parameterize ((current-input-port dummy-port)
                 (current-output-port dummy-port)))
```

```

      (thread-start!
      (make-thread
      (lambda ()
      (* 100
      (suspend-and-die!))))))
#<thread #2>
> (define s (read fifo))
> (thread-join!
  (thread-start!
  (make-thread
  (lambda ()
  ((rd s) 111)))))
11100
> (thread-join!
  (thread-start!
  (make-thread
  (lambda ()
  ((rd s) 222)))))
22200
> (string-length s)
12783

```

(readtable-eval-allowed? *readtable*) [procedure]

(readtable-eval-allowed?-set *readtable new-value*) [procedure]

The procedure `readtable-eval-allowed?` returns the content of the ‘eval-allowed?’ field of *readtable*. The reader recognizes the `#.expression` notation for read-time evaluation if and only if the content of the ‘eval-allowed?’ field is not `#f`.

The procedure `readtable-eval-allowed?-set` returns a copy of *readtable* where only the ‘eval-allowed?’ field has been changed to *new-value*.

For example:

```

> (input-port-readtable-set!
  (repl-input-port)
  (readtable-eval-allowed?-set
   (input-port-readtable (repl-input-port))
   #t))
> '(5 plus 7 is #.(+ 5 7))
(5 plus 7 is 12)
> '(buf = #.(make-u8vector 25))
(buf = #u8(0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0))

```

(readtable-max-write-level *readtable*) [procedure]

(readtable-max-write-level-set *readtable new-value*) [procedure]

The procedure `readtable-max-write-level` returns the content of the ‘max-write-level’ field of *readtable*. The printer will display an ellipsis for the elements of lists and vectors that are nested deeper than this level.

The procedure `readtable-max-write-level-set` returns a copy of *readtable* where only the ‘max-write-level’ field has been changed to *new-value*, which must be a nonnegative fixnum.

For example:

```

> (define (wr obj n)
  (call-with-output-string
   '())

```

```

(lambda (p)
  (output-port-readtable-set!
   p
   (readtable-max-write-level-set
    (output-port-readtable p)
    n))
  (write obj p))))
> (wr '(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) b) a) 3)
"(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) b) a)"
> (wr '(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) b) a) 2)
"(a #(b (...) #u8(...) b) a)"
> (wr '(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) b) a) 1)
"(a #(...) a)"
> (wr '(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) b) a) 0)
"(...)"
> (wr 'hello 0)
"hello"

```

(readtable-max-write-length *readtable*) [procedure]

(readtable-max-write-length-set *readtable* *new-value*) [procedure]

The procedure `readtable-max-write-length` returns the content of the ‘max-write-length’ field of *readtable*. The printer will display an ellipsis for the elements of lists and vectors that are at an index beyond that length.

The procedure `readtable-max-write-length-set` returns a copy of *readtable* where only the ‘max-write-length’ field has been changed to *new-value*, which must be a nonnegative fixnum.

For example:

```

> (define (wr obj n)
  (call-with-output-string
   '()
   (lambda (p)
     (output-port-readtable-set!
      p
      (readtable-max-write-length-set
       (output-port-readtable p)
       n))
     (write obj p))))
> (wr '(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) b) . a) 4)
"(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) b) . a)"
> (wr '(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) b) . a) 3)
"(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) ...) . a)"
> (wr '(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) b) . a) 2)
"(a #(b (c c) ...) . a)"
> (wr '(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) b) . a) 1)
"(a ...)"
> (wr '(a #(b (c c) #u8(9 9 9) b) . a) 0)
"(...)"

```

(readtable-start-syntax *readtable*) [procedure]

(readtable-start-syntax-set *readtable* *new-value*) [procedure]

The procedure `readtable-start-syntax` returns the content of the ‘start-syntax’ field of *readtable*. The reader uses this field to determine in which

syntax to start parsing the input. When the content of this field is the symbol `six`, the reader starts in the infix syntax. Otherwise the reader starts in the prefix syntax.

The procedure `readtable-start-syntax-set` returns a copy of *readtable* where only the ‘`start-syntax`’ field has been changed to *new-value*.

For example:

```
> (+ 2 3)
5
> (input-port-readtable-set!
  (repl-input-port)
  (readtable-start-syntax-set
   (input-port-readtable (repl-input-port))
   'six))
> 2+3;
5
> exit();
```

## 16.2 Boolean syntax

Booleans are required to be followed by a delimiter (i.e. `#f64()` is not the boolean `#f` followed by the number 64 and the empty list).

## 16.3 Character syntax

Characters are required to be followed by a delimiter (i.e. `#\spaceballs` is not the character `#\space` followed by the symbol `balls`). The lexical syntax of characters is extended to allow the following:

<code>#\newline</code>	newline character (Unicode character 10)
<code>#\space</code>	space character (Unicode character 32)
<code>#\nul</code>	Unicode character 0
<code>#\bel</code>	Unicode character 7
<code>#\backspace</code>	Unicode character 8
<code>#\tab</code>	Unicode character 9
<code>#\linefeed</code>	Unicode character 10
<code>#\vt</code>	Unicode character 11
<code>#\page</code>	Unicode character 12
<code>#\return</code>	Unicode character 13
<code>#\rubout</code>	Unicode character 127
<code>#\n</code>	Unicode character <i>n</i> ( <i>n</i> must start with a # character and it must represent an exact integer, for example <code>#\#x20</code> is the space character, <code>#\#d9</code> is the tab character, and <code>#\#e1.2e2</code> is the lower case character “x”)

## 16.4 String syntax

The lexical syntax of strings is extended to allow the following escape codes:

<code>\n</code>	newline character
<code>\a</code>	Unicode character 7
<code>\b</code>	Unicode character 8
<code>\t</code>	Unicode character 9
<code>\v</code>	Unicode character 11
<code>\f</code>	Unicode character 12
<code>\r</code>	Unicode character 13
<code>\"</code>	"
<code>\\</code>	\
<code>\ooo</code>	character encoded in octal (1 to 3 octal digits)
<code>\xhh</code>	character encoded in hexadecimal ( $\geq 1$ hexadecimal digit)

## 16.5 Symbol syntax

The lexical syntax of symbols is extended to allow a leading and trailing vertical bar (e.g. `|a\|b"c:|`). The symbol's name corresponds verbatim to the characters between the vertical bars except for escaped characters. The same escape sequences as for strings are permitted except that `"` does not need to be escaped and `|` needs to be escaped (in other words the function of the `"` and `|` characters is interchanged with respect to the string syntax).

For example:

```
> (symbol->string '|a\|b"c:|')
"a|b\"c:"
```

## 16.6 Keyword syntax

The lexical syntax of keywords is like symbols, but with a colon at the end (note that this can be changed to a leading colon by setting the `'keywords-allowed?'` field of the readtable to the symbol prefix). A colon by itself is not a keyword, it is a symbol. Vertical bars can be used like symbols but the colon must be outside the vertical bars. Note that the string returned by the `keyword->string` procedure does not include the colon.

For example:

```
> (keyword->string 'foo:)
"foo"
> (map keyword? '(|ab()cd:| |ab()cd|: : ||:))
(#f #t #f #t)
```

## 16.7 Number syntax

The lexical syntax of the special inexact real numbers is as follows:

<code>+inf.</code>	positive infinity
<code>-inf.</code>	negative infinity
<code>+nan.</code>	“not a number”
<code>-0.</code>	negative zero ( <code>'0.'</code> is the positive zero)

## 16.8 Homogeneous vector syntax

Homogeneous vectors are vectors containing raw numbers of the same type (signed or unsigned exact integers or inexact reals). There are 10 types of homogeneous vectors: `'s8vector'` (vector of 8 bit signed integers), `'u8vector'` (vector of 8 bit unsigned integers), `'s16vector'` (vector of 16 bit signed integers), `'u16vector'` (vector of 16 bit unsigned integers), `'s32vector'` (vector of 32 bit signed integers), `'u32vector'` (vector of 32 bit unsigned integers), `'s64vector'` (vector of 64 bit signed integers), `'u64vector'` (vector of 64 bit unsigned integers), `'f32vector'` (vector of 32 bit floating point numbers), and `'f64vector'` (vector of 64 bit floating point numbers).

The external representation of homogeneous vectors is similar to normal vectors but with the `#('` prefix replaced respectively with `#s8('`, `#u8('`, `#s16('`, `#u16('`, `#s32('`, `#u32('`, `#s64('`, `#u64('`, `#f32('`, and `#f64('`.

The elements of the integer homogeneous vectors must be exact integers fitting in the given precision. The elements of the floating point homogeneous vectors must be inexact reals.

## 16.9 Special `#!` syntax

The lexical syntax of the special `#!` objects is as follows:

<code>#!eof</code>	end-of-file object
<code>#!void</code>	void object
<code>#!optional</code>	optional object
<code>#!rest</code>	rest object
<code>#!key</code>	key object

## 16.10 Multiline comment syntax

Multiline comments are delimited by the tokens `'#|'` and `'|#'`. These comments can be nested.

## 16.11 Scheme infix syntax extension

The reader supports an infix syntax extension which is called SIX (Scheme Infix eXtension). This extension is both supported by the `'read'` procedure and in program source code.

The backslash character is a delimiter that marks the beginning of a single datum expressed in the infix syntax (the details are given below). One way to think about it is that

the backslash character escapes the prefix syntax temporarily to use the infix syntax. For example a three element list could be written as `'(X \Y Z)'`, the elements *X* and *Z* are expressed using the normal prefix syntax and *Y* is expressed using the infix syntax.

When the reader encounters an infix datum, it constructs a syntax tree for that particular datum. Each node of this tree is represented with a list whose first element is a symbol indicating the type of node. For example, `'(six.identifier abc)'` is the representation of the infix identifier `'abc'` and `'(six.index (six.identifier abc) (six.identifier i))'` is the representation of the infix datum `'abc[i]'`.

### 16.11.1 SIX grammar

The SIX grammar is given below. On the left hand side are the production rules. On the right hand side is the datum that is constructed by the reader. The notation *\$i* denotes the datum that is constructed by the reader for the *i*th part of the production rule.

<code>&lt;infix datum&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>&lt;stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>&lt;stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>&lt;if stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;for stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;while stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;do stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;switch stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;case stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;break stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;continue stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;label stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;goto stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;return stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;expression stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;procedure definition&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;variable definition&gt; ;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;clause stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;compound stat&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  ;</code>	<code>(six.compound)</code>
<code>&lt;if stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>if ( &lt;pexpr&gt; ) &lt;stat&gt;</code>	<code>(six.if \$3 \$5)</code>
<code>  if ( &lt;pexpr&gt; ) &lt;stat&gt; else &lt;stat&gt;</code>	<code>(six.if \$3 \$5 \$7)</code>
<code>&lt;for stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>for ( &lt;stat&gt; ; &lt;oexpr&gt; ; &lt;oexpr&gt; ) &lt;stat&gt;</code>	<code>(six.for \$3 \$5 \$7 \$9)</code>
<code>&lt;while stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>while ( &lt;pexpr&gt; ) &lt;stat&gt;</code>	<code>(six.while \$3 \$5)</code>
<code>&lt;do stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>do &lt;stat&gt; while ( &lt;pexpr&gt; ) ;</code>	<code>(six.do-while \$2 \$5)</code>



<code>&lt;switch stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>switch ( &lt;pexpr&gt; ) &lt;stat&gt;</code>	<code>(six.switch \$3 \$5)</code>
<code>&lt;case stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>case &lt;expr&gt; : &lt;stat&gt;</code>	<code>(six.case \$2 \$4)</code>
<code>&lt;break stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>break ;</code>	<code>(six.break)</code>
<code>&lt;continue stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>continue ;</code>	<code>(six.continue)</code>
<code>&lt;label stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>&lt;identifier&gt; : &lt;stat&gt;</code>	<code>(six.label \$1 \$3)</code>
<code>&lt;goto stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>goto &lt;expr&gt; ;</code>	<code>(six.goto \$2)</code>
<code>&lt;return stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>return ;</code>	<code>(six.return)</code>
<code>  return &lt;expr&gt; ;</code>	<code>(six.return \$2)</code>
<code>&lt;expression stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>&lt;expr&gt; ;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>&lt;clause stat&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>&lt;expr&gt; .</code>	<code>(six.clause \$1)</code>
<code>&lt;pexpr&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>&lt;procedure definition&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;variable definition&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>  &lt;expr&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code>&lt;procedure definition&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>&lt;type&gt; &lt;id-or-prefix&gt; ( &lt;parameters&gt; ) &lt;body&gt;</code>	<code>(six.define-procedure \$2</code> <code>(six.procedure \$1 \$4 \$6) )</code>
<code>&lt;variable definition&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>&lt;type&gt; &lt;id-or-prefix&gt; &lt;dimensions&gt; &lt;iexpr&gt;</code>	<code>(six.define-variable \$2</code> <code>\$1 \$3 \$4)</code>
<code>&lt;iexpr&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>= &lt;expr&gt;</code>	<code>\$2</code>
<code> </code>	<code>#f</code>
<code>&lt;dimensions&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>  [ &lt;expr&gt; ] &lt;dimensions&gt;</code>	<code>( \$2 . \$4 )</code>
<code> </code>	<code>( )</code>
<code>&lt;oexpr&gt; ::=</code>	
<code>&lt;expr&gt;</code>	<code>\$1</code>
<code> </code>	<code>#f</code>
<code>&lt;expr&gt; ::=</code>	

<expr18>	\$1
<expr18> ::=	
<expr17> :- <expr18>	(six.x:-y \$1 \$3)
<expr17>	\$1
<expr17> ::=	
<expr17> , <expr16>	( six.x,y  \$1 \$3)
<expr16>	\$1
<expr16> ::=	
<expr15> := <expr16>	(six.x:=y \$1 \$3)
<expr15>	\$1
<expr15> ::=	
<expr14> %= <expr15>	(six.x%=y \$1 \$3)
<expr14> &= <expr15>	(six.x&=y \$1 \$3)
<expr14> *= <expr15>	(six.x*=y \$1 \$3)
<expr14> += <expr15>	(six.x+=y \$1 \$3)
<expr14> -= <expr15>	(six.x-=y \$1 \$3)
<expr14> /= <expr15>	(six.x/=y \$1 \$3)
<expr14> <=<= <expr15>	(six.x<=<=y \$1 \$3)
<expr14> = <expr15>	(six.x=y \$1 \$3)
<expr14> >>= <expr15>	(six.x>>=y \$1 \$3)
<expr14> ^= <expr15>	(six.x^=y \$1 \$3)
<expr14>  = <expr15>	( six.x\ =y  \$1 \$3)
<expr14>	\$1
<expr14> ::=	
<expr13> : <expr14>	(six.x:y \$1 \$3)
<expr13>	\$1
<expr13> ::=	
<expr12> ? <expr> : <expr13>	(six.x?y:z \$1 \$3 \$5)
<expr12>	\$1
<expr12> ::=	
<expr12>    <expr11>	( six.x\  \ y  \$1 \$3)
<expr11>	\$1
<expr11> ::=	
<expr11> && <expr10>	(six.x&&y \$1 \$3)
<expr10>	\$1
<expr10> ::=	
<expr10>   <expr9>	( six.x\ y  \$1 \$3)
<expr9>	\$1
<expr9> ::=	
<expr9> ^ <expr8>	(six.x^y \$1 \$3)
<expr8>	\$1

```

<expr8> ::=
  <expr8> & <expr7>                (six.x&y $1 $3)
  | <expr7>                          $1

<expr7> ::=
  <expr7> != <expr6>                (six.x!=y $1 $3)
  | <expr7> == <expr6>              (six.x==y $1 $3)
  | <expr6>                          $1

<expr6> ::=
  <expr6> < <expr5>                (six.x<y $1 $3)
  | <expr6> <= <expr5>              (six.x<=y $1 $3)
  | <expr6> > <expr5>                (six.x>y $1 $3)
  | <expr6> >= <expr5>              (six.x>=y $1 $3)
  | <expr5>                          $1

<expr5> ::=
  <expr5> << <expr4>                (six.x<<y $1 $3)
  | <expr5> >> <expr4>              (six.x>>y $1 $3)
  | <expr4>                          $1

<expr4> ::=
  <expr4> + <expr3>                (six.x+y $1 $3)
  | <expr4> - <expr3>              (six.x-y $1 $3)
  | <expr3>                          $1

<expr3> ::=
  <expr3> % <expr2>                (six.x%y $1 $3)
  | <expr3> * <expr2>              (six.x*y $1 $3)
  | <expr3> / <expr2>              (six.x/y $1 $3)
  | <expr2>                          $1

<expr2> ::=
  & <expr2>                        (six.&x $2)
  | + <expr2>                      (six.+x $2)
  | - <expr2>                      (six.-x $2)
  | * <expr2>                      (six.*x $2)
  | ! <expr2>                      (six.!x $2)
  | !                              (six.!)
  | ++ <expr2>                    (six.++x $2)
  | -- <expr2>                    (six.--x $2)
  | ~ <expr2>                      (six.~x $2)
  | new <id-or-prefix> ( <arguments> ) (six.new $2 . $4)
  | <expr1>                        $1

<expr1> ::=
  <expr1> ++                       (six.x++ $1)
  | <expr1> --                     (six.x-- $1)
  | <expr1> ( <arguments> )         (six.call $1 . $3)
  | <expr1> [ <expr> ]              (six.index $1 $3)

```

<expr1> -> <id-or-prefix>	(six.arrow \$1 \$3)
<expr1> . <id-or-prefix>	(six.dot \$1 \$3)
<expr0>	\$1
<expr0> ::=	
<id-or-prefix>	\$1
<string>	(six.literal \$1)
<char>	(six.literal \$1)
<number>	(six.literal \$1)
( <expr> )	\$2
( <block stat> )	\$2
<datum-starting-with-#-or-backquote>	(six.prefix \$1)
[ <elements> ]	\$2
<type> ( <parameters> ) <body>	(six.procedure \$1 \$3 \$5)
<block stat> ::=	
{ <stat list> }	(six.compound . \$2)
<body> ::=	
{ <stat list> }	(six.procedure-body . \$2)
<stat list> ::=	
<stat> <stat list>	(\$1 . \$2)
	()
<parameters> ::=	
<nonempty parameters>	\$1
	()
<nonempty parameters> ::=	
<parameter> , <nonempty parameters>	(\$1 . \$3)
<parameter>	(\$1)
<parameter> ::=	
<type> <id-or-prefix>	(\$2 \$1)
<arguments> ::=	
<nonempty arguments>	\$1
	()
<nonempty arguments> ::=	
<expr> , <nonempty arguments>	(\$1 . \$3)
<expr>	(\$1)
<elements> ::=	
<nonempty elements>	\$1
	(six.null)
<nonempty elements> ::=	
<expr>	(six.list \$1 (six.null))
<expr> , <nonempty elements>	(six.list \$1 \$3)

```

| <expr> | <expr>                                (six.cons $1 $3)
<id-or-prefix> ::=
  <identifier>                                    (six.identifier $1)
  | \ <datum>                                     (six.prefix $2)
<type> ::=
  int                                              int
  | char                                           char
  | bool                                           bool
  | void                                           void
  | float                                          float
  | double                                         double
  | obj                                            obj

```

### 16.11.2 SIX semantics

The semantics of SIX depends on the definition of the `six.XXX` identifiers (as functions and macros). Many of these identifiers are predefined macros which give SIX a semantics that is close to C's. The user may override these definitions to change the semantics either globally or locally. For example, `six.x^y` is a predefined macro that expands `(six.x^y x y)` into `(bitwise-xor x y)`. If the user prefers the '^' operator to express exponentiation in a specific function, then in that function `six.x^y` can be redefined as a macro that expands `(six.x^y x y)` into `(expt x y)`. Note that the associativity and precedence of operators cannot be changed as that is a syntactic issue.

Note that the following identifiers are not predefined, and consequently they do not have a predefined semantics: `six.label`, `six.goto`, `six.switch`, `six.case`, `six.break`, `six.continue`, `six.return`, `six.clause`, `six.x:-y`, and `six.!`.

The following is an example showing some of the predefined semantics of SIX:

```

> (list (+ 1 2) \3+4; (+ 5 6))
(3 7 11)
> \[ 1+2, \(+ 3 4), 5+6 ];
(3 7 11)
> (map (lambda (x) \((x*x-1)/log(x+1);) '(1 2 3 4))
(0 2.730717679880512 5.7707801635558535 9.320024018394177)
> \obj n = expt(10,5);
> n
100000
> \obj t[3][10] = 88;
> \t[0][9] = t[2][1] = 11;
11
> t
#(#(88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 11)
  #(88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88)
  #(88 11 88 88 88 88 88 88 88 88))
> \obj radix = new parameter (10);
> \radix(2);
> \radix();
2
> \for (int i=0; i<5; i++) pp(1<<i*8);
1
256

```

```
65536
16777216
4294967296
> \obj \make-adder (obj x) { obj (obj y) { x+y; }; }
> \map (new adder (100), [1,2,3,4]);
(101 102 103 104)
> (map (make-adder 100) (list 1 2 3 4))
(101 102 103 104)
```

## 17 C-interface

The Gambit Scheme system offers a mechanism for interfacing Scheme code and C code called the “C-interface”. A Scheme program indicates which C functions it needs to have access to and which Scheme procedures can be called from C, and the C interface automatically constructs the corresponding Scheme procedures and C functions. The conversions needed to transform data from the Scheme representation to the C representation (and back), are generated automatically in accordance with the argument and result types of the C function or Scheme procedure.

The C-interface places some restrictions on the types of data that can be exchanged between C and Scheme. The mapping of data types between C and Scheme is discussed in the next section. The remaining sections of this chapter describe each special form of the C-interface.

### 17.1 The mapping of types between C and Scheme

Scheme and C do not provide the same set of built-in data types so it is important to understand which Scheme type is compatible with which C type and how values get mapped from one environment to the other. To improve compatibility a new type is added to Scheme, the ‘foreign’ object type, and the following data types are added to C:

<code>scheme-object</code>	denotes the universal type of Scheme objects (type <code>__SCMOBJ</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>bool</code>	denotes the C++ ‘ <code>bool</code> ’ type or the C ‘ <code>int</code> ’ type (type <code>__BOOL</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>int8</code>	8 bit signed integer (type <code>__S8</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>unsigned-int8</code>	8 bit unsigned integer (type <code>__U8</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>int16</code>	16 bit signed integer (type <code>__S16</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>unsigned-int16</code>	16 bit unsigned integer (type <code>__U16</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>int32</code>	32 bit signed integer (type <code>__S32</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>unsigned-int32</code>	32 bit unsigned integer (type <code>__U32</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>int64</code>	64 bit signed integer (type <code>__S64</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>unsigned-int64</code>	64 bit unsigned integer (type <code>__U64</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>float32</code>	32 bit floating point number (type <code>__F32</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>float64</code>	64 bit floating point number (type <code>__F64</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>latin1</code>	denotes LATIN-1 encoded characters (8 bit unsigned integer, type <code>__LATIN1</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)
<code>ucs2</code>	denotes UCS-2 encoded characters (16 bit unsigned integer, type <code>__UCS2</code> defined in ‘ <code>gambit.h</code> ’)

<code>ucs4</code>	denotes UCS-4 encoded characters (32 bit unsigned integer, type <code>__UCS4</code> defined in <code>'gambit.h'</code> )
<code>char-string</code>	denotes the C <code>'char*'</code> type when used as a null terminated string
<code>nonnull-char-string</code>	denotes the nonnull C <code>'char*'</code> type when used as a null terminated string
<code>nonnull-char-string-list</code>	denotes an array of nonnull C <code>'char*'</code> terminated with a null pointer
<code>latin1-string</code>	denotes LATIN-1 encoded strings (null terminated string of 8 bit unsigned integers, i.e. <code>__LATIN1*</code> )
<code>nonnull-latin1-string</code>	denotes nonnull LATIN-1 encoded strings (null terminated string of 8 bit unsigned integers, i.e. <code>__LATIN1*</code> )
<code>nonnull-latin1-string-list</code>	denotes an array of nonnull LATIN-1 encoded strings terminated with a null pointer
<code>utf8-string</code>	denotes UTF-8 encoded strings (null terminated string of char, i.e. <code>char*</code> )
<code>nonnull-utf8-string</code>	denotes nonnull UTF-8 encoded strings (null terminated string of char, i.e. <code>char*</code> )
<code>nonnull-utf8-string-list</code>	denotes an array of nonnull UTF-8 encoded strings terminated with a null pointer
<code>ucs2-string</code>	denotes UCS-2 encoded strings (null terminated string of 16 bit unsigned integers, i.e. <code>__UCS2*</code> )
<code>nonnull-ucs2-string</code>	denotes nonnull UCS-2 encoded strings (null terminated string of 16 bit unsigned integers, i.e. <code>__UCS2*</code> )
<code>nonnull-ucs2-string-list</code>	denotes an array of nonnull UCS-2 encoded strings terminated with a null pointer
<code>ucs4-string</code>	denotes UCS-4 encoded strings (null terminated string of 32 bit unsigned integers, i.e. <code>__UCS4*</code> )
<code>nonnull-ucs4-string</code>	denotes nonnull UCS-4 encoded strings (null terminated string of 32 bit unsigned integers, i.e. <code>__UCS4*</code> )
<code>nonnull-ucs4-string-list</code>	denotes an array of nonnull UCS-4 encoded strings terminated with a null pointer



To specify a particular C type inside the `c-lambda`, `c-define` and `c-define-type` forms, the following “Scheme notation” is used:

Scheme notation	C type
<code>void</code>	<code>void</code>
<code>bool</code>	<code>bool</code>
<code>char</code>	<code>char</code> (may be signed or unsigned depending on the C compiler)
<code>signed-char</code>	<code>signed char</code>
<code>unsigned-char</code>	<code>unsigned char</code>
<code>latin1</code>	<code>latin1</code>
<code>ucs2</code>	<code>ucs2</code>
<code>ucs4</code>	<code>ucs4</code>
<code>short</code>	<code>short</code>
<code>unsigned-short</code>	<code>unsigned short</code>
<code>int</code>	<code>int</code>
<code>unsigned-int</code>	<code>unsigned int</code>
<code>long</code>	<code>long</code>
<code>unsigned-long</code>	<code>unsigned long</code>
<code>long-long</code>	<code>long long</code>
<code>unsigned-long-long</code>	<code>unsigned long long</code>
<code>float</code>	<code>float</code>
<code>double</code>	<code>double</code>
<code>int8</code>	<code>int8</code>
<code>unsigned-int8</code>	<code>unsigned-int8</code>
<code>int16</code>	<code>int16</code>
<code>unsigned-int16</code>	<code>unsigned-int16</code>
<code>int32</code>	<code>int32</code>
<code>unsigned-int32</code>	<code>unsigned-int32</code>
<code>int64</code>	<code>int64</code>
<code>unsigned-int64</code>	<code>unsigned-int64</code>
<code>float32</code>	<code>float32</code>

```

float64      float64
(struct "c-struct-id" [tag [release-function]])
    struct c-struct-id (where c-struct-id is the name of a C structure;
    see below for the meaning of tag and release-function)
(union "c-union-id" [tag [release-function]])
    union c-union-id (where c-union-id is the name of a C union; see
    below for the meaning of tag and release-function)
(type "c-type-id" [tag [release-function]])
    c-type-id (where c-type-id is an identifier naming a C type; see below
    for the meaning of tag and release-function)
(pointer type [tag [release-function]])
    T* (where T is the C equivalent of type which must be the Scheme
    notation of a C type; see below for the meaning of tag and release-
    function)
(nonnull-pointer type [tag [release-function]])
    same as (pointer type [tag [release-function]]) except the
    NULL pointer is not allowed
(function (type1...) result-type)
    function with the given argument types and result type
(nonnull-function (type1...) result-type)
    same as (function (type1...) result-type) except the NULL
    pointer is not allowed
char-string   char-string
nonnull-char-string
    nonnull-char-string
nonnull-char-string-list
    nonnull-char-string-list
latin1-string latin1-string
nonnull-latin1-string
    nonnull-latin1-string
nonnull-latin1-string-list
    nonnull-latin1-string-list
utf8-string   utf8-string
nonnull-utf8-string
    nonnull-utf8-string
nonnull-utf8-string-list
    nonnull-utf8-string-list
ucs2-string   ucs2-string
nonnull-ucs2-string
    nonnull-ucs2-string

```

```

nonnull-ucs2-string-list
    nonnull-ucs2-string-list
ucs4-string    ucs4-string
nonnull-ucs4-string
    nonnull-ucs4-string
nonnull-ucs4-string-list
    nonnull-ucs4-string-list
scheme-object  scheme-object
name           appropriate translation of name (where name is a C type defined with
                c-define-type)
"c-type-id"    c-type-id (this form is equivalent to (type "c-type-id") )

```

The `struct`, `union`, `type`, `pointer` and `nonnull-pointer` types are “foreign types” and they are represented on the Scheme side as “foreign objects”. A foreign object is internally represented as a pointer. This internal pointer is identical to the C pointer being represented in the case of the `pointer` and `nonnull-pointer` types.

In the case of the `struct`, `union` and `type` types, the internal pointer points to a copy of the C data type being represented. When an instance of one of these types is converted from C to Scheme, a block of memory is allocated from the C heap and initialized with the instance and then a foreign object is allocated from the Scheme heap and initialized with the pointer to this copy. This approach may appear overly complex, but it allows the conversion of C++ classes that do not have a zero parameter constructor or an assignment method (i.e. when compiling with a C++ compiler an instance is copied using ‘`new type (instance)`’, which calls the copy-constructor of `type` if it is a class; `type`’s assignment operator is never used). Conversion from Scheme to C simply dereferences the internal pointer (no allocation from the C heap is performed). Deallocation of the copy on the C heap is under the control of the release function attached to the foreign object (see below).

For type checking on the Scheme side, a *tag* can be specified within a foreign type specification. The *tag* must be `#f` or a symbol. When it is not specified the *tag* defaults to a symbol whose name, as returned by `symbol->string`, is the C type declaration for that type. For example the default tag for the type ‘`(pointer (pointer char))`’ is the symbol ‘`char**`’. Two foreign types are compatible (i.e. can be converted from one to the other) if they have identical tags or if at least one of the tags is `#f`. For the safest code the `#f` tag should be used sparingly, as it completely bypasses type checking. The external representation of Scheme foreign objects (used by the `write` procedure) contains the tag if it is not `#f`, and the hexadecimal address denoted by the internal pointer, for example ‘`#<char** #2 0x2AAC535C>`’. Note that the hexadecimal address is in C notation, which can be easily transferred to a C debugger with a “cut-and-paste”.

A *release-function* can also be specified within a foreign type specification. The *release-function* must be `#f` or a string naming a C function with a single parameter of type ‘`void*`’ (in which the internal pointer is passed) and with a result of type ‘`__SCMOBJ`’ (for returning an error code). When the *release-function* is not specified or is `#f` a default function is constructed by the C-interface. This default function does nothing in the case of the `pointer` and `nonnull-pointer` types (deallocation is not the responsibility of

the C-interface) and returns the fixnum ‘`__FIX(__NO_ERR)`’ to indicate no error. In the case of the `struct`, `union` and `type` types, the default function reclaims the copy on the C heap referenced by the internal pointer (when using a C++ compiler this is done using ‘`delete (type*)internal-pointer`’, which calls the destructor of *type* if it is a class) and returns ‘`__FIX(__NO_ERR)`’. In many situations the default *release-function* will perform the appropriate cleanup for the foreign type. However, in certain cases special operations (such as decrementing a reference count, removing the object from a table, etc) must be performed. For such cases a user supplied *release-function* is needed.

The *release-function* is invoked at most once for any foreign object. After the *release-function* is invoked, the foreign object is considered “released” and can no longer be used in a foreign type conversion. When the garbage collector detects that a foreign object is no longer reachable by the program, it will invoke the *release-function* if the foreign object is not yet released. When there is a need to release the foreign object promptly, the program can explicitly call the Scheme procedure `foreign-release!` which invokes the *release-function* if the foreign object is not yet released, and does nothing otherwise.

The following table gives the C types to which each Scheme type can be converted:

Scheme type	Allowed target C types
boolean #f	scheme-object; bool; pointer; function; char-string; latin1-string; utf8-string; ucs2-string; ucs4-string
boolean #t	scheme-object; bool
character	scheme-object; bool; [[un]signed] char; latin1; ucs2; ucs4
exact integer	scheme-object; bool; [unsigned-] int8/int16/int32/int64; [unsigned] short/int/long
inexact real	scheme-object; bool; float; double; float32; float64
string	scheme-object; bool; char-string; nonnull-char-string; latin1-string; nonnull-latin1-string; utf8-string; nonnull-utf8-string; ucs2-string; nonnull-ucs2-string; ucs4-string; nonnull-ucs4-string
foreign object	scheme-object; bool; struct/union/type/pointer/nonnull-pointer with the appropriate tag
vector	scheme-object; bool
symbol	scheme-object; bool
procedure	scheme-object; bool; function; nonnull-function
other objects	scheme-object; bool

The following table gives the Scheme types to which each C type will be converted:

C type	Resulting Scheme type
scheme-object	the Scheme object encoded
bool	boolean
[[un]signed] char; latin1; ucs2; ucs4	character

```

[unsigned-] int8/int16/int32/int64; [unsigned] short/int/long
    exact integer

float; double; float32; float64
    inexact real

char-string; latin1-string; utf8-string; ucs2-string; ucs4-string
    string or #f if it is equal to 'NULL'

nonnull-char-string; nonnull-latin1-string; nonnull-utf8-string;
nonnull-ucs2-string; nonnull-ucs4-string
    string

struct/union/type/pointer/nonnull-pointer
    foreign object with the appropriate tag or #f in the case of a pointer
    equal to 'NULL'

function        procedure or #f if it is equal to 'NULL'

nonnull-function
    procedure

void            void object

```

All Scheme types are compatible with the C types `scheme-object` and `bool`. Conversion to and from the C type `scheme-object` is the identity function on the object encoding. This provides a low-level mechanism for accessing Scheme's object representation from C (with the help of the macros in the `'gambit.h'` header file). When a C `bool` type is expected, an extended Scheme boolean can be passed (`#f` is converted to 0 and all other values are converted to 1).

The Scheme boolean `#f` can be passed to the C environment where a `char-string`, `latin1-string`, `utf8-string`, `ucs2-string`, `ucs4-string`, `pointer` or `function` type is expected. In this case, `#f` is converted to the `'NULL'` pointer. C `bool`s are extended booleans so any value different from 0 represents true. Thus, a C `bool` passed to the Scheme environment is mapped as follows: 0 to `#f` and all other values to `#t`.

A Scheme character passed to the C environment where any C character type is expected is converted to the corresponding character in the C environment. An error is signaled if the Scheme character does not fit in the C character. Any C character type passed to Scheme is converted to the corresponding Scheme character. An error is signaled if the C character does not fit in the Scheme character.

A Scheme exact integer passed to the C environment where a C integer type (other than `char`) is expected is converted to the corresponding integral value. An error is signaled if the value falls outside of the range representable by that integral type. C integer values passed to the Scheme environment are mapped to the same Scheme exact integer. If the value is outside the fixnum range, a bignum is created.

A Scheme inexact real passed to the C environment is converted to the corresponding `float`, `double`, `float32` or `float64` value. C `float`, `double`, `float32` and `float64` values passed to the Scheme environment are mapped to the closest Scheme inexact real.

Scheme's rational numbers and complex numbers are not compatible with any C numeric type.

A Scheme string passed to the C environment where any C string type is expected is converted to a null terminated string using the appropriate encoding. The C string is a fresh copy of the Scheme string. If the C string was created for an argument of a `c-lambda`, the C string will be reclaimed when the `c-lambda` returns. If the C string was created for returning the result of a `c-define` to C, the caller is responsible for reclaiming the C string with a call to the `__release_string` function (see below for an example). Any C string type passed to the Scheme environment causes the creation of a fresh Scheme string containing a copy of the C string (unless the C string is equal to `NULL`, in which case it is converted to `#f`).

A foreign type passed to the Scheme environment causes the creation and initialization of a Scheme foreign object with the appropriate tag (except for the case of a `pointer` equal to `NULL` which is converted to `#f`). A Scheme foreign object can be passed where a foreign type is expected, on the condition that the tags are appropriate (identical or one is `#f`) and the Scheme foreign object is not yet released. The value `#f` is also acceptable for a `pointer` type, and is converted to `NULL`.

Scheme procedures defined with the `c-define` special form can be passed where the `function` and `nonnull-function` types are expected. The value `#f` is also acceptable for a `function` type, and is converted to `NULL`. No other Scheme procedures are acceptable. Conversion from the `function` and `nonnull-function` types to Scheme procedures is not currently implemented.

## 17.2 The `c-declare` special form

Synopsis:

```
(c-declare c-declaration)
```

Initially, the C file produced by `gsc` contains only an `#include` of `'gambit.h'`. This header file provides a number of macro and procedure declarations to access the Scheme object representation. The special form `c-declare` adds *c-declaration* (which must be a string containing the C declarations) to the C file. This string is copied to the C file on a new line so it can start with preprocessor directives. All types of C declarations are allowed (including type declarations, variable declarations, function declarations, `#include` directives, `#define`'s, and so on). These declarations are visible to subsequent `c-declares`, `c-initializes`, and `c-lambdas`, and `c-defines` in the same module. The most common use of this special form is to declare the external functions that are referenced in `c-lambda` special forms. Such functions must either be declared explicitly or by including a header file which contains the appropriate C declarations.

The `c-declare` special form does not return a value. It can only appear at top level.

For example:

```
(c-declare
"
#include <stdio.h>

extern char *getlogin ();

#ifdef sparc
char *host = \"sparc\"; /* note backslashes */
#else
char *host = \"unknown\";
```

```
#endif

FILE *tfile;
")
```

### 17.3 The `c-initialize` special form

Synopsis:

```
(c-initialize c-code)
```

Just after the program is loaded and before control is passed to the Scheme code, each C file is initialized by calling its associated initialization function. The body of this function is normally empty but it can be extended by using the `c-initialize` form. Each occurrence of the `c-initialize` form adds code to the body of the initialization function in the order of appearance in the source file. *c-code* must be a string containing the C code to execute. This string is copied to the C file on a new line so it can start with preprocessor directives.

The `c-initialize` special form does not return a value. It can only appear at top level.

For example:

```
(c-initialize "tfile = tmpfile ();")
```

### 17.4 The `c-lambda` special form

Synopsis:

```
(c-lambda (type1...) result-type c-name-or-code)
```

The `c-lambda` special form makes it possible to create a Scheme procedure that will act as a representative of some C function or C code sequence. The first subform is a list containing the type of each argument. The type of the function's result is given next. Finally, the last subform is a string that either contains the name of the C function to call or some sequence of C code to execute. Variadic C functions are not supported. The resulting Scheme procedure takes exactly the number of arguments specified and delivers them in the same order to the C function. When the Scheme procedure is called, the arguments will be converted to their C representation and then the C function will be called. The result returned by the C function will be converted to its Scheme representation and this value will be returned from the Scheme procedure call. An error will be signaled if some conversion is not possible. The temporary memory allocated from the C heap for the conversion of the arguments and result will be reclaimed whether there is an error or not.

When *c-name-or-code* is not a valid C identifier, it is treated as an arbitrary piece of C code. Within the C code the variables `'__arg1'`, `'__arg2'`, etc. can be referenced to access the converted arguments. Similarly, the result to be returned from the call should be assigned to the variable `'__result'` except if the result is of `struct`, `union`, `type`, `pointer` or `nonnull-pointer` type in which case a pointer should be assigned to the variable `'__result_voidstar'` which is of type `'void*'`. If no result needs to be returned, the *result-type* should be `void` and no assignment to the variable `'__result'` or `'__result_voidstar'` should take place. Note that the C code should not contain `return` statements as this is meaningless. Control must always fall off the end of the C code. The C code is copied to the C file on a new line so it can start with preprocessor directives. Moreover the C code is always placed at the head of a compound statement

whose lifetime encloses the C to Scheme conversion of the result. Consequently, temporary storage (strings in particular) declared at the head of the C code can be returned by assigning them to ‘`__result`’ or ‘`__result_voidstar`’. In the *c-name-or-code*, the macro ‘`__AT_END`’ may be defined as the piece of C code to execute before control is returned to Scheme but after the result is converted to its Scheme representation. This is mainly useful to deallocate temporary storage contained in the result.

When passed to the Scheme environment, the C void type is converted to the void object.

For example:

```
(define fopen
  (c-lambda (nonnull-char-string nonnull-char-string)
    (pointer "FILE")
    "fopen"))

(define fgetc
  (c-lambda ((pointer "FILE")
             int)
    "fgetc"))

(let ((f (fopen "datafile" "r")))
  (if f (write (fgetc f))))

(define char-code (c-lambda (char) int "__result = __arg1;"))

(define host ((c-lambda () nonnull-char-string "__result = host;")))

(define stdin ((c-lambda () (pointer "FILE") "__result = stdin;")))

((c-lambda () void
  "printf( \"hello\\n\" ); printf( \"world\\n\" );"))

(define pack-1-char
  (c-lambda (char)
    nonnull-char-string
    "
    __result = malloc (2);
    if (__result != NULL) { __result[0] = __arg1; __result[1] = 0; }
    #define __AT_END if (__result != NULL) free (__result);
    "))

(define pack-2-chars
  (c-lambda (char char)
    nonnull-char-string
    "
    char s[3]; s[0] = __arg1; s[1] = __arg2; s[2] = 0; __result = s;
    "))
```

## 17.5 The `c-define` special form

Synopsis:

```
(c-define (variable define-formals) (type1...) result-type c-name scope
  body)
```

The `c-define` special form makes it possible to create a C function that will act as a representative of some Scheme procedure. A C function named *c-name* as well as



a Scheme procedure bound to the variable *variable* are defined. The parameters of the Scheme procedure are *define-formals* and its body is at the end of the form. The type of each argument of the C function, its result type and *c-name* (which must be a string) are specified after the parameter specification of the Scheme procedure. When the C function *c-name* is called from C, its arguments are converted to their Scheme representation and passed to the Scheme procedure. The result of the Scheme procedure is then converted to its C representation and the C function *c-name* returns it to its caller.

The scope of the C function can be changed with the *scope* parameter, which must be a string. This string is placed immediately before the declaration of the C function. So if *scope* is the string "static", the scope of *c-name* is local to the module it is in, whereas if *scope* is the empty string, *c-name* is visible from other modules.

The *c-define* special form does not return a value. It can only appear at top level.

For example:

```
(c-define (proc x #!optional (y x) #!rest z) (int int char float) int "f" ""
  (write (cons x (cons y z)))
  (newline)
  (+ x y))

(proc 1 2 #\x 1.5) => 3 and prints (1 2 #\x 1.5)
(proc 1)             => 2 and prints (1 1)

; if f is called from C with the call f (1, 2, 'x', 1.5)
; the value 3 is returned and (1 2 #\x 1.5) is printed.
; f has to be called with 4 arguments.
```

The *c-define* special form is particularly useful when the driving part of an application is written in C and Scheme procedures are called directly from C. The Scheme part of the application is in a sense a “server” that is providing services to the C part. The Scheme procedures that are to be called from C need to be defined using the *c-define* special form. Before it can be used, the Scheme part must be initialized with a call to the function ‘*\_\_setup*’. Before the program terminates, it must call the function ‘*\_\_cleanup*’ so that the Scheme part may do final cleanup. A sample application is given in the file ‘*tests/server.scm*’.

## 17.6 The *c-define-type* special form

Synopsis:

```
(c-define-type name type [c-to-scheme scheme-to-c [cleanup]])
```

This form associates the type identifier *name* to the C type *type*. The *name* must not clash with predefined types (e.g. *char-string*, *latin1*, etc.) or with types previously defined with *c-define-type* in the same file. The *c-define-type* special form does not return a value. It can only appear at top level.

If only the two parameters *name* and *type* are supplied then after this definition, the use of *name* in a type specification is synonymous to *type*.

For example:

```
(c-define-type FILE "FILE")
(c-define-type FILE* (pointer FILE))
(c-define-type time-struct-ptr (pointer (struct "tms")))
(define fopen (c-lambda (char-string char-string) FILE* "fopen"))
```

```
(define fgetc (c-lambda (FILE*) int "fgetc"))
```

Note that identifiers are not case-sensitive in standard Scheme but it is good programming practice to use a *name* with the same case as in C.

If four or more parameters are supplied, then *type* must be a string naming the C type, *c-to-scheme* and *scheme-to-c* must be strings suffixing the C macros that convert data of that type between C and Scheme. If *cleanup* is supplied it must be a boolean indicating whether it is necessary to perform a cleanup operation (such as freeing memory) when data of that type is converted from Scheme to C (it defaults to #t). The cleanup information is used when the C stack is unwound due to a continuation invocation (see [Section 17.7 \[continuations\]](#), page 158). Although it is safe to always specify #t, it is more efficient in time and space to specify #f because the unwinding mechanism can skip C-interface frames which only contain conversions of data types requiring no cleanup. Two pairs of C macros need to be defined for conversions performed by *c-lambda* forms and two pairs for conversions performed by *c-define* forms:

```
___BEGIN_CFUN_scheme-to-c(___SCMOBJ, type, int)
___END_CFUN_scheme-to-c(___SCMOBJ, type, int)

___BEGIN_CFUN_c-to-scheme(type, ___SCMOBJ)
___END_CFUN_c-to-scheme(type, ___SCMOBJ)

___BEGIN_SFUN_c-to-scheme(type, ___SCMOBJ, int)
___END_SFUN_c-to-scheme(type, ___SCMOBJ, int)

___BEGIN_SFUN_scheme-to-c(___SCMOBJ, type)
___END_SFUN_scheme-to-c(___SCMOBJ, type)
```

The macros prefixed with `___BEGIN` perform the conversion and those prefixed with `___END` perform any cleanup necessary (such as freeing memory temporarily allocated for the conversion). The macro `___END_CFUN_scheme-to-c` must free the result of the conversion if it is memory allocated, and `___END_SFUN_scheme-to-c` must not (i.e. it is the responsibility of the caller to free the result).

The first parameter of these macros is the C variable that contains the value to be converted, and the second parameter is the C variable in which to store the converted value. The third parameter, when present, is the index (starting at 1) of the parameter of the *c-lambda* or *c-define* form that is being converted (this is useful for reporting precise error information when a conversion is impossible).

To allow for type checking, the first three `___BEGIN` macros must expand to an unterminated compound statement prefixed by an `if`, conditional on the absence of type check error:

```
if ((___err = conversion_operation) == ___FIX(___NO_ERR)) {
```

The last `___BEGIN` macro must expand to an unterminated compound statement:

```
{ ___err = conversion_operation;
```

If type check errors are impossible then a `___BEGIN` macro can simply expand to an unterminated compound statement performing the conversion:

```
{ conversion_operation;
```

The `___END` macros must expand to a statement, or to nothing if no cleanup is required, followed by a closing brace (to terminate the compound statement started at the corresponding `___BEGIN` macro).

The *conversion\_operation* is typically a function call that returns an error code value of type `___SCMOBJ` (the error codes are defined in 'gambit.h', and the error code `___FIX(___UNKNOWN_ERR)` is available for generic errors). *conversion\_operation* can also set the variable `___errmsg` of type `___SCMOBJ` to a specific Scheme string error message.

Below is a simple example showing how to interface to an 'EBCDIC' character type. Memory allocation is not needed for conversion and type check errors are impossible when converting EBCDIC to Scheme characters, but they are possible when converting from Scheme characters to EBCDIC since Gambit supports Unicode characters.

```
(c-declare
"
typedef char EBCDIC; /* EBCDIC encoded characters */

void put_char (EBCDIC c) { ... } /* EBCDIC I/O functions */
EBCDIC get_char (void) { ... }

char EBCDIC_to_latin1[256] = { ... }; /* conversion tables */
char latin1_to_EBCDIC[256] = { ... };

___SCMOBJ SCMOBJ_to_EBCDIC (___SCMOBJ src, EBCDIC *dst)
{
    int x = ___INT(src); /* convert from Scheme character to int */
    if (x > 255) return ___FIX(___UNKNOWN_ERR);
    *dst = latin1_to_EBCDIC[x];
    return ___FIX(___NO_ERR);
}

#define ___BEGIN_CFUN_SCMOBJ_to_EBCDIC(src,dst,i) \\
if ((___err = SCMOBJ_to_EBCDIC (src, &dst)) == ___FIX(___NO_ERR)) {
#define ___END_CFUN_SCMOBJ_to_EBCDIC(src,dst,i) }

#define ___BEGIN_CFUN_EBCDIC_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst) \\
{ dst = ___CHR(EBCDIC_to_latin1[src]);
#define ___END_CFUN_EBCDIC_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst) }

#define ___BEGIN_SFUN_EBCDIC_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst,i) \\
{ dst = ___CHR(EBCDIC_to_latin1[src]);
#define ___END_SFUN_EBCDIC_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst,i) }

#define ___BEGIN_SFUN_SCMOBJ_to_EBCDIC(src,dst) \\
{ ___err = SCMOBJ_to_EBCDIC (src, &dst);
#define ___END_SFUN_SCMOBJ_to_EBCDIC(src,dst) }
")

(c-define-type EBCDIC "EBCDIC" "EBCDIC_to_SCMOBJ" "SCMOBJ_to_EBCDIC" #f)

(define put-char (c-lambda (EBCDIC) void "put_char"))
(define get-char (c-lambda () EBCDIC "get_char"))

(c-define (write-EBCDIC c) (EBCDIC) void "write_EBCDIC" ""
(write-char c))

(c-define (read-EBCDIC) () EBCDIC "read_EBCDIC" ""
(read-char))
```

Below is a more complex example that requires memory allocation when converting from C to Scheme. It is an interface to a 2D 'point' type which is represented in Scheme by a

pair of integers. The conversion of the *x* and *y* components is done by calls to the conversion macros for the *int* type (defined in 'gambit.h'). Note that no cleanup is necessary when converting from Scheme to C (i.e. the last parameter of the *c-define-type* is #f).

```
(c-declare
"
typedef struct { int x, y; } point;

void line_to (point p) { ... }
point get_mouse (void) { ... }
point add_points (point p1, point p2) { ... }

__SCMOBJ SCMOBJ_to_POINT (__SCMOBJ src, point *dst, int arg_num)
{
  __SCMOBJ __err = __FIX(__NO_ERR);
  if (!__PAIRP(src))
    __err = __FIX(__UNKNOWN_ERR);
  else
  {
    __SCMOBJ car = __CAR(src);
    __SCMOBJ cdr = __CDR(src);
    __BEGIN_CFUN_SCMOBJ_TO_INT(car,dst->x,arg_num)
    __BEGIN_CFUN_SCMOBJ_TO_INT(cdr,dst->y,arg_num)
    __END_CFUN_SCMOBJ_TO_INT(cdr,dst->y,arg_num)
    __END_CFUN_SCMOBJ_TO_INT(car,dst->x,arg_num)
  }
  return __err;
}

__SCMOBJ POINT_to_SCMOBJ (point src, __SCMOBJ *dst, int arg_num)
{
  __SCMOBJ __err = __FIX(__NO_ERR);
  __SCMOBJ x_scmobj;
  __SCMOBJ y_scmobj;
  __BEGIN_SFUN_INT_TO_SCMOBJ(src.x,x_scmobj,arg_num)
  __BEGIN_SFUN_INT_TO_SCMOBJ(src.y,y_scmobj,arg_num)
  *dst = __EXT(__make_pair) (x_scmobj, y_scmobj, __STILL);
  if (__FIXNUMP(*dst))
    __err = *dst; /* return allocation error */
  __END_SFUN_INT_TO_SCMOBJ(src.y,y_scmobj,arg_num)
  __END_SFUN_INT_TO_SCMOBJ(src.x,x_scmobj,arg_num)
  return __err;
}

#define __BEGIN_CFUN_SCMOBJ_to_POINT(src,dst,i) \\\
if ((__err = SCMOBJ_to_POINT (src, &dst, i)) == __FIX(__NO_ERR)) {
#define __END_CFUN_SCMOBJ_to_POINT(src,dst,i) }

#define __BEGIN_CFUN_POINT_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst) \\\
if ((__err = POINT_to_SCMOBJ (src, &dst, __RETURN_POS)) == __FIX(__NO_ERR)) {
#define __END_CFUN_POINT_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst) \\\
__EXT(__release_scmobj) (dst); }

#define __BEGIN_SFUN_POINT_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst,i) \\\
if ((__err = POINT_to_SCMOBJ (src, &dst, i)) == __FIX(__NO_ERR)) {
#define __END_SFUN_POINT_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst,i) \\\
__EXT(__release_scmobj) (dst); }

#define __BEGIN_SFUN_SCMOBJ_to_POINT(src,dst) \\\
```

```

{ ____err = SCMOBJ_to_POINT (src, &dst, ____RETURN_POS);
#define ____END_SFUN_SCMOBJ_to_POINT(src,dst) }
")

(c-define-type point "point" "POINT_to_SCMOBJ" "SCMOBJ_to_POINT" #f)

(define line-to (c-lambda (point) void "line_to"))
(define get-mouse (c-lambda () point "get_mouse"))
(define add-points (c-lambda (point point) point "add_points"))

(c-define (write-point p) (point) void "write_point" ""
  (write p))

(c-define (read-point) () point "read_point" ""
  (read))

```

An example that requires memory allocation when converting from C to Scheme and Scheme to C is shown below. It is an interface to a “null-terminated array of strings” type which is represented in Scheme by a list of strings. Note that some cleanup is necessary when converting from Scheme to C.

```

(c-declare
"
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <unistd.h>

extern char **environ;

char **get_environ (void) { return environ; }

void free_strings (char **strings)
{
  char **ptr = strings;
  while (*ptr != NULL)
  {
    ____EXT(____release_string) (*ptr);
    ptr++;
  }
  free (strings);
}

____SCMOBJ SCMOBJ_to_STRINGS (____SCMOBJ src, char ***dst, int arg_num)
{
  /*
   * Src is a list of Scheme strings. Dst will be a null terminated
   * array of C strings.
   */

  int i;
  ____SCMOBJ lst = src;
  int len = 4; /* start with a small result array */
  char **result = (char**) malloc (len * sizeof (char*));

  if (result == NULL)
    return ____FIX(____HEAP_OVERFLOW_ERR);

  i = 0;
  result[i] = NULL; /* always keep array null terminated */

```

```

while (___PAIRP(lst))
{
    ___SCMOBJ scm_str = ___CAR(lst);
    char *c_str;
    ___SCMOBJ ___err;

    if (i >= len-1) /* need to grow the result array? */
    {
        char **new_result;
        int j;

        len = len * 3 / 2;
        new_result = (char**) malloc (len * sizeof (char*));
        if (new_result == NULL)
        {
            free_strings (result);
            return ___FIX(___HEAP_OVERFLOW_ERR);
        }
        for (j=i; j>=0; j--)
            new_result[j] = result[j];
        free (result);
        result = new_result;
    }

    ___err = ___EXT(___SCMOBJ_to_CHARSTRING) (scm_str, &c_str, arg_num);

    if (___err != ___FIX(___NO_ERR))
    {
        free_strings (result);
        return ___err;
    }

    result[i++] = c_str;
    result[i] = NULL;
    lst = ___CDR(lst);
}

if (!___NULLP(lst))
{
    free_strings (result);
    return ___FIX(___UNKNOWN_ERR);
}

/*
 * Note that the caller is responsible for calling free_strings
 * when it is done with the result.
 */

*dst = result;
return ___FIX(___NO_ERR);
}

___SCMOBJ STRINGS_to_SCMOBJ (char **src, ___SCMOBJ *dst, int arg_num)
{
    ___SCMOBJ ___err = ___FIX(___NO_ERR);
    ___SCMOBJ result = ___NUL; /* start with the empty list */
    int i = 0;

```

```

while (src[i] != NULL)
    i++;

/* build the list of strings starting at the tail */

while (--i >= 0)
{
    __SCMOBJ scm_str;
    __SCMOBJ new_result;

    /*
     * Invariant: result is either the empty list or a __STILL pair
     * with reference count equal to 1. This is important because
     * it is possible that __CHARSTRING_to_SCMOBJ and __make_pair
     * will invoke the garbage collector and we don't want the
     * reference in result to become invalid (which would be the
     * case if result was a __MOVABLE pair or if it had a zero
     * reference count).
     */

    __err = __EXT(__CHARSTRING_to_SCMOBJ) (src[i], &scm_str, arg_num);

    if (__err != __FIX(__NO_ERR))
    {
        __EXT(__release_scmobj) (result); /* allow GC to reclaim re-
sult */
        return __FIX(__UNKNOWN_ERR);
    }

    /*
     * Note that scm_str will be a __STILL object with reference
     * count equal to 1, so there is no risk that it will be
     * reclaimed or moved if __make_pair invokes the garbage
     * collector.
     */

    new_result = __EXT(__make_pair) (scm_str, result, __STILL);

    /*
     * We can zero the reference count of scm_str and result (if
     * not the empty list) because the pair now references these
     * objects and the pair is reachable (it can't be reclaimed
     * or moved by the garbage collector).
     */

    __EXT(__release_scmobj) (scm_str);
    __EXT(__release_scmobj) (result);

    result = new_result;

    if (__FIXNUMP(result))
        return result; /* allocation failed */
}

/*
 * Note that result is either the empty list or a __STILL pair
 * with a reference count equal to 1. There will be a call to
 * __release_scmobj later on (in __END_CFUN_STRINGS_to_SCMOBJ

```

```

    * or ____END_SFUN_STRINGS_to_SCMOBJ) that will allow the garbage
    * collector to reclaim the whole list of strings when the Scheme
    * world no longer references it.
    */

    *dst = result;
    return ____FIX(____NO_ERR);
}

#define ____BEGIN_CFUN_SCMOBJ_to_STRINGS(src,dst,i) \\\
if ((____err = SCMOBJ_to_STRINGS (src, &dst, i)) == ____FIX(____NO_ERR)) {
#define ____END_CFUN_SCMOBJ_to_STRINGS(src,dst,i) \\\
free_strings (dst); }

#define ____BEGIN_CFUN_STRINGS_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst) \\\
if ((____err = STRINGS_to_SCMOBJ (src, &dst, ____RETURN_POS)) == ____FIX(____NO_ERR)) {
#define ____END_CFUN_STRINGS_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst) \\\
____EXT(____release_scmobj) (dst); }

#define ____BEGIN_SFUN_STRINGS_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst,i) \\\
if ((____err = STRINGS_to_SCMOBJ (src, &dst, i)) == ____FIX(____NO_ERR)) {
#define ____END_SFUN_STRINGS_to_SCMOBJ(src,dst,i) \\\
____EXT(____release_scmobj) (dst); }

#define ____BEGIN_SFUN_SCMOBJ_to_STRINGS(src,dst) \\\
{ ____err = SCMOBJ_to_STRINGS (src, &dst, ____RETURN_POS);
#define ____END_SFUN_SCMOBJ_to_STRINGS(src,dst) }
")

(c-define-type char** "char**" "STRINGS_to_SCMOBJ" "SCMOBJ_to_STRINGS")

(define execv (c-lambda (char-string char**) int "execv"))
(define get-environ (c-lambda () char** "get_environ"))

(c-define (write-strings x) (char**) void "write_strings" ""
  (write x))

(c-define (read-strings) () char** "read_strings" ""
  (read))

```

## 17.7 Continuations and the C-interface

The C-interface allows C to Scheme calls to be nested. This means that during a call from C to Scheme another call from C to Scheme can be performed. This case occurs in the following program:

```

(c-declare
"
int p (char *); /* forward declarations */
int q (void);

int a (char *x) { return 2 * p (x+1); }
int b (short y) { return y + q (); }
")

(define a (c-lambda (char-string) int "a"))
(define b (c-lambda (short) int "b"))

```



```
(c-define (p z) (char-string) int "p" ""  
  (+ (b 10) (string-length z)))  
  
(c-define (q) () int "q" ""  
  123)  
  
(write (a "hello"))
```

In this example, the main Scheme program calls the C function ‘a’ which calls the Scheme procedure ‘p’ which in turn calls the C function ‘b’ which finally calls the Scheme procedure ‘q’.

Gambit-C maintains the Scheme continuation separately from the C stack, thus allowing the Scheme continuation to be unwound independently from the C stack. The C stack frame created for the C function ‘f’ is only removed from the C stack when control returns from ‘f’ or when control returns to a C function “above” ‘f’. Special care is required for programs which escape to Scheme (using first-class continuations) from a Scheme to C (to Scheme) call because the C stack frame will remain on the stack. The C stack may overflow if this happens in a loop with no intervening return to a C function. To avoid this problem make sure the C stack gets cleaned up by executing a normal return from a Scheme to C call.

## 18 System limitations

- On some systems floating point overflows will cause the program to terminate with a floating point exception.
- On some systems floating point operations involving `'+nan.'`, `'+inf.'`, `'-inf.'`, or `'-0.'` do not return the value required by the IEEE 754 floating point standard.
- The compiler will not properly compile files with more than one definition (with `define`) of the same procedure. Replace all but the first `define` with assignments (`set!`).
- The maximum number of arguments that can be passed to a procedure by the `apply` procedure is 8192.

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# General index

<b>+</b>		<b>-flat</b> .....	9
<b>+z</b> .....	13	<b>-fpic</b> .....	13
<b>,</b>		<b>-fPIC</b> .....	13
<b>, (c expr)</b> .....	20	<b>-gvm</b> .....	9
<b>, +</b> .....	21	<b>-i</b> .....	8
<b>, -</b> .....	21	<b>-I/usr/local/Gambit-C/include</b> ....	13
<b>, ?</b> .....	20	<b>-Kpic</b> .....	13
<b>, b</b> .....	21	<b>-KPIC</b> .....	13
<b>, c</b> .....	20	<b>-l base</b> .....	9
<b>, d</b> .....	20	<b>-L/usr/local/Gambit-C/lib</b> .....	13
<b>, e</b> .....	21	<b>-ld-options</b> .....	8
<b>, i</b> .....	21	<b>-O</b> .....	13
<b>, l</b> .....	20	<b>-o output</b> .....	9
<b>, n</b> .....	21	<b>-pic</b> .....	13
<b>, q</b> .....	20	<b>-postlude</b> .....	8
<b>, s</b> .....	20	<b>-prelude</b> .....	8
<b>, t</b> .....	20	<b>-rdynamic</b> .....	13
<b>, Y</b> .....	21	<b>-report</b> .....	9
<b>-</b>		<b>-shared</b> .....	13
<b>-: +</b> .....	18	<b>-track-scheme</b> .....	9
<b>-: =</b> .....	18	<b>-verbose</b> .....	9
<b>-: d</b> .....	17	<b>-warnings</b> .....	9
<b>-: d-</b> .....	18	<b>.</b>	
<b>-: da</b> .....	17	<b>.c</b> .....	7
<b>-: dc</b> .....	18	<b>.scm</b> .....	7
<b>-: di</b> .....	18	<b>.six</b> .....	7
<b>-: dLEVEL</b> .....	18	<b>&lt;</b>	
<b>-: dp</b> .....	17	<b>&lt;</b> .....	40
<b>-: dq</b> .....	18	<b>&lt;=</b> .....	40
<b>-: dr</b> .....	17	<b>=</b>	
<b>-: ds</b> .....	17	<b>=</b> .....	40
<b>-: f</b> .....	18	<b>&gt;</b>	
<b>-: h</b> .....	17	<b>&gt;</b> .....	40
<b>-: l</b> .....	17	<b>&gt;=</b> .....	40
<b>-: m</b> .....	17	<b>^</b>	
<b>-: s</b> .....	17	<b>^C</b> .....	19
<b>-: S</b> .....	17	<b>^D</b> .....	19
<b>-: t</b> .....	18	<b>-</b>	
<b>-c</b> .....	7, 9	<b>__cleanup</b> .....	151
<b>-call_shared</b> .....	13	<b>__setup</b> .....	151
<b>-cc-options</b> .....	8		
<b>-D __DYNAMIC</b> .....	11		
<b>-D __LIBRARY</b> .....	13		
<b>-D __PRIMAL</b> .....	13		
<b>-D __SHARED</b> .....	13		
<b>-D __SINGLE_HOST</b> .....	13		
<b>-debug</b> .....	9		
<b>-dynamic</b> .....	7, 9		
<b>-e</b> .....	8		
<b>-expansion</b> .....	9		

~		
~/	90	
~/	90	
~username/	90	
<b>A</b>		
abandoned-mutex-exception?	75	
abort	72	
absolute path	90, 91	
all-bits-set?	43	
any-bits-set?	43	
arithmetic-shift	41	
<b>B</b>		
bit-count	42	
bit-set?	43	
bitwise-and	41	
bitwise-ior	41	
bitwise-merge	41	
bitwise-not	42	
bitwise-xor	42	
block	36	
break	25	
<b>C</b>		
c-declare	148	
c-define	150	
c-define-type	151	
c-initialize	149	
c-lambda	149	
call-with-input-file	115	
call-with-input-string	123	
call-with-input-u8vector	123	
call-with-input-vector	120	
call-with-output-file	115	
call-with-output-string	123	
call-with-output-u8vector	123	
call-with-output-vector	120	
cfun-conversion-exception-arguments	78	
cfun-conversion-exception-code	78	
cfun-conversion-exception-message	78	
cfun-conversion-exception-procedure	78	
cfun-conversion-exception?	78	
char->integer	38	
char-ci<=?	38	
char-ci<?	38	
char-ci=?	38	
char-ci>=?	38	
char-ci>?	38	
char<=?	38	
char<?	38	
char=?	38	
char>=?	38	
char>?	38	
clear-bit-field	44	
close-input-port	108	
close-output-port	108	
close-port	108	
command-line	5, 95	
compile-file	14	
compile-file-to-c	14	
compiler	7	
compiler options	7	
condition-variable-broadcast!	65	
condition-variable-name	64	
condition-variable-signal!	64	
condition-variable-specific	64	
condition-variable-specific-set!	64	
condition-variable?	64	
constant-fold	37	
continuations	158	
copy-bit-field	44	
copy-file	94	
cpu-time	96	
create-directory	93	
create-fifo	93	
create-link	93	
create-symbolic-link	93	
current exception-handler	70	
current working directory	90	
current-directory	90	
current-error-port	123	
current-exception-handler	70	
current-input-port	123	
current-output-port	123	
current-readtable	123	
current-thread	55	
current-time	96	
<b>D</b>		
datum-parsing-exception-kind	81	
datum-parsing-exception-parameters	81	
datum-parsing-exception?	81	
deadlock-exception?	75	
declare	36	
default-random-source	44	
define	31, 160	
define-macro	35	
define-structure	51	
define-syntax	35	
delete-directory	94	
delete-file	94	
directory-files	94	
display-environment-set!	26	
divide-by-zero-exception-arguments	85	



divide-by-zero-exception-procedure ..... 85  
 divide-by-zero-exception? ..... 85

## E

Emacs ..... 29  
 error ..... 89  
 error-exception-message ..... 89  
 error-exception-parameters ..... 89  
 error-exception? ..... 89  
 eval ..... 34  
 exit ..... 95  
 expression-parsing-exception-kind ..... 82  
 expression-parsing-exception-parameters ..... 82  
 expression-parsing-exception? ..... 82  
 extended-bindings ..... 37  
 extract-bit-field ..... 44

## F

f32vector ..... 49  
 f32vector->list ..... 49  
 f32vector-append ..... 49  
 f32vector-copy ..... 49  
 f32vector-fill! ..... 49  
 f32vector-length ..... 49  
 f32vector-ref ..... 49  
 f32vector-set! ..... 49  
 f32vector? ..... 49  
 f64vector ..... 49  
 f64vector->list ..... 49  
 f64vector-append ..... 49  
 f64vector-copy ..... 49  
 f64vector-fill! ..... 49  
 f64vector-length ..... 49  
 f64vector-ref ..... 49  
 f64vector-set! ..... 49  
 f64vector? ..... 49  
 FFI ..... 141  
 file names ..... 90  
 file-attributes ..... 100  
 file-creation-time ..... 100  
 file-device ..... 100  
 file-exists? ..... 97  
 file-group ..... 100  
 file-info ..... 98  
 file-info-attributes ..... 100  
 file-info-creation-time ..... 100  
 file-info-device ..... 99  
 file-info-group ..... 99  
 file-info-inode ..... 99  
 file-info-last-access-time ..... 100  
 file-info-last-change-time ..... 100  
 file-info-last-modification-time ..... 100

file-info-mode ..... 99  
 file-info-number-of-links ..... 99  
 file-info-owner ..... 99  
 file-info-size ..... 99  
 file-info-type ..... 98  
 file-info? ..... 98  
 file-inode ..... 100  
 file-last-access-time ..... 100  
 file-last-change-time ..... 100  
 file-last-modification-time ..... 100  
 file-mode ..... 100  
 file-number-of-links ..... 100  
 file-owner ..... 100  
 file-size ..... 100  
 file-type ..... 100  
 file.c ..... 7  
 file.scm ..... 7  
 file.six ..... 7  
 first-set-bit ..... 43  
 fixnum ..... 37  
 floating point overflow ..... 160  
 flonum ..... 37  
 force-output ..... 108  
 foreign function interface ..... 141

## G

GAMBCOPT, environment variable ..... 18  
 Gambit ..... 1  
 Gambit installation directory ..... 90  
 Gambit-C ..... 1  
 gambit.el ..... 29  
 GC ..... 27  
 gc-report-set! ..... 27  
 generic ..... 37  
 gensym ..... 34  
 get-output-string ..... 123  
 get-output-u8vector ..... 123  
 get-output-vector ..... 122  
 getenv ..... 95  
 group-info ..... 101  
 group-info-gid ..... 101  
 group-info-members ..... 101  
 group-info-name ..... 101  
 group-info? ..... 101  
 gsc ..... 1, 7, 14, 15, 17  
 gsi ..... 1, 2, 17  
 gsi-script ..... 5

## H

heap-overflow-exception? ..... 72  
 home directory ..... 90  
 homogeneous vectors ..... 47, 133  
 host-info ..... 103  
 host-info-addresses ..... 104  
 host-info-aliases ..... 103  
 host-info-name ..... 103

host-info? ..... 103

## I

ieee-scheme ..... 36  
 improper-length-list-exception-  
   arg-num ..... 86  
 improper-length-list-exception-  
   arguments ..... 86  
 improper-length-list-exception-  
   procedure ..... 86  
 improper-length-list-exception?.. 86  
 include ..... 35  
 inline ..... 36  
 inlining-limit ..... 36  
 input-port-column ..... 110  
 input-port-line ..... 110  
 input-port-timeout-set! ..... 108  
 input-port? ..... 106  
 integer->char ..... 38  
 integer-length ..... 42  
 integer-nth-root ..... 40  
 integer-sqrt ..... 40  
 interpreter ..... 2, 7  
 interrupts-enabled ..... 37

## J

join-timeout-exception-arguments  
   ..... 76  
 join-timeout-exception-procedure  
   ..... 76  
 join-timeout-exception? ..... 76

## K

keyword->string ..... 32  
 keyword-expected-exception-  
   arguments ..... 88  
 keyword-expected-exception-  
   procedure ..... 88  
 keyword-expected-exception? ..... 88  
 keyword? ..... 32  
 keywords ..... 33

## L

lambda ..... 31  
 lambda-lift ..... 36  
 last\_.c ..... 9  
 limitations ..... 160  
 link-flat ..... 15  
 link-incremental ..... 14  
 list->f32vector ..... 49  
 list->f64vector ..... 49  
 list->s16vector ..... 48  
 list->s32vector ..... 48  
 list->s64vector ..... 49

list->s8vector ..... 47  
 list->u16vector ..... 48  
 list->u32vector ..... 48  
 list->u64vector ..... 49  
 list->u8vector ..... 47  
 load ..... 14

## M

make-condition-variable ..... 64  
 make-f32vector ..... 49  
 make-f64vector ..... 49  
 make-mutex ..... 60  
 make-parameter ..... 68  
 make-random-source ..... 45  
 make-s16vector ..... 47  
 make-s32vector ..... 48  
 make-s64vector ..... 48  
 make-s8vector ..... 47  
 make-thread ..... 55  
 make-ul6vector ..... 48  
 make-u32vector ..... 48  
 make-u64vector ..... 49  
 make-u8vector ..... 47  
 make-will ..... 33  
 multiple-c-return-exception? ..... 80  
 mutex-lock! ..... 61  
 mutex-name ..... 60  
 mutex-specific ..... 60  
 mutex-specific-set! ..... 60  
 mutex-state ..... 61  
 mutex-unlock! ..... 63  
 mutex? ..... 60

## N

newline ..... 107  
 no-such-file-or-directory-  
   exception-arguments ..... 73  
 no-such-file-or-directory-  
   exception-procedure ..... 73  
 no-such-file-or-directory-  
   exception? ..... 73  
 noncontinuable-exception-reason.. 72  
 noncontinuable-exception? ..... 72  
 nonprocedure-operator-exception-  
   arguments ..... 87  
 nonprocedure-operator-exception-  
   operator ..... 87  
 nonprocedure-operator-exception?  
   ..... 87  
 normalized path ..... 91  
 number-of-arguments-limit-  
   exception-arguments ..... 87  
 number-of-arguments-limit-  
   exception-procedure ..... 87  
 number-of-arguments-limit-  
   exception? ..... 87

**O**

object file .....	14
object->serial-number .....	26
object->string .....	123
open-directory .....	119
open-file .....	115
open-input-file .....	115
open-input-string .....	122
open-input-u8vector .....	123
open-input-vector .....	120
open-output-file .....	115
open-output-string .....	123
open-output-u8vector .....	123
open-output-vector .....	120
open-process .....	116
open-string .....	122
open-string-pipe .....	123
open-tcp-client .....	117
open-tcp-server .....	118
open-u8vector .....	123
open-u8vector-pipe .....	123
open-vector .....	120
open-vector-pipe .....	121
options, compiler .....	7
options, runtime .....	17
os-exception-arguments .....	73
os-exception-code .....	73
os-exception-message .....	73
os-exception-procedure .....	73
os-exception? .....	73
output-port-column .....	110
output-port-line .....	110
output-port-timeout-set! .....	108
output-port-width .....	110
output-port? .....	106
overflow, floating point .....	160

**P**

parameterize .....	69
path-directory .....	92
path-expand .....	91
path-extension .....	92
path-normalize .....	91
path-strip-directory .....	92
path-strip-extension .....	92
path-strip-volume .....	92
path-volume .....	92
peek-char .....	110
port? .....	106
pp .....	27
pretty-print .....	27
process-times .....	96
proper-tail-calls-set! .....	26

**R**

r4rs-scheme .....	36
raise .....	71
random-integer .....	44
random-real .....	45
random-source-make-integers .....	46
random-source-make-reals .....	46
random-source-pseudo-randomize! ..	45
random-source-randomize! .....	45
random-source-state-ref .....	45
random-source-state-set! .....	45
random-source? .....	45
range-exception-arg-num .....	85
range-exception-arguments .....	85
range-exception-procedure .....	85
range-exception? .....	85
read .....	107
read-all .....	107
read-byte .....	114
read-char .....	110
read-line .....	111
read-substring .....	111
read-subu8vector .....	114
readtable-case-conversion? .....	125
readtable-case-conversion?-set ..	125
readtable-eval-allowed? .....	129
readtable-eval-allowed?-set .....	129
readtable-keywords-allowed? .....	126
readtable-keywords-allowed?-set ..	126
readtable-max-write-length .....	130
readtable-max-write-length-set ..	130
readtable-max-write-level .....	129
readtable-max-write-level-set ..	129
readtable-sharing-allowed? .....	127
readtable-sharing-allowed?-set ..	127
readtable-start-syntax .....	130
readtable-start-syntax-set .....	130
readtable? .....	125
real-time .....	96
relative path .....	90, 91
rename-file .....	94
replace-bit-field .....	44
runtime options .....	17

**S**

s16vector .....	47
s16vector->list .....	48
s16vector-append .....	48
s16vector-copy .....	48
s16vector-fill! .....	48
s16vector-length .....	47
s16vector-ref .....	47
s16vector-set! .....	47
s16vector? .....	47
s32vector .....	48
s32vector->list .....	48

s32vector-append	48
s32vector-copy	48
s32vector-fill!	48
s32vector-length	48
s32vector-ref	48
s32vector-set!	48
s32vector?	48
s64vector	48
s64vector->list	49
s64vector-append	49
s64vector-copy	49
s64vector-fill!	49
s64vector-length	49
s64vector-ref	49
s64vector-set!	49
s64vector?	48
s8vector	47
s8vector->list	47
s8vector-append	47
s8vector-copy	47
s8vector-fill!	47
s8vector-length	47
s8vector-ref	47
s8vector-set!	47
s8vector?	47
safe	37
scheduler-exception-reason	75
scheduler-exception?	75
Scheme	1
scheme-ieee-1178-1990	5
scheme-r4rs	5
scheme-r5rs	5
scheme-srfi-0	5
seconds->time	96
separate	36
serial-number->object	26
set!	160
setenv	95
sfun-conversion-exception-arguments	79
sfun-conversion-exception-code	79
sfun-conversion-exception-message	79
sfun-conversion-exception-procedure	79
sfun-conversion-exception?	79
shell-command	94
six-script	5
stack-overflow-exception?	72
standard-bindings	37
started-thread-exception-arguments	76
started-thread-exception-procedure	76
started-thread-exception?	76
step	24
step-level-set!	24
string->keyword	33

string-ci<=?	39
string-ci<?	38
string-ci=?	38
string-ci>=?	39
string-ci>?	39
string<=?	38
string<?	38
string=?	38
string>=?	38
string>?	38
subf32vector	49
subf64vector	49
subsl6vector	48
subs32vector	48
subs64vector	49
subs8vector	47
subul6vector	48
subu32vector	48
subu64vector	49
subu8vector	47
syntax-case	35
syntax-rules	35

## T

terminated-thread-exception-arguments	77
terminated-thread-exception-procedure	77
terminated-thread-exception?	77
test-bit-field?	44
thread-base-priority	56
thread-base-priority-set!	56
thread-join!	59
thread-name	56
thread-priority-boost	56
thread-priority-boost-set!	56
thread-quantum	57
thread-quantum-set!	57
thread-sleep!	57
thread-specific	56
thread-specific-set!	56
thread-start!	57
thread-terminate!	58
thread-yield!	57
thread?	55
threads	52
time	97
time->seconds	96
time?	96
trace	23
transcript-off	31
transcript-on	31
type-exception-arg-num	84
type-exception-arguments	84
type-exception-procedure	84
type-exception-type-id	84
type-exception?	84

## U

u16vector .....	48
u16vector->list .....	48
u16vector-append .....	48
u16vector-copy .....	48
u16vector-fill! .....	48
u16vector-length .....	48
u16vector-ref .....	48
u16vector-set! .....	48
u16vector? .....	48
u32vector .....	48
u32vector->list .....	48
u32vector-append .....	48
u32vector-copy .....	48
u32vector-fill! .....	48
u32vector-length .....	48
u32vector-ref .....	48
u32vector-set! .....	48
u32vector? .....	48
u64vector .....	49
u64vector->list .....	49
u64vector-append .....	49
u64vector-copy .....	49
u64vector-fill! .....	49
u64vector-length .....	49
u64vector-ref .....	49
u64vector-set! .....	49
u64vector? .....	49
u8vector .....	47
u8vector->list .....	47
u8vector-append .....	47
u8vector-copy .....	47
u8vector-fill! .....	47
u8vector-length .....	47
u8vector-ref .....	47
u8vector-set! .....	47
u8vector? .....	47
unbound-global-exception-variable .....	83
unbound-global-exception? .....	83
unbound-os-environment-variable-exception-arguments .....	74
unbound-os-environment-variable-exception-procedure .....	74
unbound-os-environment-variable-exception? .....	74
unbreak .....	25
uncaught-exception-arguments .....	77

uncaught-exception-procedure .....	77
uncaught-exception-reason .....	77
uncaught-exception? .....	77
unknown-keyword-argument-exception-arguments .....	88
unknown-keyword-argument-exception-procedure .....	88
unknown-keyword-argument-exception? .....	88
untrace .....	23
user-info .....	102
user-info-gid .....	102
user-info-home .....	103
user-info-name .....	102
user-info-shell .....	103
user-info-uid .....	102
user-info? .....	102

## V

void .....	34
------------	----

## W

will-execute! .....	33
will-testator .....	33
will? .....	33
with-exception-catcher .....	71
with-exception-handler .....	70
with-input-from-file .....	115
with-input-from-string .....	123
with-input-from-u8vector .....	123
with-input-from-vector .....	120
with-output-to-file .....	115
with-output-to-string .....	123
with-output-to-u8vector .....	123
with-output-to-vector .....	120
write .....	107
write-byte .....	114
write-char .....	111
write-substring .....	111
write-subu8vector .....	114
wrong-number-of-arguments-exception-arguments .....	86
wrong-number-of-arguments-exception-procedure .....	86
wrong-number-of-arguments-exception? .....	86

# Table of Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>The Gambit-C system .....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1	Accessing the system files .....	1
<b>2</b>	<b>The Gambit Scheme interpreter .....</b>	<b>2</b>
2.1	Interactive mode .....	2
2.2	Batch mode .....	3
2.3	Customization .....	3
2.4	Process exit status .....	4
2.5	Scheme scripts .....	4
2.5.1	Scripts under UNIX and Mac OS X .....	5
2.5.2	Scripts under Microsoft Windows .....	6
<b>3</b>	<b>The Gambit Scheme compiler .....</b>	<b>7</b>
3.1	Interactive mode .....	7
3.2	Customization .....	7
3.3	Batch mode .....	7
3.4	Link files .....	10
3.4.1	Building an executable program .....	10
3.4.2	Building a loadable library .....	11
3.4.3	Building a shared-library .....	13
3.4.4	Other compilation options .....	13
3.5	Procedures specific to compiler .....	14
<b>4</b>	<b>Runtime options for all programs .....</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>Debugging .....</b>	<b>19</b>
5.1	Debugging model .....	19
5.2	Debugging commands .....	20
5.3	Procedures related to debugging .....	23
5.4	Console line-editing .....	28
5.5	Emacs interface .....	29
5.6	IDE .....	30
<b>6</b>	<b>Scheme extensions .....</b>	<b>31</b>
6.1	Extensions to standard procedures .....	31
6.2	Extensions to standard special forms .....	31
6.3	Miscellaneous extensions .....	32
<b>7</b>	<b>Characters and strings .....</b>	<b>38</b>
7.1	Extensions to character procedures .....	38
7.2	Extensions to string procedures .....	38

<b>8</b>	<b>Numbers</b>	<b>40</b>
8.1	Extensions to numeric procedures	40
8.2	IEEE floating point arithmetic	40
8.3	Integer square root and nth root	40
8.4	Bitwise-operations on exact integers	41
8.5	Pseudo random numbers	44
<b>9</b>	<b>Homogeneous vectors</b>	<b>47</b>
<b>10</b>	<b>Records</b>	<b>51</b>
<b>11</b>	<b>Threads</b>	<b>52</b>
11.1	Introduction	52
11.2	Thread objects	52
11.3	Mutex objects	52
11.4	Condition variable objects	53
11.5	Fairness	53
11.6	Memory coherency	54
11.7	Timeouts	54
11.8	Primordial thread	55
11.9	Procedures	55
<b>12</b>	<b>Dynamic environment</b>	<b>67</b>
<b>13</b>	<b>Exceptions</b>	<b>70</b>
13.1	Exception-handling	70
13.2	Exception objects related to memory management	72
13.3	Exception objects related to the host environment	73
13.4	Exception objects related to threads	75
13.5	Exception objects related to C-interface	78
13.6	Exception objects related to the reader	81
13.7	Exception objects related to evaluation and compilation	82
13.8	Exception objects related to type checking	84
13.9	Exception objects related to procedure call	86
13.10	Other exception objects	89

<b>14</b>	<b>Host environment</b>	<b>90</b>
14.1	Handling of file names	90
14.2	Filesystem operations	92
14.3	Shell command execution	94
14.4	Process termination	95
14.5	Command line arguments	95
14.6	Environment variables	95
14.7	Measuring time	96
14.8	File information	97
14.9	Group information	101
14.10	User information	102
14.11	Host information	103
<b>15</b>	<b>I/O and ports</b>	<b>105</b>
15.1	Unidirectional and bidirectional ports	105
15.2	Port classes	105
15.3	Port settings	106
15.4	Object-ports	106
15.4.1	Object-port settings	106
15.4.2	Object-port operations	106
15.5	Character-ports	109
15.5.1	Character-port settings	109
15.5.2	Character-port operations	110
15.6	Byte-ports	112
15.6.1	Byte-port settings	112
15.6.2	Byte-port operations	114
15.7	Device-ports	115
15.7.1	Filesystem devices	115
15.7.2	Process devices	116
15.7.3	Network devices	117
15.8	Directory-ports	119
15.9	Vector-ports	120
15.10	String-ports	122
15.11	U8vector-ports	123
15.12	Parameter objects related to I/O	123
<b>16</b>	<b>Lexical syntax and readtables</b>	<b>125</b>
16.1	Readtables	125
16.2	Boolean syntax	131
16.3	Character syntax	131
16.4	String syntax	132
16.5	Symbol syntax	132
16.6	Keyword syntax	132
16.7	Number syntax	133
16.8	Homogeneous vector syntax	133
16.9	Special #! syntax	133
16.10	Multiline comment syntax	133



16.11	Scheme infix syntax extension .....	133
16.11.1	SIX grammar .....	134
16.11.2	SIX semantics .....	139
<b>17</b>	<b>C-interface .....</b>	<b>141</b>
17.1	The mapping of types between C and Scheme .....	141
17.2	The <code>c-declare</code> special form .....	148
17.3	The <code>c-initialize</code> special form .....	149
17.4	The <code>c-lambda</code> special form .....	149
17.5	The <code>c-define</code> special form .....	150
17.6	The <code>c-define-type</code> special form .....	151
17.7	Continuations and the C-interface .....	158
<b>18</b>	<b>System limitations .....</b>	<b>160</b>
<b>19</b>	<b>Copyright and license .....</b>	<b>161</b>
	<b>General index .....</b>	<b>165</b>