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Overview of NAP (N-Dimensional Array Processor)

NAP is a loadable extension of Tcl which provides a powerful and efficient facility for processing data in the form of n-dimensional arrays. It has been designed to provide a tcl-flavoured array-processing facility with much of the functionality of languages such as <u>APL</u>, <u>Fortran-90</u>, <u>IDL</u>, <u>J</u>, <u>matlab</u> and <u>octave</u>. Three other tcl extensions which provide array-processing facilities are <u>TiM</u>, <u>BLT</u> and <u>Tk3D</u>.

Existing Tcl facilities (e.g. Tcl variables and procedures) are used where appropriate. The new facilities have been designed to match similar existing ones. In particular, NAP expressions use conventions which are essentially a superset of those of the Tcl expr command. Support is provided for data based on *n-dimensional grids*, where the dimensions correspond to continuous spatial coordinates. There are interfaces to the <u>HDF</u> and <u>netCDF</u> file formats commonly used for such data, especially in Earth sciences such as Oceanography and Meteorology. There is a new photo image format for NAP data.

NAP was developed as part of the CSIRO <u>CAPS</u> project, but can be loaded and used without the (satellite oriented) CAPS extension. However the CAPS extension requires NAP since most CAPS data are stored as NAOs.

Data are stored in memory as *n*-dimensional array objects (NAOs), which include information such as:

- data-type
- unique ID (handle generated by NAP) called the *OOC-name* (OOCs are discussed below)
- optional label
- optional unit of measure
- reference count (allowing automatic deletion of the NAO when it is no longer needed)
- optional missing-value (used to indicate undefined data, etc.)
- rank (number of dimensions)
- dimension sizes
- optional dimension names
- optional pointers to coordinate-variable NAOs associated with each dimension

There are eleven data-types, six for integers, two for floating-point, one for characters, one *pointer* type (allowing arrays of arrays) and a *ragged* type providing a form of compression.

NAOs are created by the Tcl commands nap and nap_get.

The nap command takes arguments specifying an expression in a manner similar to the expr command. However, unlike expr, nap provides:

• array facilities (constants, operators, functions, indexing)

- assignment (to a Tcl variable whose value is set to the OOC-name of the resultant NAO)
- substitution of Tcl names (obviating the need for "\$" prefixes)

The nap_get command creates a NAO from data read from a binary, HDF or netCDF file.

Every NAO has an associated Tcl command called an *object-oriented command (OOC)*. This is used to:

- display the data in the NAO
- display other information about the NAO such as its data-type and dimensions
- change data and other details
- write data from the NAO to a binary, HDF or netCDF file

As usual in Tcl, OOC and nap_get command options can be abbreviated provided there is no ambiguity.

NAP provides many operators and built-in functions. One can define new functions by defining Tcl procedures with the proc command. It is also possible to call functions written in C and Fortran.

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Installing NAP

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Introduction

The graphics procedure plot_nao uses the **printer** extension. The following instructions explain how to install these three extensions with **Tcl/Tk**.

Installing TcI/Tk

Download Tcl/Tk from ActiveState Tcl Downloads. Installation instructions are available from this site.

Installing Printer

Download **print(er)** from Michael Schwartz's <u>Tcl/Tk Extensions & Information Page</u>. Select **Print**, then press the **i** information button. For windows, select the .zip file matching your version of Tcl and unzip it into directory lib. (There are instructions in file printer/install.txt.) For unix, select the link labelled **Unix**, giving file printUnix.tar.gz and unpack it into directory lib using a command such as

```
zcat printUnix.tar.gz | tar -xvf -
```

Installing nap

Download **nap** from <u>Tcl-NAP Files</u>. Binary installation files are available for:

Operating System	Processor
Irix 64	SGI MIPS
Linux	Intel 386

SunOS 5.8	Sun sparc
Windows	Intel 386

(There is also a source file for those who want to access the source without using CVS.) All these files have the extension .tgz, which means they were created using tar, then compressed using gzip. They can be directly unpacked using many recent versions of **tar** and Windows programs such as **WinZip**. Unix users can also use:

```
zcat nap*src.tgz | tar -xvf -
```

You should unpack into the Tcl root directory (parent of bin and lib).

It is convenient to include the following

```
package require nap
namespace import ::NAP::*
```

in your startup file, which is normally stored in your home directory with the following name:

Operating System	telsh	wish	tkcon
Windows	tclshrc.	wishrc.	tkcon.
Unix	.tclshrc	.wishrc	.tkconrc

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NAP Sample Session

The following sample session illustrates some basic features of NAP. The input command lines begin with the standard Tcl prompt "%".

```
% nap "x = {2 2.5 5}"
::NAP::13-13
% nap "y = x * x"
::NAP::14-14
% $y
4 6.25 25
```

The first command assigns to x a vector containing the three elements 2, 2.5 and 5. The second command assigns to y a vector containing the three elements which are the squares of the corresponding elements of x. The command "y" returns the value of y.

Nap stores each variable in memory using a data-structure called an *n-dimensional array object (NAO)*. Each NAO has an associated Tcl command called its *object-oriented command (OOC)* which is used to

- obtain data and other information from the NAO
- write data from the NAO to files
- modify the NAO.

An OOC-name (command-name of an OOC) is used

- to execute the OOC (like any other Tcl command)
- as a unique identifier for the NAO associated with the OOC.

An OOC-name has the form ::NAP::seq-slot, where

- ::NAP:: is the Tcl namespace used by NAP
- seq is the sequence number assigned in order of creation
- *slot* is the index of an internal table used to provide fast access.

In the above example, both OOC-names (::NAP::13-13 and ::NAP::14-14) have slots equal to their sequence number, but this is not the case in general since the slots of deleted NAOs may be reused.

An assignment ("=") operator has on its left a standard Tcl variable name which is assigned the (string) value of the OOC-name. Continuing the above example, these string values can be displayed using the standard Tcl command set.

```
% set x
::NAP::13-13
% set y
```

```
::NAP::14-14
```

Thus the command "\$y" is equivalent to the command "::NAP::14-14". Confirming this:

```
% ::NAP::14-14
4 6.25 25
```

If an OOC has no arguments (as above) then it returns the value of the NAO (abbreviated if the NAO is large). Arguments can be specified as in:

```
% $x all
::NAP::13-13 f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 1 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 3 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
2 2.5 5
```

This illustrates the "all" *method* (sub-command), which provides a more detailed description of the NAO than the default method. The following example uses the "set value" method to change the value of element 1 of x from 6.25 to 7.

The similarity between the "expr" and "nap" commands for simple arithmetic is shown by:

```
% expr "2 * (1 - 0.25)"
1.5
% nap "2 * (1 - 0.25)"
::NAP::25-25
% ::NAP::25-25
```

```
NAP Sample Session
```

```
1.5
% ::NAP::25-25
invalid command name "::NAP::25-25"
```

Note that the command "::NAP::25-25" worked the first time but failed when it was repeated. The NAOs reference count was zero, as it was not referenced by anything (e.g. a Tcl variable). So the NAO and its associated OOC were automatically deleted after the first execution of the OOC.

The need to type the additional command "::NAP::25-25" can be obviated using the Tcl bracket ("[]") notation. Tcl executes the bracketed command, substitutes its result and then executes the generated command. So the above can be replaced by:

```
% [nap "2 * (1 - 0.25)"]
1.5
```

The following example illustrates *array indexing* and the calculation of an *arithmetic-mean* (both directly and by defining a function). The first two commands:

- define a 32-bit floating-point vector containing the five values 56, 75, 47, 99 and 49
- assign it to the variable score
- display it

```
% nap "score = f32{56 75 47 99 49}"
::NAP::16-16
% $score all
::NAP::16-16 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 1 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 5 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
56 75 47 99 49
```

The following four commands respectively illustrate:

- 1. indexing a vector by a scalar "2" to give a scalar
- 2. indexing a vector by a vector "{2 0 4}" to give a vector
- 3. the operator "..." which defines an arithmetic progression
- 4. the use of such an arithmetic progression as an index

```
% [nap "score(2)"] all
::NAP::20-20 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Value:
47
% [nap "score({2 0 4})"] all
```

```
::NAP::25-25 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 3 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
47 56 49
% [nap "0 .. 3"]
0 1 2 3
% [nap "score(0 .. 3)"]
56 75 47 99
```

The following three commands respectively illustrate:

- 1. function sum, which has the functionality of mathematical " Σ "
- 2. function count, which gives the number of non-missing elements
- 3. the use of these functions to calculate an arithmetic-mean

```
% [nap "sum(score)"]
326
% [nap "count(score)"]
5
% [nap "sum(score) / count(score)"]
65.2
```

The following two commands respectively illustrate:

- 1. the definition of a tcl procedure to calculate an arithmetic-mean using NAP
- 2. the calling of this procedure as a NAP function

```
% proc mean x {nap "sum(x)/count(x)"}
% [nap "mean(score)"]
65.2
```

Procedures defining NAP functions have arguments and results which are OOC-names. All the facilities of Tcl and NAP can be used. So recursion is allowed, as shown by the following *factorial* example:

```
% proc factorial n {
    if {[[nap "n > 1"]]} {
        nap "n * factorial(n-1)"
    } else {
        nap "1"
    }
}
{    [nap "factorial(4)"]
```

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Note the double brackets (inside braces) in the first line of the body of the above procedure. The inner brackets produce an OOC-name. The outer brackets execute this OOC to produce the string "0" or "1".

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Typographic Conventions

Consider the following example: count (x[, r])

The font used for "count (,)" indicates this is *literal text*. In other words this is exactly what appears on the screen (which could be either output or typed input). Note that "x" and "r" are in italics (with slanted font), which indicates these are *formal argument names* rather than literal text. You replace such names with whatever is desired.

Optional arguments are indicated using two alternative conventions. In the above example they are enclosed in brackets, indicating that ", r" is optional. This convention is common in computing documentation. Use has also been made of the the alternative (commonly used in Tcl documentation) of surrounding the optional component with question marks. For example: count (x?, r?)

Alternatives are indicated with a vertical bar "|", as in the following: nap_info bytes|sequence which indicates that the argument can be either "bytes" or "sequence".

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Data Models

A data model is a mental model of the nature of some data. It answers such questions as the following:

What values can the data take?

Are they all numeric? Are they all integers? Is the set of possible values finite? What are the minimum and maximum possible values? Are ∞ and NaN possible values? Do some values have special meanings, such as indicating undefined or missing data?

What is the measurement level?

Data is often classified as follows according to *measurement level*:

Name of Level	Description	Valid Operations	Appropriate Measure of Central Tendency	Examples
nominal	values denote categories which have no order	= ≠	mode	color, postal code (e.g. zip) chemical species (e.g. CO ₂)
ordinal	values are ordered differences meaningless	= ≠ < ≤ > ≥	median	Richter earthquake scale dates in form YYYYMMDD
interval	differences are valid quotients meaningless	= ≠ < ≤ > ≥ + −	arithmetic mean	temperature in °C
ratio	quotients are valid	= ≠ < ≤ > ≥ + - × ÷	geometric mean	temperature in °K

How accurate are the values?

A *measurement error* is the difference between the *true value* and the *measured value*. Measured values can differ from true values due to:

- finite precision of instrument
- systematic errors (e.g. inadequately calibrated instrument)
- random errors (due to finite size of sample)
- sampling errors (due to non-randomness of sample)
- blunders (e.g. a human misreading an instrument)

It is desirable to include error estimates with data.

Are the data located in some space?

A *time series* consists of values located along the time dimension. *Geographic* data is located along spatial dimensions such as latitude, longitude and altitude and may also have a time dimension. Note that longitude is *cyclic*.

The dimensions of the space can have a measurement level of *nominal*. For example, an accounting spreadsheet might have columns corresponding to *charge codes* and rows corresponding to *company divisions*.

Data located in a continuous space can be either *gridded* or *scattered*. Both types are discussed in NAP Grids.

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Grids

Traditional array-processors, such as APL, are based on a data-model which has discrete dimensions whose corresponding subscripts take integer values. NAP handles such traditional arrays in the traditional manner. However NAP is based on a more general data-model which also allows non-integer subscript values. These values represent distances along dimensions which often correspond to the physical dimensions of spacio-temporal spaces, which are of course continuous.

If desired, a dimension can have an associated variable called the *coordinate variable*. This is a vector which defines a piecewise-linear mapping from subscript to physical dimension.

Data in a continuous space with two or more dimensions can be either *gridded* or *scattered*. NAP's data-model (with continuous subscripts, coordinate variables, etc.) facilitates the processing of gridded data.

Let us consider the case of two dimensions i.e. matrices. Two-dimensional *gridded* data is aligned in rows and columns, whereas *scattered* data is not. The following examples are intended to illustrate the difference between *scattered* and *gridded* 2D data.

Example of Scattered 2D Data (Not a Grid)

Note that the data are not aligned in rows and columns.

•

Example of 2D Grid

The following example has the grid in black. The blue point is not on the grid and has non-integer subscript values (2.1, 1.6). The coordinate variables are latitude and longitude.

column	0	1	1.6	2	3	4
longitude	30°E	40°E	52°E	60°E	65°E	75

row	latitude						
0	30°N	•	•		•	•	•
1	25°N	•	•		•	•	•
2	10°N	•	•		•	•	•
2.1	8°N			•			
3	10°S	•	•		•	•	•

Missing Data

The NAP data model allows any element of an array to have a value which is a *missing-value*. Such elements are considered null or missing and are treated specially in operations such as arithmetic. Thus adding a missing value to anything produces a missing value.

The following example is similar to that above. However four grid points are missing. These are shown in red.

		column	0	1	1.6	2	3	4
		longitude	30°E	40°E	52°E	60°E	65°E	75°E
row	latitude							
0	30°N		•	•		•	•	•
1	25°N		•	•		•	•	•
2	10°N		•	•		•	•	•
2.1	8°N				•			
3	10°S		•	•		•	•	•

The missing points are treated as if they did not exist, as shown in the following:

column	0	1	1.6	2	3	4
longitude	30°E	40°E	52°E	60°E	65°E	75°E
ıde						
°N	•	•		•		•
°N	•	•		•	•	•
°N		•		•	•	
°N			•			
	longitude on one of the longit	longitude 30°E ide °N °N °N	longitude	longitude 30°E 40°E 52°E ide	longitude 30°E 40°E 52°E 60°E	longitude 30°E 40°E 52°E 60°E 65°E ide

- 1						
	3	10°S	•	•	•	•

It would be possible to represent scattered data by a grid with many missing points. In the extreme, each scattered point would have its own row and its own column. There would be only one non-missing point in each row. There would be only one non-missing point in each column. Of course this would be very inefficient for a matrix of significant size.

Processing Scattered Data

NAP has no facilities for directly processing scattered data. However it is possible to define a grid from scattered data. This can be done by

- defining a least-squares best-fit n-dimensional surface and then using this to define the grid values
- using Delaunay triangulation (not yet implemented)

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Terminology

Arrays

scalar

array with 0 dimensions i.e. a simple number, character, etc.

vector

array with 1 dimension.

matrix

array with 2 dimensions.

dimension-size

number of values along a dimension.

shape

vector of dimension-sizes of array.

rank

number of dimensions (a.k.a. dimensionality) i.e. shape of shape.

row

final (least-significant) dimension

columns

number of elements in each row

dimension-name

name given to dimension e.g. "latitude".

coordinate-variable (CV)

vector (usually sorted) associated with a dimension of the same size. CVs are often used to map an array's dimensions to physical dimensions such as length and time, thus locating the array elements in physical space and time.

Special Numeric Values

missing-value (MV)

numeric value of data which is abnormal in some way such as:

- not applicable (e.g. land point for ocean data)
- not available (e.g. instrument failure or delay in obtaining data)
- result of some illegal operation such as dividing 0 by 0
- undefined for some other reason

infinity

floating-point value representing a value which is too large (or small in the case of negative infinity) to represent. This can result from operations such as dividing by 0.

NaN (not-a-number)

floating-point value resulting from an illegal operation such as dividing 0 by 0.

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The nap command

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- 2. Substitution
- 3. Namespaces
- 4. <u>Functions</u>
- 5. Indexing
- 6. Parenthesising Function Arguments and Indexes

Introduction

The standard Tcl command "expr" is based on C conventions for operators and functions. NAP expressions use similar conventions and can include any of the following tokens separated by whitespace characters:

- Operands
 - o OOC-names
 - o names of Tcl variables (may include namespaces)
 - o constants
 - numeric scalar
 - numeric array
 - string
- Operators (including assignment operator "=")
- Parentheses ("()")
- Function names
 - o built-in functions
 - o names (may include namespaces) of Tcl procedures defining NAP functions
- Tcl substitution characters ("[]\$")

If the nap command has multiple arguments then these are concatenated. Thus it is not always necessary to enclose the expression by quote (") characters, but this practice is recommended because it

- prevents Tcl from removing braces ({ })
- allows standard Tcl (\$[]) substitution within braces
- allows multi-line expressions.

Substitution

Like "expr", nap does the Tcl substitution defined by any brackets and dollars ("[]\$") remaining after normal command parsing.

However, unlike "expr", nap also substitutes for Tcl variable names that are not preceded by a "\$" (except where the name is the left operand of the assignment operator "="). The value of the Tcl name is treated as a NAP expression, which is evaluated and the OOC-name of the result replaces the name. This substitution is repeated (up to eight times) until a single OOC-name is generated. The expressions in the following example include:

- Tcl variable length containing the string "3.5"
- Tcl variable breadth defined by NAP to contain "::NAP::13-13"
- NAP constants 2 and 10
- Tcl variable area containing the string "length * breadth"

```
% set length 3.5
3.5
% nap "breadth = 2"
::NAP::13-13
% [nap "2 * (length + breadth)"]
11
% set area "length * breadth"
length * breadth
% [nap "10 * area"]
70
```

Each constant is replaced by the OOC-name of a NAO representing its value. After substitution, the expression consists of OOC-names, operators, function names and parentheses.

Namespaces

NAP allows names which include namespaces, as in:

```
% namespace eval ::mySpace {}; # create namespace "mySpace"
% nap "::mySpace::x = 8"
::NAP::13-13
% [nap "3 + ::mySpace::x"]
11
```

Functions

Function arguments can be enclosed by parentheses (as required by many other languages), but these

parentheses are not required by the syntax. A name (which cannot be a Tcl variable name or it would have been substituted) followed by a OOC-name is treated as a function name. Thus the following two commands are equivalent:

```
% [nap "sin(3.14)"]
0.00159265
% [nap "sin 3.14"]
0.00159265
```

Indexing

Tcl array indices are enclosed by parentheses ("()"), while C uses brackets ("[]"). NAP requires neither, since indexing is simply implied by adjacent OOC-names. Thus the following two commands (which give elements 1, 0, 2 and 0 of the vector {5 7 6}) are equivalent:

```
% [nap "{5 7 6}({1 0 2 0})"]
7 5 6 5
% [nap "{5 7 6}{1 0 2 0}"]
7 5 6 5
```

Parenthesising Function Arguments and Indexes

As explained above, there is no syntactic need for parentheses around single function arguments and array indices. However, since most other computer languages do require such parentheses, it may aid human readability to include them.

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Reading Files using nap_get Command

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- 3. Reading netCDF Data
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- 5. Listing Names of Variables/SDSs and Attributes in HDF and netCDF Files
- 6. Reading Metadata from HDF and netCDF Files

Introduction

The nap_get command creates a NAO containing data read from a file. The first argument specifies the type of file, which can be binary, hdf, netcdf or swap.

<u>HDF</u> and <u>netCDF</u> are similar array-oriented file formats which are popular in earth sciences such as meteorology and oceanography. (The new HDF5 format is not currently supported.) Such files contain data referenced by symbol tables containing the names, data-types and dimensions of variables. Each variable can also have attributes such as a label, a unit of measure and a missing-value. Note the similarity between these items and those in a NAO.

Reading Binary Data

Binary data is read using the command nap_get binary channel [datatype [shape]] where datatype defaults to u8 and shape defaults to a vector corresponding to the file size.

The command

```
nap_get swap channel [datatype [shape]] is similar, except that bytes are swapped. This enables reading of data written on a machine with opposite byte-order within words.
```

The following example first writes six 32-bit floating-point values to a file using standard Tcl commands. It then reads them back into a NAO named "in" using "nap_get binary":

```
% set file [open float.dat w]
file6
% puts -nonewline $file [binary format f* {1.5 -3 0 2 4 5}]
```

```
% close $file
% set file [open float.dat]
file6
% nap "in = [nap_get binary $file f32]"
::NAP::22-22
% close $file
% $in all
::NAP::22-22 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 1 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 6 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
1.5 -3 0 2 4 5
```

Note that no shape was specified, giving a 6-element vector. The following example reads the file again, this time specifying a shape of {2 3}. The NAO is displayed but not saved.

```
% set file [open float.dat]
file6
% [nap_get binary $file f32 "{2 3}"] all
::NAP::32-32 f32
                  MissingValue: NaN
                                     References: 0
                                                   Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0
             Size: 2
                          Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 1
             Size: 3
                          Name: (NULL)
                                          Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
1.5 -3.0 0.0
2.0 4.0 5.0
% close $file
```

Reading netCDF Data

nap_get

NetCDF data is read using the command nap_get netcdf *filename name* [*index* [*raw*]]

name is the name of a variable or attribute and has the form

- *varname* for a variable
- varname: attribute for an attribute of a variable
- : attribute for a global attribute

If *index* is omitted then the entire variable is read in. Otherwise *index* selects using cross-product indexing.

If raw is 1 then the result contains raw data read from the file. If raw is 0 (default) then this data is transformed using the attributes scale_factor, add_offset, valid_min, valid_max and

valid_range if any of these are present.

The following example first creates a netCDF file using the netCDF utility ncgen. There is one variable called vec. It is a 3-element 32-bit integer vector with elements 6, -9 and 4. The data is read into a NAO called v using nap_get netcdf.

```
% exec ncgen -b << {</pre>
    netcdf int {
        dimensions:
            n = 3 ;
        variables:
            int vec(n);
        data:
            vec = 6, -9, 4;
    }
% nap "v = [nap_get netcdf int.nc vec]"
::NAP::52-52
% $v all
::NAP::52-52
              i32
                   MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 1 Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0
              Size: 3
                                             Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
                            Name: n
Value:
6 - 9 4
```

The following example specifies the index $\{0\ 2\}$ to select the first and third elements:

```
% [nap_get netcdf int.nc vec "{0 2}"] all
::NAP::58-58 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0 Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 2 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
6 4
```

Reading HDF Data

HDF data is read using the command nap_get hdf filename name [index [raw]]

name is the name of an SDS or attribute and has the form

- *sdsname* for a SDS
- sdsname: attribute for an attribute of a SDS

• : attribute for a global attribute

If *index* is omitted then the entire SDS is read in. Otherwise *index* selects using cross-product indexing.

If raw is 1 then the result contains raw data read from the file. If raw is 0 (default) then this data is transformed using the attributes scale_factor, add_offset, valid_min, valid_max and valid_range if any of these are present.

The following example writes data to an HDF file using the OOC hdf method. Then nap_get hdf reads the data back into a temporary NAO which is deleted after being displayed:

```
% [nap "f64{{1 0 9}{3#-1}}"] hdf mat.hdf mat64
% [nap_get hdf mat.hdf mat64] all
::NAP::74-74 f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 2 Name: fakeDim0 Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 1 Size: 3 Name: fakeDim1 Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
    1 0 9
-1 -1 -1
```

Listing Names of Variables/SDSs and Attributes in HDF and netCDF Files

One can list the names of variables/SDSs and attributes matching a regular expression *RE* using the command

```
nap_get hdf -list filename [RE]
or
nap_get netcdf -list filename [RE]
```

All variables/SDSs and attributes are listed if *RE* is omitted. For example, using the HDF file created above:

```
% nap_get hdf -list mat.hdf
mat64
mat64:_FillValue
```

Some useful regular expressions are

Regular Expression	Select all:
^[^:]*\$	variables
:	attributes
1	1

^:	global attributes
.:	non-global attributes

Thus we can restrict the above list to SDSs only using:

```
% nap_get hdf -list mat.hdf {^[^:]*$}
mat64
```

Reading Metadata from HDF and netCDF Files

```
The command

nap_get hdf -datatype filename sdsname

or

nap_get netcdf -datatype filename varname

returns the data-type of a specified variable/SDS in the specified file.
```

The command

```
nap_get hdf -rank filename sdsname
or
nap_get netcdf -rank filename varname
returns the rank (number of dimensions) of a specified variable/SDS in the specified file.
```

The command

```
nap_get hdf -shape filename sdsname
or
nap_get netcdf -shape filename varname
returns the shape (dimension sizes) of a specified variable/SDS in the specified file.
```

The command

```
nap_get hdf -dimension filename sdsname or nap_get netcdf -dimension filename varname returns the dimension names of a specified variable/SDS in the specified file.
```

The command

```
nap_get hdf -coordinate filename sdsname or nap_get netcdf -coordinate filename varname dim_name|dim_number returns the name of the coordinate variable corresponding to a specified dimension of a specified variable/SDS in the specified file.
```

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The nap_info Command

The nap_info command provides information about the NAP system. There are two variants which are shown in the following example:

```
% nap_info bytes
1300 1640
% nap_info sequence
15
```

The command "nap_info bytes" returns two numbers:

- current number of bytes of memory being used by NAOs (1300 in above example)
- maximum number of bytes used at any time so far(1640 in above example)

The command "nap_info sequence" returns the sequence-number of the most recently created NAO.

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NAP Object-Oriented Commands (OOCs)

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Introduction

Object-Oriented Commands (OOCs) are used to

- display the data in a NAO
- display other information (metadata e.g. data-type, dimensions) about a NAO
- change data or other aspects of a NAO
- write data from a NAO to a file, etc.

Methods which return Data Values (with or without metadata)

Method all

```
ooc_name all-format format -columns int-lines int-missing text-keep
```

This provides both data and metadata from a NAO. However it does not provide *all* information despite the name!

```
The following switches are allowed:
```

- -format format: C format (default: "" meaning automatic)
- -columns int: maximum # columns (default: 6) (-1: no limit)
- -lines *int*: maximum # lines (default: 20) (-1: no limit)
- -list: print in tel list form (using braces) e.g. "{1 9 2}"
- -missing text: text printed for missing value (default: "_")
- -keep: Do not delete NAO with reference count of 0

The all method provides the same information as the two commands:

```
ooc_name header
ooc_name value -format format -columns int -lines int -missing text
```

Example:

```
% [nap "{3#2 2#_ -9}"] all -miss n/a
::NAP::39-39 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0 Unit:
```

```
(NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 6 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
```

Method value

2 2 2 n/a n/a -9

NAP OOCs

```
ooc_name value -format format -columns int -lines int -missing text -keep
```

This returns data values. The default value is -1 for both the switches -columns and -lines, giving the entire array.

The following switches are allowed:

```
-format format: C format (default: "" meaning automatic)
-columns int: maximum # columns (default: -1 i.e. no limit)
-lines int: maximum # lines (default: -1 i.e. no limit)
-list: print in tcl list form (using braces) e.g. "{1 9 2}"
-missing text: text printed for missing value (default: "_")
```

-keep: Do not delete NAO with reference count of 0

The following example begins with the definition of vectors "x" and "y" for use in this and subsequent examples:

```
% nap "x = 0 .. 2 ... 0.5"
::NAP::58-58
% nap "y = x ** 2"
::NAP::61-61
% $y val -format %0.3f
0.000 0.250 1.000 2.250 4.000
```

Default method

```
ooc_name -format format -columns int -lines int -missing text -keep
```

This returns data values in a similar fashion to the value method, except that default line and column limits restrict the size.

The following switches are allowed:

```
-format format: C format (default: " " meaning automatic)
-columns int: maximum # columns (default: 6) (-1: no limit)
-lines int: maximum # lines (default: 20) (-1: no limit)
-list: print in tcl list form (using braces) e.g. "{1 9 2}"
```

```
-missing text: text printed for missing value (default: "_") -keep: Do not delete NAO with reference count of 0
```

The following example shows why and how to use switch -columns (abbreviated to -c):

```
% \text{ nap "m} = \text{reshape}(0 ... 99, \{10 12\})"
::NAP::50-50
% $m
    1
       2
           3
              4
                 5 ..
12 13 14 15 16 17 ...
24 25 26 27 28
                29
36 37 38 39 40 41
48 49 50 51 52 53
60 61 62 63 64 65
72 73 74 75 76 77
84 85 86 87 88 89
96 97 98 99
              0
                 1
    9 10 11 12 13
% $m -c -1
       2
           3
    1
              4
                 5
                    6
                        7
                           8
                              9 10 11
12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23
24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35
36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47
48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57
60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69
                                 70 71
72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81
84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93
96 97 98 99
              0
                1
                    2
                        3
                           4
                              5
                                    7
```

The following example shows how to use switch -format (abbreviated to -f) to include a dollar prefix and display two decimal places:

```
% [nap "{15 3.2 999}"] -f {$%.2f}
$15.00 $3.20 $999.00
```

The following example shows how to use switch -list:

9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19

```
% [nap "reshape(1.5 .. -1.5, {2 5})"] -list
{
    1.5    0.5 -0.5 -1.5    1.5 }
{    0.5 -0.5 -1.5    1.5 }
```

Format Conversion Strings

The -format option specifies a *format conversion string* similar to that used in the standard Tcl format command (which is based on the ANSI C sprintf() function). Such strings have the form %[flags][width][.precision]char where:

- flags is a string containing any of the following characters in any order:
 - -: left justify
 - +: include sign

space: include space prefix if no sign

- 0: leading zeros
- #: alternate form
- width is the minimum field width
- precision is the
 - o minimum number of digits for d, i, o, x, X or u conversions.
 - o number of digits after "." for e, E or f conversions.
 - o number of significant digits for g or G conversions.
- *char* specifies conversion as in the following table:

char	Convert to					
d, i	signed decimal integer					
0	unsigned octal integer					
х, Х	unsigned hexadecimal integer					
u	unsigned decimal integer					
С	character					
f	decimal number in form [-]mmm.ddd, where number of ds is specified by the precision. Default precision is 6; precision of 0 suppresses the ".".					
e, E	decimal number in form $[-]m \cdot dddddde \pm xx$ or $[-]m \cdot dddddE$ $\pm xx$, where number of ds is specified by the $precision$. Default $precision$ is 6; $precision$ of 0 suppresses the ".".					
g,	%e or %E are used if <i>exponent</i> < −4 or <i>exponent</i> ≥ <i>precision</i> ; otherwise %f is used. Trailing zeros and decimal points are suppressed.					

The following example displays the same data using each of these codes. Note that (unlike C and the standard Tcl format command) any data-type can be displayed with any code.

```
% foreach code {d i o x X u c f E e g G} {
    puts "$code: [[nap "88 .. 92"] -f "%$code"]"
}
d: 88 89 90 91 92
i: 88 89 90 91 92
o: 130 131 132 133 134
x: 58 59 5a 5b 5c
X: 58 59 5A 5B 5C
u: 88 89 90 91 92
c: XYZ[\
f: 88.000000 89.000000 90.000000 91.000000 92.000000
E: 8.800000E+01 8.900000E+01 9.000000E+01 9.100000E+01 9.200000E+01
e: 8.800000e+01 8.900000e+01 9.000000e+01 9.100000e+01 9.200000E+01
g: 88 89 90 91 92
G: 88 89 90 91 92
```

Methods which return Metadata

Method coordinate

ooc_name coordinate?dim_name|dim_number??dim_name|dim_number?...

This returns the OOC-names of the coordinate variables of selected dimensions. If no dimensions are specified then the effect is the same as:

```
ooc_name coo 0 1 2 ... rank-1"
```

Example:

```
% $y set coo x
% $y coo
::NAP::58-58
% [$y coo]
0 0.5 1 1.5 2
```

Method count

```
ooc_name count -keep
```

This returns the reference count.

Example (using x defined in previous example):

```
% $x count
2
```

Note that the reference count is 2 because this NAO is referenced by both

- Tcl variable x
- coordinate variable pointer of NAO :: NAP :: 61-61

Method datatype

```
ooc_name datatype
```

This returns the data-type.

Example:

```
% [nap "'hello'"] dat
c8
```

Method dimension

```
ooc_name dimension ?dim_number? ?dim_number? ...
```

This returns the dimension names.

```
ooc_name di
is equivalent to:
ooc_name di 0 1 2 ... rank-1"
```

Example (again continuing above example):

```
% $y dim
×
```

Method header

```
ooc_name header -keep
```

NAP OOCs This returns similar information to the following (but using a different format): ooc_name ooc ooc_name datatype ooc_name missing ooc_name count ooc_name unit ooc_name shape ooc_name dimension ooc_name coordinate Example (continuing above example): % \$y header ::NAP::61-61 f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 1 Unit: (NULL) Dimension 0 Size: 5 Name: x Coordinate-variable: :: NAP::58-58 Method label ooc_name label This returns the label (title, etc.) of the NAO. Example: % \$y set label "areas of squares" % \$y label areas of squares Method link ooc_name link This returns the OOC-name of the link NAO.

% \$y set link [nap 42]

Example:

42

% [\$y link]

Method missing

```
ooc_name missing
```

This returns the missing value. This is the value used to indicate null or undefined data.

Example:

```
% $y miss
NaN
```

Method ooc

```
ooc_name ooc-keep
```

This returns the OOC-name of the NAO.

Example:

```
$y ooc
::NAP::61-61
```

Method rank

```
ooc_name rank
```

This returns the rank (number of dimensions).

Example:

```
% $y rank
```

Method sequence

```
ooc_name sequence -keep
```

This returns the sequence number of the NAO. E.g. 42 for nao. 42-9

-keep: Do not delete NAO with reference count of 0

NAP OOCs

Example:

```
% $y seq
61
```

Method shape

```
ooc_name shape
```

This returns the shape, which is a vector of dimension sizes.

Example:

```
% $y shape
```

Method slot

```
ooc_name slot -keep
```

This returns the slot number of the NAO. E.g. 9 for nao. 42-9

Example:

```
% $y sl
61
```

Method step

```
ooc_name step
```

This returns a code which indicates whether step sizes of a vector are equal, and if not, their sign. NAP uses this information for efficiency. It indicates whether a vector (not relevant for other ranks) is monotonically ascending/descending, and if so whether it is an arithmetic progression (AP). The result code is one of following strings:

- "+-": at least one positive step and one negative step
- ">= 0": all steps >= 0
- "<= 0": all steps <= 0
- "AP": equal steps (except final one which may be shorter)

Example:

```
% [nap "{3 5 7 7.1}"] step AP
```

Method unit

```
ooc_name unit
```

This returns the unit of measure. This may be used in the future to support arithmetic with automatic unit conversion, but at the moment it is just descriptive information.

Example:

```
% $y set unit seconds
% $y unit
seconds
```

Methods which Modify NAO

Method draw

```
ooc_name draw xy ?value?
```

This draws a polyline in the NAO *ooc_name*, which must be type £32 in the current version. It sets data elements on the polyline defined by NAO *xy* to the value of scalar NAO *value* (default: missing value). NAO *xy* can be:

- matrix with 2 rows, row 0 is x values, row 1 is y values
- vector of y values with coordinate variable (CV) of x values
- vector of y values without CV (x defaults to 0 1 2 3 ...)

The polyline is not closed, so to draw a polygon, the first point should be duplicated at the end.

Example:

```
% [nap "z = reshape(0f32, 2 # 5)"] draw y 1
% $z
1 0 0 0 0
0 1 0 0 0
0 1 0 0 0
0 0 1 0 0
0 0 1 0 0
```

Method fill

```
ooc_name fill xy ?value?
```

This fills a polygon in the NAO *ooc_name*, which must be type £32 in the current version. It sets data elements within the polygon defined by NAO *xy* to the value of the scalar NAO *value* (default: missing value).

NAO xy can be:

- matrix with 2 rows, row 0 is x values, row 1 is y values
- vector of y values with coordinate variable (CV) of x values
- vector of y values without CV (x defaults to 0 1 2 3 ...)

The polygon is closed (unlike draw method).

Example:

Method set

```
ooc_name set attribute arg arg ...
```

This modifies the NAO attribute specified by *attribute*. The sub-methods corresponding to these attributes are discussed below in separate sections. Note that the names of these attributes is the same as that of the method which returns their value.

set coordinate

```
ooc_name set coordinate coord_var coord_var coord_var ...
```

This sets one or more coordinate variables.

```
coord_var can be a name, OOC-name or "".
```

If *coord_var* is a valid name then this is also used as dimension name if this is undefined.

If *coord_var* is " " then any existing coordinate variable is removed.

If the number of *coord_var* arguments < rank then trailing values default to " ". Thus the following

command removes all coordinate variables:

```
ooc_name se coo
```

See above ("Method coordinate") for an example.

set count

```
ooc_name set count ?int? ?-keep?
```

This sets or increments the reference count. One situation where this facility is needed is where a GUI window points to a NAO and must be retained until the window is destroyed.

```
-keep: Do not delete NAO (with new count = 0)
```

-keep: Do not delete NAO with reference count of 0 If *int* is signed then add it to reference count.

If *int* is unsigned then set reference count to *int*.

If *int* not specified then add 1 to reference count (i.e. treat as "+1")

Set dimension

```
ooc_name set dimension dim_name dim_name dim_name ...
```

This sets one or more dimension names.

If *dim_name* is a tcl name pointing to a NAO then this also defines the coordinate variable if this is undefined.

If dim_name is " " then any existing dimension name is removed.

If the number of *dim_names* < rank then trailing values default to "". Thus the following command removes all dimension names:

```
ooc_name se d
```

Example:

```
% $x set dim time
```

% \$x dim

set label

```
ooc_name set label ?string?
```

This sets the label (title). The default is NULL i.e. no label.

See above ("Method label") for an example.

Set link

```
ooc_name set link ?nao?
```

This sets the link slot number to point to a NAO The default is NULL i.e. no link.

See above ("**Method** link") for an example.

Set missing

```
ooc_name set missing?value?
```

This sets the missing value. The default is NULL i.e. no missing value.

Example:

```
% $x set miss 0
% $x
_ 0.5 1 1.5 2
```

Note that the value of 0 is now treated as missing.

Set unit

```
ooc_name set unit?unit?
```

This sets the unit of measure. The default is NULL i.e. no unit.

See above ("**Method** unit") for an example.

Set value

```
ooc_name set value?value??index?
```

This sets the value of data elements selected by NAO *index* (default: " " i.e. whole array) to new values copied from successive elements of NAO *value* (default: " " meaning null value). Elements of *value* are recycled if necessary.

Methods which Write to File

Method binary

```
ooc_name binary?tcl_channel?
```

This writes raw (binary) data to the file specified by *tcl_channel*, which defaults to stdout (standard output). For example:

```
% set file [open y.tmp w]
file4
% $y binary $file
% close $file
% set file [open y.tmp]
file4
% [nap_get binary $file f64] all
::NAP::248-248 f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 5 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
0 0.25 1 2.25 4
% close $file
```

Method hdf

ooc_name hdf ?switches? filename sds

This writes data from the NAO to an SDS named sds within an HDF file named filename.

```
switches can be:
```

- -unlimited: Create sds with unlimited dimension 0
- -coordinateVariable expr: boxed NAO which specifies coordinate variables.
- -datatype type: HDF datatype: c8, i8, i16, i32, u8, u16, u32, f32 or f64
- -range *float*: HDF valid_range
- -scale *float*: HDF scale_factor
- -offset *float*: HDF add_offset
- -index *expr*: position within SDS where data is to be written.

If "-coordinateVariable *expr*" is not specified then the coordinate variables of the main NAO are used if these exist.

If "-index *expr*" is not specified then the coordinate variables of the main NAO are used if these exist, otherwise writing starts at the beginning of the SDS.

Example:

```
% [nap "3 .. 7"] hdf simple.hdf vec
% exec hdp dumpsds simple.hdf
File name: simple.hdf
Variable Name = vec
         Index = 0
         Type= 32-bit signed integer
         Ref. = 2
         Rank = 1
         Number of attributes = 1
         Dim0: Name=fakeDim0
                 Size = 5
                 Scale Type = number-type not set
                 Number of attributes = 0
         Attr0: Name = FillValue
                 Type = 32-bit signed integer
                 Count = 1
                 Value = -2147483648
         Data:
                3 4 5 6 7
```

Method netcdf

ooc_name netcdf ?switches? filename var

This writes data from the NAO to a netCDF variable named *var* within the netCDF file named *filename*.

switches can be:

```
-unlimited: Create variable with unlimited dimension 0
-coordinateVariable expr: boxed NAO which specifies coordinate variables.
-datatype type: netCDF datatype: c8, i16, i32, u8, f32 or f64
-range float: netCDF valid_range
-scale float: netCDF scale_factor
-offset float: netCDF add_offset
-index expr: position within netCDF variable where data is to be written.
```

If "-coordinateVariable *expr*" is not specified then the coordinate variables of the main NAO are used if these exist.

If "-index *expr*" is not specified then the coordinate variables of the main NAO are used if these exist, otherwise writing starts at the beginning of the netCDF variable.

Example:

Note that the netCDF variable area is dimensioned to 8 (the shape of the argument specified by the -coordinateVariable option).

Method swap

ooc_name swap ?tcl_channel?

Method swap is like method binary, except that bytes are swapped. This enables writing of data to be read on a machine with opposite byte-order within words.

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NAP Constants

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Introduction

Nap provides a rich variety of constants. Nap is oriented to numeric data but does provide string constants. The data-type can be specified as a suffix (except for strings and hexadecimal constants). Numeric constants can be scalars (simple numbers) or higher-rank arrays.

Integer Scalar Constants

An integer scalar constant can be specified in decimal or hexadecimal form. The default data-type is i32 (32-bit signed integer) for decimal integer constants. Octal constants are not allowed from version 3, although they were in earlier versions (causing problems with decimal data containing leading 0s).

Hexadecimal integer constants begin with "0x" and are 32-bit unsigned integers. A data-type suffix is not allowed for hexadecimal constants because some cases would be ambiguous.

Examples of integer constants are:

```
% [nap 14] all
::NAP::72-72 i32
                   MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0
                                                              Unit:
(NULL)
Value:
14
% [nap 14u8] all
::NAP::74-74
              u8
                  MissingValue: (NULL) References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Value:
14
% [nap 0x14] all
::NAP::80-80 u32
                   MissingValue: 4294967295 References: 0
                                                             Unit:
(NULL)
```

```
Value: 20
```

The constant "_" represents an i32 NAO whose value and missing-value are both -2147483648 (the minimum possible i32 value). It provides a convenient way of indicating undefined data. Such values are used mainly within array constants and will be discussed further in that section.

Floating-point Scalar Constants

A floating-point scalar constant can represent infinity, NaN or a normal finite value. A finite value is represented by a mantissa, optionally followed by an exponent. There can be a data-type suffix on any floating-point scalar constant. If this suffix is omitted the data-type is £64 (64-bit float).

A mantissa can be written in either decimal or rational form. A decimal mantissa must not begin or end with a decimal point. A rational mantissa consists of two integers separated by r and represents their ratio. Here are examples of floating-point constants without exponents:

```
% [nap 4.0] all
::NAP::82-82 f64
                   MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Value:
4
% [nap 4f32] all
                   MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
::NAP::83-83
              f32
Value:
4
% [nap 2r3] all
::NAP::85-85 f64
                   MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Value:
0.666667
```

The letter e indicates an exponent with base 10. The letter p indicates an exponent with base π . Examples of constants with exponents are:

```
% [nap 1e4] all
::NAP::89-89    f64    MissingValue: NaN    References: 0    Unit: (NULL)
Value:
10000
% [nap 1e]; # Default exponent is 1
10
% [nap 1p1]
3.14159
% [nap 1p]; # Default exponent is 1
```

```
NAP Constants
3.14159
% [nap 180p-1]; # degrees in a radian
57.2958
% [nap 1r3p1f32] all; # pi/3
::NAP::95-95 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Value:
1.0472
Infinity is represented by 1i. NaN is represented by 1n. Examples are:
```

```
% [nap 1i] all
::NAP::101-101
               f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Value:
Inf
% [nap 1if32] all
::NAP::102-102 f32
                    MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Value:
Inf
% [nap ln] all
::NAP::104-104
               f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Value:
% [nap 1nf32] all
::NAP::105-105 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Value:
```

Numeric Array Constants

Tcl uses nested braces ("{}") to represent lists. Nap uses braces in a similar manner to represent n-dimensional constant arrays. The elements of array constants have the same form as scalar constants.

A vector (1-dimensional array) constant is enclosed by one level of braces, as in:

```
% [nap "{2 -7 8}"] all
::NAP::110-110 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0 Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 3 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
2 -7 8
```

A matrix (2-dimensional array) constant is enclosed by two levels of braces, as in:

```
% [nap "{{1 3 5}{2 4 6}}"] all
::NAP::120-120 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0 Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 2 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 1 Size: 3 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
1 3 5
2 4 6
```

We could have written each row on a separate line, as in

4 4 9

The following generates a three-dimensional constant:

```
[nap "{\{\{1 5 0\}\{2 2 9\}\}\{\{3 0 7\}\{4 4 9\}\}\}]"] all}
::NAP::126-126 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0
                                                                   Unit:
(NULL)
                                              Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 0
              Size: 2
                            Name: (NULL)
Dimension 1
              Size: 2
                                              Coordinate-variable:
                                                                    (NULL)
                            Name: (NULL)
Dimension 2
               Size: 3
                                              Coordinate-variable:
                            Name: (NULL)
                                                                    (NULL)
Value:
1 5 0
2 2 9
3 0 7
```

Elements can be preceded by a "+" or "-" sign. Repeated elements and sub-arrays can be specified using "#" which also has a related meaning as an operator. The following illustrates such repetition counts:

```
% [nap "{{7 3#5} 2#{9 1 2#4}}"] all
::NAP::131-131 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0 Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 3 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 1 Size: 4 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
```

```
7 5 5 5
9 1 4 4
9 1 4 4
```

Undefined (missing) elements are represented by "_", as in:

```
% [nap "{1.6 _ 0}"] all
::NAP::133-133 f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 3 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
1.6 _ 0
```

It is possible to include data-type suffices on individual elements, but it is more convenient to use a data conversion function to obtain the desired data-type. For example:

```
% [nap "f32{0 -6 1e9 1p1}"] all
::NAP::137-137 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 4 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
0 -6 1e+09 3.14159
```

String Constants

String constants are enclosed by either two apostrophes ("'") or two grave accents ("`"). String constants have the data-type c8 (8-bit character). They are 1-dimensional (vectors) but other ranks can be produced using the function reshape. A simple string constant is shown by:

```
% [nap "'Hello world'"] all
::NAP::139-139 c8 MissingValue: (NULL) References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 11 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
Hello world
```

Adjacent strings are concatenated as in:

```
% [nap "`can't` ' go'"]
can't go
```

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NAP Operators

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Operators and Precedence

The following table is essentially a superset of **Table 5.2** in Ousterhout's 1994 classic *Tcl and the Tk Toolkit*. As there, groups of operators between horizontal lines have the same precedence; higher groups have higher precedence.

Operators are left-associative unless specified otherwise. For example, ** is right-associative, as shown by:

```
% [nap "10 ** 2 ** 3"]
1e+08
```

The nature of operands is indicated as follows:

a and b represent general arrays.

x and y represent scalars.

u and v represent vectors.

A and B represent matrices.

n represents a Tcl name, which may include namespaces.

p represents a boxed vector of pointers to arrays a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots

'AP' means arithmetic progression.

Syntax	Result	
a**b	a^b . Right-associative	
+ <i>a</i>	New copy of <i>a</i>	
- <i>a</i>	Negative of <i>a</i>	
! <i>a</i>	Logical NOT: 1 if a is zero, else 0	
~a	Bit-wise complement of <i>a</i>	
#a	Frequencies of values 0, 1, 2,	
@a	Indirect subscript	
@@ <i>a</i>	Indirect subscript	
v@b	s such that $v_s = b$, where v is ordered vector	
v@@b		
v@@@b	i 32 s for which $ v_s-b $ is least smallest i 32 s for which $v_s=b$	
$[a]\dots$	Boxed vector pointing to a and b	
xy	AP from x to y in steps of +1 or -1	
$x \cdot p$	AP from x to a_0 in steps of a_1	
py	AP from a_1 to y with a_0 elements	
 и#v	<i>u</i> copies of <i>v</i>	
p#b	Cross-product replication	
u+*v	(<i>u</i> and <i>v</i> vectors) Scalar (dot) product	
A+*B	(A and B matrices) Matrix product	
a*b	$a \times b$	
a/b	$a \div b$	
a8 b	Remainder after dividing a by b	

NAP Operat
a+b
<i>a</i> - <i>b</i>

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a+b	a + b	
<i>a</i> - <i>b</i>	a-b	
a< <b< th=""><td colspan="2">Left-shift a by b bits</td></b<>	Left-shift a by b bits	
<i>a>>b</i>	Right-shift a by b bits	
a<< b	Lesser of a and b	
<i>a>>>b</i>	Greater of a and b	
a <b< th=""><td>1 if $a < b$, else 0</td></b<>	1 if $a < b$, else 0	
<i>a>b</i>	1 if $a > b$, else 0	
<i>a</i> <= <i>b</i>	1 if $a \le b$, else 0	
<i>a>=b</i>	1 if $a \ge b$, else 0	
a==b	1 if $a = b$, else 0	
a!=b	1 if $a \neq b$, else 0	
a&b	Bit-wise AND of a and b	
a^b	Bit-wise exclusive OR of a and b	
$a \mid b$	Bit-wise OR of a and b	
a&& b	Logical AND: 1 if $a \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0$, else 0	
$a \mid b $	Logical OR: 1 if $a \neq 0$ or $b \neq 0$, else 0	
a?b:c	Choice: if $a \neq 0$ then b, else c	
a//b	Concatenate along existing dimension	
a///b	Concatenate along new dimension	

Boxed vector pointing to a and b

[a], [b]

n=a Result is a. Right-associative

Side Effect: Set *n* to OOC-name of *a*

Assignment Operator "="

The "nap" command (unlike "expr") allows the assignment operator "=". The left-hand operand must be a Tcl name, which is used to define a Tcl variable whose (string) value is set to the OOC-name of the right-hand operand. The assignment operator has a result like any other operator. This result is the value of the right-hand operand. This is shown in the following:

```
% nap "a = (b = 6) + 2"
::NAP::15-15
% $b
6
% $a
8
```

The assignment operator has the lowest precedence and is right-associative, allowing expressions such as:

```
% nap "a = 3 + b = {1.5 0}"
::NAP::16-16
% $b
1.5 0
% $a
4.5 3
```

Link Operators "..." and ","

The link operators "..." and "," are identical except for precedence. They produce a boxed vector pointing to the operands.

A common use of "," is to pass multiple arguments to a function. For example the logarithm function log takes an optional second argument specifying *base*, as in:

```
% [nap "log(32, 2)"]
```

The operator "," is also used in *cross-product indexing*, as discussed in the section NAP Indexing.

A common use of "..." is in conjunction with the <u>arithmetic progression operator</u> "...", which is discussed in the next section.

The left operand of "..." or "," generates one boxed vector and the right operand generates another. These two boxed vectors are concatenated to form the result, which is also a boxed vector. If the datatype of an operand is not boxed then it generates a single-element boxed vector pointing to it. If an operand is a boxed vector then it generates a copy of itself. If an operand is a boxed scalar then it is treated as a boxed vector with a single element. If an operand is absent (NULL) then it generates a single-element (whose value is 0, the missing-value) boxed vector.

Arithmetic Progression Operator ".."

The operator "..." generates an arithmetic progression. If both operands are simple numeric scalars then the step size is +1 or -1, the left operand specifies the first value and the right operand specifies the final value. For example:

```
% [nap "3 .. 6"]
3 4 5 6
% [nap "6 .. 3"]
6 5 4 3
% [nap "1.8 .. -1.2"]
1.8 0.8 -0.2 -1.2
```

If the difference between the operands is not an integral multiple of the step size then the final step is smaller than the preceding steps. This is shown by:

```
% [nap "2.3 .. 5.9"]
2.3 3.3 4.3 5.3 5.9
```

The right operand can be a boxed two-element vector pointing to the final value and the step size. Such a boxed operand is usually generated using the operator "...", as in:

```
% [nap "3 .. 9 ... 2"]
3 5 7 9
% [nap "0 .. -1.6 ... -0.5"]
0 -0.5 -1 -1.5 -1.6
```

The left operand can be a boxed two-element vector pointing to the number of elements and the first value. Such a boxed operand is also usually generated using the operator "...", as in:

```
% [nap "5 ... 1 .. 7"]
```

```
1 2.5 4 5.5 7
```

It is not legal for both operands to be boxed. It is legal to specify a non-integral number of elements, as in:

```
% [nap "3.5 ... 2 .. 12"]
2 6 10 12
```

Note that 3.5 elements means 2.5 steps. There are two full steps of 4, followed by a half step of 2. When the left operand is boxed the step size is calculated using (final - first)/(n - 1), where n is the number of elements.

The data-type of the result depends on the data-types of *first*, *final* and *step*. For example:

```
% [nap "1 .. 7.0 ... 2"] all
::NAP::262-262 f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 4 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
1 3 5 7
```

Concatenation Operators "//" and "///"

The following example illustrates the difference between "//" and "///" with vector operands:

```
% [nap "{5 2} // {9 8}"]
5 2 9 8
% [nap "{5 2} /// {9 8}"]
5 2
9 8
```

The following example illustrates the difference between "//" and "///" with matrix operands:

```
% [nap "{{6 2 1}{0 9 4}} // {{7 2 7}{3 3 8}}"] all
::NAP::29-29 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0 Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 4 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 1 Size: 3 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
6 2 1
0 9 4
```

7 2 7 3 3 8

```
NAP Operators
```

```
% [nap "{\{6\ 2\ 1\}\{0\ 9\ 4\}\} /// {\{7\ 2\ 7\}\{3\ 3\ 8\}\}"] all
::NAP::35-35
               i32
                   MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0
                                                                   Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0
               Size: 2
                             Name: (NULL)
                                               Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 1
               Size: 2
                             Name: (NULL)
                                               Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
               Size: 3
                                               Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 2
                             Name: (NULL)
Value:
6 2 1
0 9 4
7 2 7
3 3 8
```

Note that "//" concatenates along the most significant existing dimension, whereas "///" concatenates along a new dimension. This new dimension is of size 2 and is more significant that the existing dimensions.

The above examples had operands with identical shapes and data-types. It is obviously desirable to allow the operands of "//" to have different sized leading (most significant) dimensions. NAP does allow this, as shown by:

```
% [nap "'Hello' // ' world.'"]
Hello world.
% [nap "{{6 2 1}{0 9 4}} // {{7 2 7}}"]
6 2 1
0 9 4
7 2 7
```

In fact, both operators allow any combination of shapes. Operands of "///" are reshaped to the same shape. Operands of "//" are reshaped so all dimensions except the leading one have the same size. The following examples illustrate this reshaping process (with data-type conversion when required):

```
% [nap "{{6 2 1}{0 9 4}} // {7 2 7}"]
6 2 1
0 9 4
7 2 7
[nap "{{6 2 1}{0 9 4}} // 3.0"] all
                f64 MissingValue: NaN
::NAP::142-142
                                        References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
                                           Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 0
              Size: 3
                           Name: (NULL)
Dimension 1
              Size: 3
                                           Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
                           Name: (NULL)
Value:
```

6 2 1

```
0 9 4
3 3 3
% [nap "\{\{6\ 2\ 1\}\{0\ 9\ 4\}\}\ ///\ 3.0"] all
                f64 MissingValue: NaN
::NAP::148-148
                                          References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0
              Size: 2
                            Name: (NULL)
                                              Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
              Size: 2
                                              Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 1
                            Name: (NULL)
                                              Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 2
              Size: 3
                            Name: (NULL)
Value:
6 2 1
0 9 4
3 3 3
```

Inverse Indexing Operators "@", "@@" and "@@@"

These three operators all take an optional vector left operand. The result is a subscript of this vector. The left operand defaults to the coordinate-variable of the dimension (only relevant to <u>indirect indexing</u>).

Interpolated Subscript "@"

NAP Operators

3 3 3

The "@" operator requires a sorted left operand. The result of v@b is the £32 subscript s such that v(s) = b. For example:

```
% [nap "{1.5 3.4 3.6 4} @ 3.5"]
1.5
% [nap "{1.5 3.4 3.6 4} @ 3.7"]
2.25
```

Note that 3.5 is halfway between 3.4 (subscript 1) and 3.6 (subscript 2), so the first result is 1.5. Similarly, 3.7 is quarterway between 3.6 (subscript 2) and 4 (subscript 3), so the second result is 2.25.

Combining these two examples into one:

```
% [nap "{1.5 3.4 3.6 4} @ {3.5 3.7}"]
1.5 2.25
```

We can check this result by using it as an index:

```
% [nap "{1.5 3.4 3.6 4} {1.5 2.25}"] 3.5 3.7
```

Subscript of Closest "@@"

The result of v@@b is the i32 subscript s for which abs (v(s)-b) is least. For example:

```
% [nap "{1.5 3.4 0 2.4 -1 0} @@ {2 -99}"]
3 4
```

Element 3 has the value 2.4, which is the closest to 2. Element 4 has the value -1, which is the closest to -99.

Subscript of Match "@@@"

The result of v@@@b is the smallest i32 subscript s for which v(s) ==b. For example:

```
% [nap "{3 2 9 2 0 3} @@@ {0 3 2}"]
4 0 1
```

Element 4 is the only 0, element 0 is the first 3 and element 1 is the first 2.

The following example shows that this operator can be used with character data:

```
% [nap 'hello world' @@@ 'wol']
6 4 2
```

Tally Unary Operator "#"

Unary "#" produces a frequency table. It tallies the number of 0s, 1s, 2s, ..., as in the following:

```
% [nap "#{2 5 4 5 2 -3 0 2}"]
1 0 3 0 1 2
```

There is one zero, no ones, three twos, no threes, one four and two fives. Note that the negative value (–3) is ignored.

If the operand has more than 1 dimension then the result has the same shape, except that the size of the first dimension is changed to m+1, where m is the maximum value. Each element of the result is a frequency tallied over the first dimension. For example:

```
% [nap "{{2 5 4 5}{2 -3 0 2}}"]
2 5 4 5
2 -3 0 2
```

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```
% [nap "#{{2 5 4 5}{2 -3 0 2}}"]
0 0 1 0
0 0 0 0
2 0 0 1
0 0 0 0
0 0 1 0
0 1 0 1
```

If the operand is boxed and points to *n* arrays (which each have the same number of elements) then the result is the *n*-dimensional array of joint frequencies. For example:

```
% [nap "#({2 1 1 0 1},{1 1 3 2 1})"]
0 0 1 0
0 2 0 1
0 1 0 0
```

The boxed operand defines the five pairs (2,1), (1,1), (1,3), (0,2) and (1,1). The above result gives the frequencies of these pairs.

Replicate Binary Operator "#"

can appear within array constants, as in:

```
% [nap "{7 3#8 0}"]
7 8 8 8 0
```

The # operator has a related meaning, as shown by:

```
% [nap "3#8"]
8 8 8
% [nap "{4 1 0 2} # {7 12 9 8}"] value
7 7 7 7 12 8 8
```

Each element of the left operand defines the number of replications of the corresponding element of the right operand. The operands can be vectors or scalars. The result is a vector.

Note that one can use this operator to select from a vector those elements which satisfy some condition. The following example selects the even elements:

```
% nap "x = \{9 \ 1 \ 0 \ 2 \ 3 \ -8 \ 0\}" :: NAP:: 286-286
```

```
% [nap "(x % 2 == 0) # x"]
0 2 -8 0
```

This works because the left-hand operand is:

```
% [nap "(x % 2 == 0)"] value
0 0 1 1 0 1 1
```

If the right-hand operand b is multidimensional then the left-hand operand must be a boxed vector pointing to a vector corresponding to each dimension of b. For example:

```
% nap "mat = reshape(1 .. 12, {3 4})"
::NAP::316-316
% $mat
 1
    2
       3
          4
    6
       7
 5
          8
 9 10 11 12
% [nap "({2 0 1},{3 2 0 1}) # mat"]
 1
    1
       1
          2
              2
                 4
    1
          2
 1
       1
             2 4
 9
    9
       9 10 10 12
```

This is equivalent to using the following cross-product index:

```
% [nap "mat({0 0 2}, {0 0 0 1 1 3})"]
1 1 1 2 2 4
1 1 1 2 2 4
9 9 9 10 10 12
```

Remainder Operator "%"

if b > 0 then $0 \le r < b$

The value of the remainder r = a % b is defined for all real a and b so that:

```
if b = 0 then r = 0

if b < 0 then b < r \le 0

if a \ge 0 and b = \infty then r = a

if a \le 0 and b = \infty then r = a

if a < 0 and b = \infty then r = \infty

if a > 0 and b = \infty then r = \infty.

Thus:
```

```
% [nap "0.7 % {0.3 0 -0.3}"]
0.1 0 -0.2
% [nap "{7 0 -7} % lif32"]
7 0 Inf
% [nap "{7 0 -7} % -lif32"]
-Inf 0 -7
```

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Indexing

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Introduction

Indexing is the process of extracting elements from arrays. NAP extends this concept to the estimation (using interpolation) of values *between* the elements.

An index can appear:

- within a NAP expression
- as an argument of an OOC. E.g. method set value takes an an argument that specifies which elements are to be modified
- as an argument of commands nap_get hdf and nap_get netcdf, specifying positions within a file

NAP provides powerful indexing (subscripting) facilities. The subscript origin is 0 (as in other aspects of Tcl such as lists). The rightmost dimension is the least significant (varies fastest). Here is a simple example of a vector indexed by a scalar:

$$nap "vector = {2 -5 9 4}"$$

```
NAP Indexing
::NAP::14-14
% [nap "vector(2)"]
```

Indexing Syntax

NAP syntax specifies that indexing is implied by two adjacent NAOs, with the base array on the left and the index on the right. Thus it is not necessary to parenthesise an index that is simply a constant or variable-name. However parentheses may make the code clearer to humans, who are likely to be familiar with languages where this is required.

This syntax means that the above example can be rewritten without parentheses as:

```
% [nap "vector 2"]
9
```

It also means that any non-scalar expression (including a constant of course) can be indexed, as shown by:

```
% [nap "{2 -5 9 4} 2"]
9
% [nap "({2 -5 9 4} + 10) 2"]
19
```

Dimension-Position

A *dimension-position* is a scalar value defining the position along a dimension. Fractional values are valid and represent positions *between* the array elements. Values at non-integral positions are estimated using n-dimensional linear interpolation. The following demonstrates this (continuing the above example):

```
% [nap "vector 2.5"]
6.5
```

Note that the dimension-position 2.5 is halfway between 2 (corresponding to the value 9) and 3 (corresponding to the value 4). Thus the value is estimated to be 0.5 * 9.0 + 0.5 * 4.0 = 4.5 + 2.0 = 6.5 using ordinary one-dimensional linear interpolation.

If *n* is the dimension-size and *p* the position, then $0 \le p < n$. Values between *n*-1 and *n* are defined by treating position *n* as equivalent to 0. This gives wraparound useful with cyclic dimensions such as longitude. Thus

```
% [nap "vector 3.1"]
3.8
```

Note that the dimension-position 3.1 is 10% of the distance between 3 (corresponding to the value 4) and 4 (equivalent to 0 and corresponding to the value 2). Thus the value is estimated to be 0.9 * 4.0 + 0.1 * 2.0 = 3.6 + 0.2 = 3.8

Subscript

Dimension-positions are always specified via subscripts. A subscript is similar to a dimension-position except that there are no size limits. If s is the subscript and n is the dimension-size, then the dimension-position p is defined by s n, the remainder after dividing n by n.

Thus in our example subscript 6 is treated as 6%4 = 2. So we get

```
% [nap "vector 6"]
9
```

It also means that negative values can be use to index backward from the end, as shown by:

```
% [nap "vector(-1)"]
4
% [nap "vector(-2)"]
9
% [nap "vector(-3)"]
-5
```

Elemental Index

An *elemental index* is a vector of *rank* subscripts, specifying the subscripts of an element of an array. The following example creates a matrix mat and illustrates the use of elemental indices to extract individual elements.

```
% nap "mat = {{1.5 0 7}{2 -4 -9}}"
::NAP::60-60
% $mat
  1.5 0.0 7.0
  2.0 -4.0 -9.0
% [nap "mat {0 1}"]
0
% [nap "mat {1 -1}"]
-9
```

```
NAP Indexing
%
% [nap "mat {0.5 1.5}"]
```

```
The value corresponding to the index \{0.5 \ 1.5\} is estimated, using bilinear interpolation, to be 0.25 \times 0.0 + 0.25 \times 7.0 + 0.25 \times (-4.0) + 0.25 \times (-9.0) = -1.5
```

Index

-1.5

An *index* is an array defining one or more elemental indices. The following table lists the four types, which are explained in the sections below:

Index Type	Rank of Indexed Array
shape- preserving	1
vector-flip	1
full	2 or more
cross-product	2 or more

Shape-Preserving

Shape-preserving indexing is used to index a vector. The shape of the result is the same as that of the index. The following example shows how the previously defined variable vector can be indexed by

- a scalar to produce a scalar
- a vector to produce a vector
- a matrix to produce a matrix:

```
% $vector
2 - 5 9 4
% [nap "vector(2)"] all
:: NAP:: 57-57 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0 Unit:
(NULL)
Value:
9
% [nap "vector({2 2.5 2})"] all
::NAP::61-61 f32
                   MissingValue: NaN References: 0
                                                      Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0
              Size: 3
                           Name: (NULL)
                                            Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
9 6.5 9
% [nap "vector({
```

```
NAP Indexing
{1 0 2.5}
{-1 2 1}
})"] all
::NAP::67-67
              f32
                   MissingValue: NaN References: 0
                                                       Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0
              Size: 2
                            Name: (NULL)
                                            Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 1
              Size: 3
                                             Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
                            Name: (NULL)
Value:
-5.0 2.0 6.5
```

The *shape-preserving* property means one can use a vector to define a mapping. The following example maps 0 to 4, 1 to 1, 2 to 9 and 3 to 4:

```
% [nap "{4 1 9 4} {
{2 1 2 0}
{3 3 0 1}
}"]
9 1 9 4
4 4 4 1
```

4.0 9.0 -5.0

The following example uses the same technique to implement a simple substitution cipher (mapping space to R, A to X, B to B, C to T, ... as shown) to encrypt the message "HELLO WORLD" as "A HHVREVZHC" which is then decrypted.

```
% nap "plain = ' ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ'"
::NAP::63-63
% nap "cipher = 'RXBTC MUAFGWHYIVJKZDLNOEPQS'"
::NAP::64-64
% [nap "plain((plain @@ cipher)(plain @@ 'HELLO WORLD'))"]; # encrypt
A HHVREVZHC
% [nap "cipher((cipher @@ plain)(cipher @@ 'A HHVREVZHC'))"]; #
decrypt
HELLO WORLD
```

Vector-Flip

It is often necessary to reverse the order of elements in a vector. One could use *shape-preserving* indexing, as in:

```
% [nap "{2 4 6 8}(3 .. 0)"]
8 6 4 2
```

NAP provides the *niladic* operator "-" to specify such reversal (or *flipping*). (A *niladic* operator is one without any operands.) Thus one can simplify the above example to:

```
% [nap "{2 4 6 8}(-)"]
8 6 4 2
```

Such an index of a vector, consisting of just "-", is called a *vector-flip*. Note that <u>cross-product-indexing</u> also allows the niladic "-" to specify flipping of one or more dimensions.

What does the niladic "-" generate? Let's see:

```
% [nap "-"] all
::NAP::62-62 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Value:
-Inf
```

It generates a scalar 32-bit NAO with the value *negative infinity*! Indexing treats such a NAO as meaning "flip". So the above indexing example could also (but less conveniently) be written as:

```
% [nap "{2 4 6 8}(-1if32)"]
8 6 4 2
```

Full-index

A *full-index* is an array specifying a separate elemental index for every element of the result. The shape of the index is the shape of the result with r (the rank of the indexed array) appended. Each row of the index contains a vector of r elements defining an elemental index.

The following example shows how the previously defined variable mat can be indexed by

- a vector to produce a scalar
- a matrix to produce a vector

```
% $mat
1.5  0.0  7.0
2.0 -4.0 -9.0
% [nap "mat {0.5 1.5}"] all
::NAP::148-148  f32  MissingValue: NaN  References: 0  Unit: (NULL)
Value:
-1.5
% [nap "mat {
{0.5 1.5}
```

```
NAP Indexing

{0 1}
{-1 -1}
}"] all
::NAP::157-157 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 3 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
-1.5 0 -9
```

Note that *shape-preserving* indexing is similar to applying *full* indexing to a vector (if this were allowed). The shape-preserving-index is the hypothetical full-index reshaped to omit the final redundant dimension of size 1.

Cross-product-index

A *cross-product-index* is a boxed vector containing *rank* elements pointing to scalars, vectors, nulls and <u>flips</u>. The cross-product combination of this vector defines the elemental indices of the indexed array.

A cross-product-index is usually defined using the operator ",". This allows the left and/or right operand to be omitted and such *null* (missing) operands are treated as "0..(n-1)", where n is the dimensionsize. Scalar operands produce no corresponding dimension in the result. A flip (dimension reversal) is normally represented by the niladic "-" operator, which is equivalent to "(n-1)..0".

The following examples again use the previously defined variable mat. We begin by repeating the first *full-index* example above and then we provide the *cross-product-index* equivalent:

```
% $mat
1.5  0.0  7.0
2.0 -4.0 -9.0
% [nap "mat({0.5 1.5})"] all
::NAP::196-196  f32  MissingValue: NaN  References: 0  Unit: (NULL)
Value:
-1.5
% [nap "mat(0.5,1.5)"] all
::NAP::204-204  f32  MissingValue: NaN  References: 0  Unit: (NULL)
Value:
-1.5
```

The next example shows how the previously defined variable mat can be indexed by the cross-product of two vectors to produce a matrix, then provides the equivalent *full-index*:

```
% $mat
1.5 0.0 7.0
```

```
NAP Indexing
```

```
2.0 - 4.0 - 9.0
[nap "mat({1 0},{2 0 -1 0})"] all
::NAP::174-174 f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 2
                           Name: (NULL)
                                            Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
                           Name: (NULL)
            Size: 4
Dimension 1
                                            Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
-9.0 2.0 -9.0
 7.0 1.5 7.0
                1.5
% [nap "mat({
\{\{1\ 2\}\{1\ 0\}\{1\ -1\}\{1\ 0\}\}
\{\{0\ 2\}\{2\ 0\}\{2\ -1\}\{2\ 0\}\}
})"] all
::NAP::180-180 f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
              Size: 2
Dimension 0
                           Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
                           Name: (NULL)
Dimension 1
              Size: 4
                                            Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
-9.0 2.0 -9.0
                2.0
 7.0 1.5 7.0
                1.5
```

The following example illustrates the effect of a null operand to ",". It also shows the difference between a scalar operand and a single-element vector containing the same value.

```
% $mat
 1.5 0.0 7.0
 2.0 - 4.0 - 9.0
% [nap "mat(1,)"] all
::NAP::209-209 f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0
           Size: 3
                      Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
2 - 4 - 9
% [nap "mat({1},)"] all
::NAP::213-213 f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0
             Size: 1
                                          Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
                          Name: (NULL)
                          Name: (NULL)
Dimension 1
             Size: 3
                                          Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
 2 - 4 - 9
```

The following examples show how the niladic "-" operator is used to flip (reverse) dimensions:

```
% $mat
1.5 0.0 7.0
2.0 -4.0 -9.0
% [nap "mat(,-)"]
```

```
NAP Indexing
```

```
7.0
    0.0
           1.5
-9.0 -4.0
           2.0
% [nap "mat(-,)"]
 2.0 - 4.0 - 9.0
 1.5 0.0
           7.0
% [nap "mat(-,-)"]
-9.0 -4.0
           2.0
 7.0 0.0
           1.5
% [nap "mat(0,-)"]
7 0 1.5
% [nap "mat(-, {2 0 0})"]
-9.0
     2.0
           2.0
 7.0
      1.5
           1.5
```

The following example creates a rank-3 array a3d with shape {2 2 3}, then extracts all of row 0 from both layers:

```
% nap "a3d = {
{9 1 4}
{0 8 7}
} {
{2 3 5}
{9 6 0}
::NAP::215-215
% $a3d all
::NAP::215-215
                i32
                     MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 1
                                                                  Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0
              Size: 2
                            Name: (NULL)
                                             Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 1
              Size: 2
                                             Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
                            Name: (NULL)
                                             Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 2
              Size: 3
                            Name: (NULL)
Value:
9 1 4
0 8 7
2 3 5
9 6 0
% [nap "a3d(,0,)"] all
::NAP::220-220 i32
                     MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0
                                                                  Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0
              Size: 2
                                             Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
                            Name: (NULL)
```

```
NAP Indexing
```

```
Dimension 1 Size: 3 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
9 1 4
2 3 5
```

Indirect Indexing

It is often more natural to index via coordinate variables rather than subscripts. For example, consider a matrix with latitude and longitude coordinate variables. One could specify an element directly using subscripts such as "row 3, column 5". One could also specify an interpolated point directly using subscripts such as "row 3.5, column 5.2". However many users would prefer to specify latitude and longitude (values of the coordinate variables) rather than specify row and column. *Indirect indexing* simplifies such indexing via coordinate variables. The following three sections correspond to the three types of index: *shape-preserving*, *cross-product* and *full*.

Indirect Shape-Preserving Indexing

The following table defines *indirect shape-preserving* indexing of any vector *v* via any array *c* containing coordinate variable values:

Syntax	Value
v (@c)	v(coordinate_variable(v)@c)
v	<pre>v(coordinate_variable(v)</pre>
(@@c)	@@ <i>c</i>)

For example, suppose we have temperatures at two-hourly intervals from time 1000 to 1600 as follows:

```
% nap "t = {20.2 21.6 24.9 22.7}"
::NAP::159-159
% $t set coord "10 .. 16 ... 2"
```

We could estimate temperatures every hour during this period as follows:

```
% [nap "t(coordinate_variable(t)@(10..16))"] value
20.2 20.9 21.6 23.25 24.9 23.8 22.7
```

Indirect indexing allows us to omit the left argument of operators "@" and "@@" in such expressions. This enables the above expression to be simplified as follows:

```
% [nap "t(@(10..16))"] value
```

```
20.2 20.9 21.6 23.25 24.9 23.8 22.7
```

Note that this syntax does not allow indirect indices such as that in "t(3+@@12)". Instead we have to use *binary* "@@" as in "t(3+coordinate_variable(t)@@12)".

Indirect Cross-Product Indexing

The syntax for a general *cross-product-index* (involving direct and/or indirect indexing) is: [@[@]]*expr*, [@[@]]*expr*, [@[@]]*expr*, ... where *expr* is an expression (which may need to be enclosed in parentheses).

The following table defines *indirect cross-product* indexing. It shows how the subscript for dimension *d* of array *a* is calculated from (vector or scalar) *v*:

Syntax	Subscript Value	
@ <i>v</i>	coordinate_variable(a,d)@v	
@@v	coordinate_variable(a,d) @@v	

The following creates a 3×4 matrix temperature that will be used to demonstrate *indirect indexing*. It has

- unit of degC (degrees Celsius).
- rows corresponding to latitudes 10°N, 20°N and 30°N
- columns corresponding to longitudes 110°E, 120°E, 130°E and 140°E

The following verifies that the main NAO and its coordinate variables are as expected:

```
% $temperature all
::NAP::72-72
              f32
                   MissingValue: NaN References: 1 Unit: degC
Dimension 0
              Size: 3
                           Name: latitude Coordinate-variable: ::
NAP::76-76
Dimension 1
                           Name: longitude Coordinate-variable: ::
              Size: 4
NAP::86-86
Value:
31.5 37.2 32.9 34.0
25.1 25.2 29.0 21.9
20.5 21.2 21.0 19.9
% ::NAP::76-76 all
::NAP::76-76
              f32
                   MissingValue: NaN References: 2
                                                      Unit:
degrees_north
Dimension 0
              Size: 3
                           Name: (NULL)
                                           Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
10 20 30
% ::NAP::86-86 all
::NAP::86-86
              f32
                   MissingValue: NaN References: 2
                                                      Unit:
degrees_east
Dimension 0
              Size: 4
                           Name: (NULL)
                                            Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
110 120 130 140
```

The following illustrates the use of both direct and indirect indexing to display the value of 29 in row 1 and column 2:

```
% [nap "temperature(1,2)"]
29
% [nap "temperature(@20, @130)"]; # latitude=20 longitude=130
29
% [nap "temperature(@@20, @@130)"]
29
% [nap "temperature(1, @130)"]
29
```

In this case there is a point exactly corresponding to 20°S, 130°E, so the operators @ and @@ give the same result. Let us try the point 21°S, 138°E, which is not a grid point:

```
% [nap "temperature(@21, @138)"]
23
% [nap "temperature(@@21, @@138)"]
21.9
```

Now we get different results for the two operators. Operator @ gives a value estimated using bilinear interpolation. Operator @@ gives the data value at the nearest row (1) and column (3).

If the unary operators @ and @@ did not exist we would have to use their binary equivalents as follows:

```
% nap "interpolated_row = coordinate_variable(temperature,0) @ 21"
::NAP::96-96
% $interpolated_row
1.1
% nap "interpolated_col = coordinate_variable(temperature,1) @ 138"
::NAP::103-103
% $interpolated_col
2.8
% [nap "temperature(interpolated_row, interpolated_col)"]
23
% nap "nearest_row = coordinate_variable(temperature,0) @@ 21"
::NAP::112-112
% $nearest_row
1
% nap "nearest_col = coordinate_variable(temperature,1) @@ 138"
::NAP::119-119
% $nearest col
3
% [nap "temperature(nearest_row, nearest_col)"]
21.9
```

Say we want to estimate temperatures on a grid with

- latitudes 19°N, 20°N and 21°N
- longitudes 121°E, 122°E 123°E and 124°E

Naming the new matrix region_temperature, this can be done as follows:

```
% nap "region_temperature = temperature(@(19 .. 21), @(121 .. 124))"
::NAP::147-147
% $region_temperature all
::NAP::147-147 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 1 Unit: degC
Dimension 0 Size: 3 Name: latitude Coordinate-variable: ::
NAP::145-145
Dimension 1 Size: 4 Name: longitude Coordinate-variable: ::
NAP::146-146
Value:
26.699 26.998 27.297 27.596
```

```
NAP Indexing
25.580 25.960 26.340 26.720
25.140 25.480 25.820 26.160
% ::NAP::145-145 all
                     MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 1 Unit:
                i32
::NAP::145-145
degrees_north
Dimension 0
              Size: 3
                            Name: (NULL)
                                            Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
19 20 21
% ::NAP::146-146 all
::NAP::146-146
                i32
                     MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 1 Unit:
degrees_east
              Size: 4
Dimension 0
                            Name: (NULL)
                                            Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
```

Why has the new longitude coordinate-variable been converted to data-type f32? NAP recognises degrees_east as a special unit implying longitude characteristics such as

- wrap around to allow interpolation across longitude 180
- data-type f32

Value:

Indirect Full Indexing

121 122 123 124

A full index can be preceded by the unary "@" or "@@" operator to give indirect indexing. However, unlike cross-product indexing, this operator applies to all dimensions. The following example shows how full indexing can be used to produce the same values as those in the above example of cross-product indexing.

```
% [nap "temperature({{1 2}{1.1 2.8}})"]; # direct indexing
29 23
% [nap "temperature(@{{20 130}{21 138}})"]
29 23
% [nap "temperature(@@{{20 130}{21 138}})"]
29 21.9
```

How Indirect Indexing Works

Indirect indexing uses ancillary NAOs linked to index NAOs using their link slots. These ancillary NAOs contain integers with value

- 0 for direct indexing
- 1 for indirect indexing using "@"
- 2 for indirect indexing using "@@".

The unary "@" and "@@" operators simply create a copy of their operand and attach to it such an ancillary NAO. Another process in which indirect full indices are created by attaching such an ancillary NAO, is the function invert_grid().

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Built-in Functions

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Elemental Functions

The result of an elemental function has the same shape as its argument(s). Each element of the result is defined by applying the function to the corresponding element of the argument.

The following table is very similar to **Table 5.3** in Ousterhout's 1994 classic *Tcl and the Tk Toolkit*:

Function	Result
abs(x)	Absolute value of <i>x</i>
acos(x)	Arc cosine of x, in the range 0 to π
asin(x)	Arc sine of x, in the range $-\pi/2$ to $\pi/2$
atan(x)	Arc tangent of x, in the range $-\pi/2$ to $\pi/2$
atan(y,x)	Arc tangent of y/x , in the range $-\pi$ to π
atan2(y,	
(x)	Alias for atan
ceil(x)	Smallest integer not less than <i>x</i>
cos(x)	Cosine of x (x in radians)
cosh(x)	Hyperbolic cosine of <i>x</i>

exp(x)	e^{x} , where e is base of natural logarithms
floor(x)	Largest integer not greater than x
fmod(x,y)	x % y
isnan(x)	1 if x is NaN, 0 otherwise
log(x)	$\log_e x$ (natural logarithm of x)
$\log(x,y)$	$\log_y x$
log10(x)	$\log_{10} x$
hypot(x, y)	$\sqrt{(x^2+y^2)}$
nint(x)	Nearest integer to <i>x</i>
pow(x,y)	x^{ν}
random(x)	f 32 or f 64 random number r such that $0 \le r < x$
round(x)	Alias for nint
sign(x)	Sign of x, i.e. $(x>0) - (x<0)$
sin(x)	Sine of x (x in radians)
sqrt(x)	\sqrt{x}
sinh(x)	Hyperbolic sine of <i>x</i>
tan(x)	Tangent of x (x in radians)
tanh(x)	Hyperbolic tangent of <i>x</i>

The following data-type conversion functions are also elemental:

```
c8(x)
f32(x)
```

f64(x)

i8(x)

i16(x)

i32(x)

u8(x)

u16(x)

u32(x)

Here are some examples of their use:

% [nap "f32(97 .. 102)"] all; # convert from i32 to f32

```
::NAP::43-43 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 6 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
97 98 99 100 101 102
% [nap "u8('abcdef')"]; # Display ASCII codes for 'abcdef'
97 98 99 100 101 102
% [nap "c8(97 .. 102)"]; # Reverse this process
abcdef
```

Reduction and Scan Functions

A *reduction* or *insert* function is one which has the effect of inserting a binary operator between the *cells* of its argument. If the argument is a vector then its elements are the cells and the result is a scalar. If the argument is a matrix then its rows are the cells and the result is a vector containing the sum of each column. Such functions are termed *reductions* because the result has a rank which is one less than the argument.

A classic example is the Σ summation operation, which corresponds to the NAP function sum. This can be used as follows to produce a scalar (rank 0) result by summing a vector (rank 1):

```
% [nap "sum({0.5 2 -1 8})"]
9.5
```

This function sum can be applied to a matrix (rank 2) to produce a vector (rank 1). If the second argument is omitted then we get the sum of each column. If it is 1 we get the sum of each row. This is shown by:

```
% nap "mat = {
{2 5 0}
{6 7 1}
}"
::NAP::49-49
% [nap "sum mat"]
8 12 1
% [nap "sum(mat,1)"]
7 14
```

The NAP reduction and scan functions are listed in the following table:

Function	Type	Result

count(x[, r])	reduction	Number of non-missing elements in rank- r sub-arrays of x
$\max(x[,r])$	reduction	Maximum of rank- <i>r</i> sub-arrays of <i>x</i>
$\min(x[,r])$	reduction	Minimum of rank- <i>r</i> sub-arrays of <i>x</i>
prod(x[,r])	reduction	Product of rank- <i>r</i> sub-arrays of <i>x</i>
psum(x)	scan	Partial sums of <i>x</i> (see below)
sum(x[,r])	reduction	Sum of rank- <i>r</i> sub-arrays of <i>x</i>

The optional second argument of reduction functions is called the *verb-rank* (as in J). It specifies the rank of the sub-arrays (cells) to which the process is applied. In the above example the verb-rank was 1, so the matrix was split into vectors (corresponding to each row) before doing the summation. This final summation process is always done by summing along the first (most significant) dimension.

It is possible to specify a verb-rank of 0. This is useful with count () because each (rank 0) element is processed separately. If it is missing the result is 0, otherwise it is 1. So this gives us an elemental function for testing whether values are missing. Note that the rank does not change in this case! E.g.

The result of psum(x) has the same shape as x. If x is a vector and r is the result (with the same shape) then each element of r is defined by

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & I & & \\
r & & \Sigma & \\
 & = & \Sigma & \\
 & & i = 0
\end{array}$$

If x is a matrix and r is the result (with the same shape) then each element of r is defined by

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & I & J \\
r_{IJ} & \sum & \sum & x \\
 & = & \sum & ij \\
 & i=0 & j=0
\end{array}$$

The following example shows how partial sums can be used to calculate a 3-point moving-average in an efficient manner:

```
% nap "x = {2 7 1 3 8 2 5 0 2 5}"
::NAP::136-136
% nap "ps = 0 // psum(x)"
```

```
::NAP::141-141
% $ps all -col -1
::NAP::141-141 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 1 Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 11 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
0 2 9 10 13 21 23 28 28 30 35
% [nap "(ps(3 .. 10) - ps(0 .. 7)) / 3.0"] value
3.33333 3.66667 4 4.33333 5 2.33333 2.33333
```

Can you allow for missing values? How about averages of a moving window in 2 dimensions?

Other similar *scan* functions can be defined for partial products and so on. However NAP currently has only psum.

Metadata Functions

Metadata functions return information (other than data values) from a NAO. The same information can be obtained using an OOC, but these functions are more convenient within expressions.

Function	Result
	Coordinate variable of dimension <i>d</i> (default 0)
label(x)	Descriptive title
missing_value(x)	Value indicating null or undefined data
nels(x)	Number of elements = prod(shape)
rank(x)	Number of dimensions = nels(shape)
shape(x)	Vector of dimension sizes

Functions which change shape or order

Function	Result
sort(x)	Sort <i>x</i> into ascending order
reshape(x)	Spread the elements of x into a vector with shape nels (x)
reshape(x,s)	Reshape the elements of x into an array with shape s
transpose(x)	Reverse the order of dimensions of <i>x</i>

```
p Permute the dimensions of x to the order specified by p
```

Here are some examples of the use of these functions:

```
% [nap "sort {6.3 0.5 9 -2.1 0}"]
-2.1 0 0.5 6.3 9
[nap "reshape {{1 3 7}{0 9 2}}"] all
:: NAP:: 217-217 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0 Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0
              Size: 6
                           Name: (NULL)
                                           Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
1 3 7 0 9 2
% [nap "reshape({6.3 0.5 9 -2.1 0}, {2 4})"] all
::NAP::224-224 f64 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0
                                          Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
              Size: 2
                           Name: (NULL)
Dimension 1
              Size: 4
                                           Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
                           Name: (NULL)
Value:
 6.3 \quad 0.5 \quad 9.0 \quad -2.1
 0.0 6.3 0.5 9.0
[nap "transpose {{1 3 7}{0 9 2}}"] all
::NAP::228-228 i32
                    MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 0 Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0
                                            Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
              Size: 3
                           Name: (NULL)
Dimension 1
              Size: 2
                           Name: (NULL)
                                            Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
1 0
3 9
```

Linear-algebra Functions

The function $solve_linear(A[,B])$ solves a system of linear equations defined by matrix A and right-hand-sides B. B can be either a vector or a matrix (representing multiple right-hand sides). If B is omitted then the result is the matrix inverse.

If the system is *over-determined* (more equations than unknowns) then the result is the solution of the *linear least-squares problem*. This solution minimizes the sum of the squares of the differences between the left and right-hand sides.

The following system of linear equations is solved by the following example:

$$3x - 4y = 20$$

```
-5x + 8y = -36

% nap "A = {
    {3 - 4}
    {-5 8}
    }"
    ::NAP::14-14
% nap "B = {20 -36}"
    ::NAP::17-17
% nap "x = solve_linear(A, B)"
    ::NAP::20-20
% $x a
    ::NAP::20-20 f64 MissingValue: Nan References: 1 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 2 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
4 -2
```

We can check the result using matrix multiplication:

```
% [nap "A +* x"]
20 -36
```

Correlation

Function correlation calculates Pearson product-moment correlations (omitting cases where either value is missing). If x or y is £64 then the result is £64, else it is £32. (But calculation is still done using £64.) Dimension 0 of the result has size 2. Index 0 of this dimension corresponds to the correlation values themselves, while index 1 corresponds to the sample sizes (number of non-missing data elements) used to calculate these values .

```
Usage: correlation(x[, y, [lag_0, lag_1, ...]])
```

If the only argument is x, then it must be a matrix. Let nc be the number of columns in this matrix data argument. In this case the result has the shape 2 by nc by nc. Layer 0 contains the correlation matrix. Element r_{ij} of this matrix is the correlation between columns i and j of matrix x.

The following example is from Table 15.2 (page 274) of *Schaum's Outline of Theory and Problems of Statistics*, M.R. Spiegel, 1961:

```
% [nap "correlation{
```

```
{64 57 8}
        {71 59 10}
        {53 49 6}
        {67 62 11}
        {55 51 8}
        {58 50 7}
        {77 55 10}
        {57 48 9}
        {56 52 10}
        {51 42 6}
        {76 61 12}
        {68 57 9}
}"] -f %6.4f
                 0.7698
 1.0000 0.8196
 0.8196
         1.0000 0.7984
 0.7698 0.7984
                 1.0000
12.0000 12.0000 12.0000
12.0000 12.0000 12.0000
12.0000 12.0000 12.0000
```

Layer 0 of the result is the correlation matrix.

The correlation between columns 0 and 1 is 0.8196.

The correlation between columns 0 and 2 is 0.7698.

The correlation between columns 1 and 2 is 0.7984.

There is no missing data, so all values in layer 1 are 12.

If *y is* specified then the result contains one or more correlations between *x* and *y*. The ranks of *x* and *y* must be the same. (The current version supports ranks 1 and 2 only.)

If x and y have the same shape then the result contains a single correlation, calculated by treating the elements of each array as two lists of values. An example is:

```
% [nap "correlation({1 3 _ 6 6}, {6 6 4 2 3})"] all
::NAP::118-118 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 2 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 1 Size: 1 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: ::
NAP::119-119
Value:
-0.924138
4.000000
```

Element 2 (base 0) of x is missing, so element 2 from y is not used and the sample size is 4 (as shown in the second element of the result). The correlation between $\{1\ 3\ 6\ 6\}$ and $\{6\ 6\ 2\ 3\}$ is calculated to be - 0.924138.

If x and y have different shapes then the smaller of x and y is a window (*chip*) array which is moved around in the other array, producing a correlation for each position.

lag₀ is vector of row lags (default: all possible)

lag₁ is vector of column lags (default: all possible)

Grid Functions

There is currently just one grid function, invert_grid, but it has variants for one and two dimensions. The function defines a piecewise (bi-)linear mapping as the inverse of a given piecewise (bi-)linear mapping.

In the 1D case, the function is called by $invert_grid(y,ycv)$, where y is the known mapping (and has a coordinate variable corresponding to x) and ycv is the desired new y coordinate variable.

We have a piecewise-linear mapping from x to y, and we want a piecewise-linear mapping from y to x. The following example starts with a mapping from x to y defined by the two lines joining the three points (0, 0), (2, 1) and (5, 4). It produces the inverse mapping from y to x defined by the four lines joining the five points (0, 0), (1, 0.5), (2, 1.5), (2.5, 1.5) and (3, 2).

```
% nap "y = {0 1 4}"
::NAP::90-90
% $y set coo "{0 2 5}"
% [nap "coordinate_variable(y) /// y"]
0 2 5
0 1 4
% [nap "ycv = 0 ... 2 ... 1r2"]
0 0.5 1 1.5 2
% nap "x = invert_grid(y,ycv)"
::NAP::106-106
% $x all
::NAP::106-106 f32
                     MissingValue: NaN References: 1 Unit: (NULL)
Link: ::NAP::107-107
                                            Coordinate-variable: ::
Dimension 0
            Size: 5
                           Name: (NULL)
NAP::103-103
Value:
0 1 2 2.5 3
% [nap "coordinate_variable(x) /// x"]
0.0 0.5 1.0 1.5 2.0
```

0.0 1.0 2.0 2.5 3.0

In the 2D case, the function is called by $invert_grid(y, ycv, x, xcv)$, where matrix y defines a mapping from ij space to y.

The result is a 3D array whose

- dimension 0 is of size 2, corresponding to the *i* and *j* mappings
- Dimension 1 has the specified coordinate-variable ycv
- Dimension 2 has the specified coordinate-variable xcv.

We can think of the result as two matrices defining mappings from xy space to i and j respectively.

Functions related to Special Data-types

Function	Result
open_box (x)	NAO pointed to by boxed NAO x
pad(x)	Normal NAO corresponding to ragged NAO x
prune(x)	Ragged NAO corresponding to normal NAO <i>x</i>

The following example illustrates the use of the function open_box, which allows one to extract NAOs from a structure created with the operator ",".

```
% nap "pointers = {4 5} , 'hello' , 9"
::NAP::9776-9776
% $pointers
9772 9773 9775
% [nap "open_box(pointers(0))"] all
::NAP::9772-9772 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 1
Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0
           Size: 2
                          Name: (NULL)
                                          Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
% [nap "open_box(pointers(1))"] all
:: NAP:: 9773-9773 c8 MissingValue: (NULL) References: 1 Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 5 Name: (NULL)
                                           Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
```

Value:

```
hello % [nap "open_box(pointers(2))"] all ::NAP::9775-9775 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 1 Unit: (NULL) Value: 9
```

The following example illustrates the use of functions prune and its inverse pad. Function prune creates a ragged array. This suppresses missing values at the start and end of the least significant dimension (column in this matrix case). In this matrix case it creates a separate NAO for each row and stores an index (slot number) to these in the result.

```
% nap "data = \{\{0\ 1.5\ 2\ -1\}\{\ 1\ 4\ 1n\}\{4\#\ \}\{2\#\ 9\ -9\}\}"
::NAP::9736-9736
% $data
 0.0 1.5
           2.0 - 1.0
      1.0 4.0
           9.0 - 9.0
% nap "compressed_data = prune(data)"
::NAP::9738-9738
% $compressed data all
::NAP::9738-9738
                           MissingValue: 0
                  ragged
                                            References: 1
                                                            Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0
              Size: 4
                            Name: (NULL)
                                             Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Dimension 1
              Size: 4
                                             Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
                            Name: (NULL)
Value:
0
    start-index: 0
                      ::NAP::9740-9740
1
    start-index: 1
                      ::NAP::9741-9741
2
    start-index: 4
                      ::NAP::9742-9742
3
    start-index: 2
                      ::NAP::9743-9743
% ::NAP::9743-9743
9 -9
% [nap "pad(compressed_data)"] all
::NAP::9745-9745
                  f64
                       MissingValue: NaN
                                           References: 0 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0
                            Name: (NULL)
              Size: 4
                                            Coordinate-variable:
                                                                   (NULL)
Dimension 1
              Size: 4
                                             Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
                            Name: (NULL)
Value:
 0.0 1.5 2.0 -1.0
   _ 1.0 4.0
          9.0 -9.0
```

Morphological Functions

Function	Result
dilate(x,se[,seo])	Binary dilation of x ; $se =$ structure-element; $seo =$ origin of structure-element
erode(x,se[,seo])	Binary erosion of x ; $se =$ structure-element; $seo =$ origin of structure-element
moving_range(x , s)	Range (max-min) of moving shape-s window around matrix x

Morphological Binary Dilation and Erosion

x is an n by m non-negative matrix that is being dilated or eroded. se is the morphological structure element, an a by b matrix, where a < n and b < m. seo is the origin of the structure element indexed from 0 at the top left corner.

Moving Range

Move a window over the matrix *x* and find the maximum difference between values in the moving window. The result is placed in the element nearest the centre of the moving window.

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Statistical Functions

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```

- 2. $\underline{am}(x[_,verb_rank])$
- 3. $median(x[,verb_rank])$
- 4. $gm(x[,verb_rank])$
- 5. <u>rms(x[, verb_rank])</u>
- 6. $sd(x[,verb_rank])$
- 7. <u>sd1(x[,verb_rank])</u>
- 8. <u>var(x[, verb_rank])</u>
- 9. <u>var1(x[, verb_rank])</u>

Introduction

These are defined in stat.tcl. Note that there is also a built-in statistical function called <u>correlation</u>.

Three examples are provided for each function. The first uses the vector v which is defined as follows (note the missing values):

```
% nap "v = {12 6 _ 7 3 15 _ 10 18 5}"
::NAP::14-14
% $v all -c -1
::NAP::14-14 i32 MissingValue: -2147483648 References: 1 Unit:
(NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 10 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
12 6 _ 7 3 15 _ 10 18 5
```

The second example produces statistics of each column of a matrix. The second example produces statistics of each row of a matrix. The matrix is called m and is defined as follows:

```
% nap "m = {
      {1.5 2.1 -5}
      {5.5 9.4 0}
}"
::NAP::15-15
```

am(x[,verb_rank])

Arithmetic mean.

```
% [nap "am(v)"]
9.5
% [nap "am(m)"]
3.5 5.75 -2.5
% [nap "am(m,1)"]
-0.466667 4.96667
```

median(x[, verb_rank])

Median.

```
% [nap "median(v)"]
8.5
% [nap "median(m)"]
3.5 5.75 -2.5
% [nap "median(m,1)"]
1.5 5.5
```

gm(x[,verb_rank])

Geometric mean.

```
% [nap "gm(v)"]
8.19852
% [nap "gm(m)"]
2.87228 4.44297 0
% [nap "gm(m,1)"]
0
```

rms(x[,verb_rank])

Root mean square.

```
% [nap "rms(v)"]
10.6771
% [nap "rms(m)"]
4.03113 6.81065 3.53553
% [nap "rms(m,1)"]
3.24859 6.28782
```

sd(x[, verb_rank])

Standard-deviation (with division by n).

```
% [nap "sd(v)"]
4.8734
% [nap "sd(m)"]
2 3.65 2.5
% [nap "sd(m,1)"]
3.2149 3.85602
```

sd1(x[,verb_rank])

Standard-deviation (with division by n-1).

```
% [nap "sd1(v)"]
5.20988
% [nap "sd1(m)"]
2.82843 5.16188 3.53553
% [nap "sd1(m,1)"]
3.93743 4.72264
```

var(x[, verb_rank])

Variance (with division by n).

```
% [nap "var(v)"]
23.75
% [nap "var(m)"]
4 13.3225 6.25
```

```
NAP Library: stat.tcl
```

```
% [nap "var(m,1)"]
10.3356 14.8689
```

var1(x[, verb_rank])

Variance (with division by n-1).

```
% [nap "var1(v)"]
27.1429
% [nap "var1(m)"]
8 26.645 12.5
% [nap "var1(m,1)"]
15.5033 22.3033
```

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Miscellaneous Functions

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18. reverse(x[,verb_rank])
19. scaleAxisSpan(xstart, xend[, nmax[, nice]])
20. range (a)
21. tail(x[,n])
```

Introduction

The following functions are defined in the file nap_function_lib.tcl.

acof2boxed(filename)

22. <u>zone wt(latitude)</u>

Read ascii cof (.acof) file and return boxed nao.

```
Example:
nap "i = acof2boxed('abc.acof')"
```

area_on_globe(latitude, longitude)

Given latitude and longitude vectors, this function calculates a matrix whose values are fractions of the Earth's surface area.

Example:

```
% [nap "area_on_globe(-90 .. 0 ... 45, 0 .. 180 ... 45)"] value -
format %.4f
0.0229 0.0092 0.0092 0.0092 0.0229
0.0781 0.0312 0.0312 0.0312 0.0781
0.2115 0.0846 0.0846 0.0846 0.2115
```

color_wheel(n,v,b)

Square containing color wheel.

n is number rows & columns

v is desired "value" level

b is background colour outside circle

Example:

```
nap "color_wheel(100,255,3\#150)" This produces a u8 array with shape {3 100 100} & values from 0 to 255.
```

cv(main_nao[,dim_number])

This is simply an alias for coordinate_variable.

fix_longitude(longitude)

Adjust elements of longitude vector by adding or subtracting multiple of 360 to ensure:

```
-180 \le x_0 < 180
```

$$0 \le x_{i+1} - x_i < 360$$

Also ensure unit is degrees_east.

fuzzy_floor(x[,eps])

Like floor() except allow for rounding error. *eps* is tolerance and defaults to 1e-9.

Example:

```
% [nap "fuzzy_floor({4.998 4.9998},1e-3)"]
4 5
```

fuzzy_ceil(x[,eps])

Like ceil() except allow for rounding error. *eps* is tolerance and defaults to 1e-9.

Example:

```
% [nap "fuzzy_ceil({5.002 5.0002},1e-3)"]
6 5
```

gets matrix(filename)

Read text file and return NAO matrix whose rows correspond to the lines in the file. Ignore blank lines and lines whose first non-whitespace character is '#'.

Example:

```
gets_matrix('my_matrix.txt')
```

head(x[,n])

If $n \ge 0$ then result is 1st n elements of x, cycling if n > nels(x). n defaults to 1.

If n < 0 then result is 1st nels(x)+n elements of x i.e. drop -n from end

Example:

```
% [nap "head({3 1 9 2 7})"]
3
% [nap "head({3 1 9 2 7}, 2)"]
3 1
% [nap "head({3 1 9 2 7}, -2)"]
3 1 9
```

hsv2rgb(hsv)

Convert colour in HSV form to RGB. *hsv* is an array whose leading dimension has size 3.

Layer 0 along this dimension corresponds to hue as an angle in degrees. Angles of any sign or

magnitude are allowed. Red = 0, yellow = 60, green = 120, cyan = 180, blue = -120, magenta = -60.

Layer 1 along this dimension corresponds to saturation in range 0.0 to 1.0.

Layer 2 along this dimension corresponds to "value". This has the same range as the RGB values, normally either 0.0 to 1.0 or 0 to 255. If you are casting the result to an integer & want a maximum of 255 then set the maximum to say 255.999. Otherwise you will get few if any 255s.

The result has the same shape as the argument (hsv).

See Foley, vanDam, Feiner and Hughes, Computer Graphics *Principles and Practice*, Second Edition, 1990, ISBN 0201121107 page 593.

Example:

```
% [nap "hsv2rgb {180.0 0.5 100.0}"]
50 100 100
```

isMissing(X)

1 if x misssing, 0 if present.

Example:

```
% [nap "isMissing {0 _ 9}"]
0 1 0
```

isPresent(X)

0 if x misssing, 1 if present.

Example:

```
% [nap "isPresent {0 _ 9}"]
1 0 1
```

magnify_interp(a, mag_factor)

Magnify each dimension of array *a* by factor defined by the corresponding element of *mag_factor* if this is a vector. If this is a scalar then every dimension is magnified by the same factor. The new values are estimated using multi-linear interpolation.

This function can be used to make images larger or smaller.

Example:

```
% [nap "magnify_interp({{1 2 3}{4 5 6}}, {1 3})"] value
1.00000 1.33333 1.66667 2.00000 2.33333 2.66667 3.00000
4.00000 4.33333 4.66667 5.00000 5.33333 5.66667 6.00000
```

magnify_nearest(a, mag_factor)

This function is similar to magnify_interp except that the new values are defined by the nearest neighbour rather than interpolation.

Example:

```
% [nap "magnify_nearest({{1 2 3}{4 5 6}}, {1 3})"] value
1 1 2 2 2 3 3
4 4 5 5 5 6 6
```

merid wt(longitude)

Calculate normalised (so sum weights = 1) meridional weights from longitudes.

Example:

```
% [nap "merid_wt {-180 -90 -45 0 90 180}"]
0.125 0.1875 0.125 0.1875 0.25 0.125
```

mixed base(x, b)

Convert scalar value *x* to mixed base defined by vector *b*.

Following example converts 87 inches to yards, feet & inches:

```
% [nap "mixed_base(87, {3 12})"]
2 1 3
```

outer(dyad, y[,x])

Tensor outer-product.

dyad is name of either

- function with two arguments
- binary (dyadic) operator

x is vector

y is vector defaulting to x

Result is cross-product of x and y, applying dyad to each combination of x & y. x & y are the coordinate variables of the result.

Following example produces a multiplication table:

```
% [nap "outer('*', 1 .. 5)"]
1  2  3  4  5
2  4  6  8 10
3  6  9 12 15
4  8 12 16 20
5 10 15 20 25
```

reverse(x[, verb_rank])

Reverse order of items in array x.

Examples:

```
% [nap "reverse {1 9 0 7}"]
7 0 9 1
% [nap "reverse {{1 2 3}{4 5 6}}"]
4 5 6
1 2 3
% [nap "reverse({{1 2 3}{4 5 6}}, 1)"]
3 2 1
6 5 4
```

scaleAxis(xstart, xend[, nmax[, nice]])

Find suitable values for axis of graph.

xstart: 1st data value *xend*: Final data value

nmax: Max. allowable number of elements in result (Default: 10)

nice: Allowable increments (Default: {1 2 5})

Result is the arithmetic progression which:

- is within interval from xstart to xend
- has same order (ascending/descending) as xstart / xend
- has increment equal to element of *nice* times a power (-30 .. 30) of 10
- has at least two elements
- has no more than *nmax* elements if possible
- has as many elements as possible. (Ties are resolved by choosing earlier element in *nice*.)

Example:

```
% [nap "axis = scaleAxis(-370, 580, 10, \{10\ 20\ 25\ 50\})"] value -300 -200 -100 0 100 200 300 400 500
```

scaleAxisSpan(xstart, xend[, nmax[, nice]])

Find suitable values for axis of graph.

xstart: 1st data value *xend*: Final data value

nmax: Max. allowable number of elements in result (Default: 10)

nice: Allowable increments (Default: {1 2 5})

Result is the arithmetic progression which:

- includes the interval from xstart to xend
- has same order (ascending/descending) as xstart / xend
- has increment equal to element of *nice* times a power (-30 ... 30) of 10
- has at least two elements
- has no more than *nmax* elements if possible
- has as many elements as possible. (Ties are resolved by choosing earlier element in *nice*.)

Example:

```
[nap "axis = scaleAxisSpan(-370, 580, 10, {10 20 25 50})"] value -400 -200 0 200 400 600
```

range(a)

Result is 2-element vector containing minimum and maximum of array a.

Example:

```
% [nap "range {{9 -1 -5}{2 9 3}}"]
-5 9
```

tail(x[,n])

If $n \ge 0$ then result is final n elements of x, cycling if n > nels(x).

n defaults to 1.

If n < 0 then result is final nels (x) + n elements of x i.e. drop -n from start.

Example:

```
% [nap "tail({3 1 9 2 7})"]
7
% [nap "tail({3 1 9 2 7}, 2)"]
```

```
2 7
% [nap "tail({3 1 9 2 7}, -2)"]
9 2 7
```

zone_wt(latitude)

Calculate normalised (so sum weights = 1) zonal weights from latitudes.

Example:

```
% [nap "zone_wt(-90 .. 90 ... 30)"] value
0.0334936 0.125 0.216506 0.25 0.216506 0.125 0.0334936
```

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NAP Visualisation using procedure plot_nao

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- 1. Introduction
- 2. <u>Usage</u>
 - 1. Options
- 3. Examples

Introduction

A NAO can be visualised using procedure plot_nao, which can represent it by:

- xy graphs
- barcharts and histograms
- color-coded z images and maps
- tiled images (multiple images on a page)

It is possible to animate color-coded images and xy graphs.

The Tcl code is in the files plot_nao.tcl and plot_nao_procs.tcl.

Usage

plot_nao expression ?options?

Options

- -barwidth *float*: (bar chart only) width of bars in x-coordinate units. (Default: 1.0)
- -buttonCommand *script*: executed when button pressed with z-plots (Default: "lappend Plot_nao:: \${window_id}::save [set Plot_nao::\${window_id}::xyz]")
- -colors *list*: Colors of graph elements (lines). (Default: black red green blue yellow orange purple grey aquamarine beige)
- -filename *string*: Name of output PostScript file.
- -fill 0 or 1: 1 = Scale PostScript to fill page. (Default: 0)

- -gap_height int: height (pixels) of horizontal white gaps (Default: 20)
- -gap_width *int*: width (pixels) of vertical white gaps (Default: 20)
- -geometry *string*: If specified then use to create new toplevel window.
- -height *int*: Desired height (screen units) Type xy/bar: Height of whole window (Default: automatic) Type z: Image height (can be "min max") (Default: NAO dim if within limits)
- -help: Display this help page
- -key int: width (pixels) of image-key. No key if 0 or blank. (Default: 30)
- -labels *list*: Labels of graph elements (lines). (Default: Use element names i.e. y0, y1, y2, ...)
- -menu 0 or 1:0 = Start with menu bar at top hidden. (Default: 1)
- -orientation P, L or A: P = portrait, L = landscape, A = automatic (Default: A)
- -overlay C, L, S, N or "E expression": Define overlay. C = coast, L = land, S = sea, N = none, E = expr (Default: N)
- -ovpal expression: Overlay palette in same form as main palette (Default: black white red green blue)
- -palette *expression*: Main palette defining color map for 2D image. This is matrix with 3 or 4 columns & up to 256 rows. If there are 4 columns then the first gives color indices in range 0 to 255. Values can be whole numbers in range 0 to 255 or fractional values from 0.0 to 1.0. "" = black-to-white. (Default: blue-to-red)
- -paperheight *distance*: E.g. '11i' = 11 inch (Default: '297m' = 297 mm (A4))
- -paperwidth distance: E.g. '8.5i' = 8.5 inch (Default: '210m' = 210 mm (A4))
- -parent string: parent window (Default: "" i.e. create toplevel window)
- -print 0 or 1: 1 = automatic printing (for batch processing) (Default: 0)
- -printer string: name (Default: env(PRINTER) if defined, else any printer)
- -range *expression*: defines scaling (Default: auto scaling)

```
-rank 1, 2 or 3: rank of sub-arrays to be displayed (Default: 3 <<< rank(data))
-scaling 0 or 1: 0 = \text{Start} with scaling widget hidden. (Default: 1)
-symbols list: One for each element. Draw at points. Can be plus, square, circle, cross, splus, scross,
triangle or single character (e.g. "*") (Default: "" i.e. none)
-title string: title (Default: NAO label (if any) else expression)
-type string plot-type ("bar", "xy" or "z") If rank is 1 then default type is "xy". If rank is 2 and n_rows
<= 8 then default type is "xy". If rank is 2 and n_rows > 8 then default type is "z". If rank is 3 then type
is "z" regardless of this option.
-width int: Desired width (screen units) Type xy/bar: Width of whole window (Default: automatic)
Type z: Image width (can be "min max") (Default: NAO dim if within limits)
-xflip 0 or 1: Flip left-right? 0 = no, 1 = yes. (Default: 0)
-xlabel string: x-axis label (Default: name of last dimension)
-yflip 0, 1, ascending or geog: Flip upside down? 0 = \text{no}, 1 = \text{yes}, ascending = "if y ascending",
geog = "if ascending & (y_dim_name = latitude or y_unit = degrees_north (or equivalent))" (Default:
```

-ylabel string: y-axis label (Default: name of 2nd-last dimension)

The height and width used are limited by the screen dimensions.

Examples

geog)

```
plot_nao "reshape(0 .. 199, {200 200})" -geometry +0+0
nap "sales = {{2 5 1}{1 3 8}}"
nap "month = 3 .. 5"
$sales set coord "" month
plot_nao sales -colors "blue red" -symbols "plus cross" -type xy
$sales set label "Car sales"
plot_nao sales -labels "Joe Mary" -type bar
```

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Binary Input/Output Procedures

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Introduction

The following procedures are defined in the file bin_io.tcl.

Reading and Writing Simple Binary Files

A simple binary file is a file containing nothing except data of a single data type.

Procedure get_nao [fileName [dataType [shape]]]

Read NAO from binary file.

filename: file name (default: " " which is treated as stdin) dataType: c8, u8, u16, u32, i8, i16, i32, f32 or f64 shape: shape of result (Default: number of elements until end)

Procedure put_nao [nap_expr [fileName]]

Write NAO to binary file.

nap_expr: NAP expression to be evaluated in caller namespace

fileName: file name (default: stdout)

Reading and Writing Fortran Unformatted Files

Fortran unformatted files are files consisting of binary records preceded and followed by 32-bit byte-counts.

Procedure get_bin dataType [fileId [mode]]

```
Read next Fortran binary (unformatted) record.

dataType: c8, u8, u16, u32, i8, i16, i32, f32 or f64

fileId: Tcl file handle (default: stdin)

mode: binary (default) or swap
```

Procedure put_bin nap_expr [fileId [mode]]

```
Write Fortran binary (unformatted) record.

nap_expr: NAP expression to be evaluated in caller namespace fileId: Tcl file handle (default: stdout)

mode: binary (default) or swap
```

Example

The following example creates a NAO called squares, writes it to a file, then reads the data from this file into a NAO called in.

```
% nap "squares = (0 .. 4)**2"
::NAP::66-66
% $squares all
:: NAP::66-66 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 1 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0
              Size: 5 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
0 1 4 9 16
% set file [open tmp.bin w]; # open file "tmp.bin" for writing
file5
% put_bin squares $file; # write data from squares
% close $file
% set file [open tmp.bin]; # open file "tmp.bin" for reading
file5
% nap "in = [get_bin f32 $file]"; # read data into in
::NAP::78-78
```

```
% close $file
% $in all
::NAP::78-78 f32 MissingValue: NaN References: 1 Unit: (NULL)
Dimension 0 Size: 5 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)
Value:
```

Reading and Writing cif Files

The cif (conmap input file) format is one which originated in the Melbourne University Department of Meteorology in the days before netCDF and HDF. It is now rather obsolete but is still used within CSIRO and other Australian organisations. A cif is a Fortran unformatted file consisting of one or more frames, each of which consists of six records as follows:

- number of rows
- vertical coordinate variable (often latitude)
- number of columns
- horizontal coordinate variable (often longitude)
- title

NAP Library: bin_io.tcl

0 1 4 9 16

• main data (matrix)

The main input procedure is get_cif, which reads one or more matrices from each of one or more cif files. The main output procedure is put_cif, which writes a NAO as an entire cif. These procedures call the low-level procedures get_cifl or put_cifl for each frame.

Procedure get_cif [options] pattern [pattern ...]

Read one or more matrices from each of one or more cif files (whose names are specified by one or more glob patterns). The result is 2D if only one frame is read, otherwise it is 3D. Check whether byte swapping is needed by examining 1st word in file.

Options:

```
-g 0 | 1: 1 (default) for geographic mode, 0 for non-geographic mode
-m real: Input missing value (default: -7777777.0)
-um text: Units for matrix (default: none)
-ux text: Units for x (default: if geographic mode then degrees_east, else none)
-uy text: Units for y (default: if geographic mode then degrees_north, else none)
-x text: Name of dimension x (default: if geographic mode then longitude else x)
-y text: Name of dimension y (default: if geographic mode then latitude else x)
```

The following example reads a single-frame cif named 7.cif into a NAO called in, then displays it (including the coordinate variables).

```
NAP Library: bin_io.tcl
% nap "in = [get_cif 7.cif]"
::NAP::357-357
% $in all
::NAP::357-357
                f32
                     MissingValue: NaN References: 1 Unit: (NULL)
This data originated from ascii conmap input file 'acif.7'
              Size: 3
                            Name: latitude Coordinate-variable: ::
Dimension 0
NAP::236-236
                                             Coordinate-variable: ::
Dimension 1
              Size: 4
                           Name: longitude
NAP::308-308
Value:
 1
   1 2 -3
  _ 3 -4
 1
    0 4
% [nap "coordinate_variable(in,0)"]
-60 30 60
```

Procedure put_cif nap_expr[fileName[mode]]

% [nap "coordinate variable(in,1)"]

Write NAO as entire cif.

-90 30 90 180

nap_expr: NAP expression to be evaluated in caller namespace

fileName: file name (default: stdout)
mode: binary (default) or swap

Procedure get_cif1 [options] fileId

Read next frame from cif (Conmap Input File).

```
Options:
```

```
    -g 0 | 1: 1 (default) for geographic mode, 0 for non-geographic mode
    -m real: Input missing value (default: -7777777.0)
    -s 0 | 1: 0 (default) for binary mode, 1 for swap (byte-swapping) mode
    -um text: Units for matrix (default: none)
    -ux text: Units for x (default: if geographic mode then degrees_east, else none)
    -uy text: Units for y (default: if geographic mode then degrees_north, else none)
    -x text: Name of dimension x (default: if geographic mode then longitude else x)
    -y text: Name of dimension y (default: if geographic mode then latitude else x)
```

The following example reads the first frame of a cif named 7.cif into a NAO called in, then displays it (including the coordinate variables).

```
% set f [open 7.cif]
```

```
NAP Library: bin_io.tcl
file5
% nap "in = [get_cif1 $f]"
::NAP::218-218
% close $f
% $in all
                    MissingValue: NaN References: 1 Unit: (NULL)
::NAP::218-218
                f32
This data originated from ascii conmap input file 'acif.7'
                            Name: latitude Coordinate-variable: ::
Dimension 0
              Size: 3
NAP::97-97
Dimension 1
              Size: 4
                            Name: longitude Coordinate-variable: ::
NAP::169-169
Value:
 1
    1 2 -3
    _ 3 -4
 1
    0 4 5
% ::NAP::97-97
-60 30 60
```

Procedure put_cif1 nap_expr [fileId [mode]]

Write NAO as frame of cif.

% ::NAP::169-169

-90 30 90 180

nap_expr: NAP expression to be evaluated in caller namespace

fileId: Tcl file handle (default: stdout)

mode: binary (default) or swap

Miscellaneous Procedures

Procedure size_of dataType

Number of bytes in *dataType*.

Example:

```
% size_of i16
2
```

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Map Projection Procedures

Introduction

The following procedures are defined in the file projection.tcl.

projection code p0 p1 p2 ...

Define functions projection_x and projection_y for specified map projection.

code is map projection code (default: CylindricalEquidistant) as follows:

- CylindricalEquidistant: p0 = x-origin (default: "")
- Mercator: $p\theta$ = x-origin (default: "")
- NorthPolarEquidistant: North Polar azimuthal equidistant
- SouthPolarEquidistant: South Polar azimuthal equidistant
- SouthPolarStereographic: As used by IASOS

 $p0 \ p1 \ p2 \dots$ define parameters of the projection. Some projections use p0 to specify an "x-origin". This is the minimum result to be returned by projection_x. If x-origin is " " then there is no defined minimum result.

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N-dimensional Array Objects (NAOs)

A NAO is a data structure in memory. A NAO consists of the following components:

slot number

Index of entry in internal table used to provide fast access to NAOs.

sequence number

Number (starting from 1) assigned in order of creation of NAOs.

OOC-name

Name of object-oriented command associated with NAO. Also used as unique identifier of NAO. reference count

Number of Tcl variables, NAOs, windows, etc. pointing to this NAO. If the count decrements to 0 then NAP deletes the NAO and its associated OOC.

nap_cd

pointer to NAP structure created for each interpreter.

dataType

one of the following:

Name	Description
c8	8-bit character
i8	8-bit signed integer
i16	16-bit signed integer
i32	32-bit signed integer
u8	8-bit unsigned integer
u16	16-bit unsigned integer
u32	32-bit unsigned integer
f32	32-bit floating-point
f32	64-bit floating-point
ragged	compressed
boxed	slot numbers (used as pointers to NAOs)

step

An efficiency hint for searching vectors. If this component is undefined before a search then NAP defines it according to whether the vector is

- o unordered
- o sorted into ascending order
- o sorted into descending order
- o quasi-arithmetic-progression i.e. a vector all of whose steps are equal, except possibly the

final one which may be shorter.

mortal

This is set FALSE for NAOs (e.g. standard missing values) which must not be deleted regardless of reference count.

label

Text containing title, description of data, etc.

unit

Text defining unit of measure.

rank

number of dimensions.

nels

number of elements = product(shape).

nbytes

number of bytes in NAO. Mainly for debugging.

link slot

slot number (0 = none) of link NAO, which can be used to attach further information to a NAO (possibly via a boxed NAO which could link to any number of further NAOs).

next slot

used internally to create NAO *death list* when executing a Tcl procedure defining a NAP function. (0 = none)

missing value slot

slot number (0=none) of missing-value NAO.

pointer to missing value

pointer to missing value NAO (for fast access).

pointer to missing value function

This function tests whether an element of a NAO is missing.

ragged start slot number

slot number (0=none) of vector NAO giving start index of each row of ragged array.

shape

sizes of dimensions.

dimension names

names (if any) of dimensions.

coordinate-variable slot numbers

slot numbers (0 = none) of CVs.

data

Main data.

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Interfacing NAP to a DLL based on C or Fortran Code

Table of Contents

- 1. Introduction
- 2. <u>make_dll_options newCommand argDec argDec argDec ...</u>
- 3. <u>make_dll_i</u> options newCommand argDec argDec argDec ...

Introduction

The file make_dll.tcl defines procedures for automatically producing an interface from NAP to a *DLL* (*dynamic-link library* or *shared library*) based on C or Fortran Code. This process defines a new tcl command which can either be used directly or via another interface (written in Tcl) defining a NAP function.

make_dll options newCommand argDec argDec argDec ...

This is the standard procedure used to create a DLL.

newCommand is name of new command.

Each argument-declaration *argDec* is a list with the form {name dataType intent} where

- name is any string (used only in error messages)
- dataType can be: c8 i8 u8 i16 u16 i32 u32 f32 f64 void
- *intent* can be: in (default) or inout. Actual in arguments can be expressions of any type (including ragged) and will be converted to the specified type (unless this is void).

options are:

- -quiet: Do not echo commands.
- -compile command: C compile-command with options
- -dll **fileName**: output filename for DLL (default: *newCommand*.dll for windows, *newCommand*.so for unix)
- -entry: User-routine entry-point (default: *newCommand*). Note that fortran entry points often include suffix '_'.
- -header **fileName**: header (* . h) filename (default: none)
- -libs **fileNames**: filenames of extra binary libraries (default: none)
- -link command: Link-command with options
- -object fileName: User-routine object-file (default: newCommand.obj for windows,

```
newCommand . o for unix)
```

```
-source fileName: Output file containing C source code of interface (default: newCommand_i.c) -version: Version number (default: 1.0)
```

The following example (under Linux) defines a new NAP function partialProd which calculates partial-products. This is analogous to the standard nap function psum which calculates partial sums. The new function is based on the following C file pprod.c:

```
void pprod(int *n, float *x, float *result) {
   int
               i;
         prod = 1;
   float
   for (i = 0; i < *n; i++) {
       result[i] = prod = prod * x[i];
% exec cc -c -o pprod.o pprod.c
% make_dll pprod {n i32 in} {x f32} {y f32 inout}
cc -I/home/dav480/tcl/include -c pprod_i.c
ld -shared -o libpprod.so pprod_i.o pprod.o
% load ./libpprod.so
% proc partialProd x {
    set result [nap "reshape(0f, shape(x))"]
    pprod "nels(x)" x result
    return $result
% [nap "partialProd({2 1.5 3 0.5})"]
2 3 9 4.5
```

You can do the same thing in fortran 90 using the following source code:

```
subroutine pprod(n, x, result)
  integer, intent(in) :: n
  real, intent(in) :: x(n)
  real, intent(out) :: result(n)
  integer :: i
  real :: prod
  prod = 1.0
  do i = 1, n
      prod = prod * x(i)
      result(i) = prod
```

```
NAP Library: make_dll.tcl
end do
end subroutine pprod
```

The following log was produced using the Linux Lahey f95 compiler. (Note that the entry point is pprod_)

```
% exec 1f95 -c pprod.f90
Compiling file pprod.f90.
Compiling program unit pprod at line 1:
/home/dav480/tmp/asm03529aaa.s: Assembler messages:
/home/dav480/tmp/asm03529aaa.s:86: Warning: translating to `fstp %st'
/home/dav480/tmp/asm03529aaa.s:90: Warning: translating to `fstp %st'
% make_dll -entry pprod_ pprod {n i32 in} {x f32} {y f32 inout}
cc -I/home/dav480/tcl/include -c pprod_i.c
ld -shared -o libpprod.so pprod_i.o pprod.o
% load ./libpprod.so
% proc partialProd x {
    set result [nap "reshape(0f, shape(x))"]
    pprod "nels(x)" x result
    return $result
% [nap "partialProd({2 1.5 3 0.5})"]
2 3 9 4.5
```

make_dll_i options newCommand argDec argDec argDec ...

Make NAP C interface to user's C function or Fortran subroutine. This procedure is normally used via make_dll, but may be used directly if you prefer to do your own compiling and linking. The result of make_dll_i is the C code.

The arguments are similar to make_dll, except that the only options are:

-entry: User-routine entry-point (default: *newCommand*). Note that fortran entry points often include suffix ' '.

-header fileName: header (* . h) filename (default: none)

-version: Version number (default: 1.0)

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NAP Photo Image Format

NAP defines a new photo image format. This enables one to use the "image create photo" command to produce a photo image from a NAO. One can also use the photo image write operation to produce a NAO from a photo image.

The data type of the NAO is normally u8 (8-bit unsigned integer). Any other type will be converted to u8.

The rank can be 2 or 3. A matrix gives a grey-scale image. Colour requires three dimensions. In this case there normally are three layers corresponding to red, green and blue. If there are only two layers then the first is used for both red and green (which together give yellow).

The name of the new photo image format is "NAO".

The following example (input only shown) creates and displays a grey-scale photo image from a u8 matrix:

```
nap "u = u8(reshape(0 .. 255, 2 # 255))"
set i [image create photo -format NAO -data $u]
button .b -image $i
pack .b
```

The following example (input only shown) creates and displays a colour photo image from a three-dimensional u8 array. It then writes this image to a GIF file named "n.gif".

```
destroy .b
nap "u = u8(reshape({32768#0 65536#255}, {3 2#256}))"
set i [image create photo -format NAO -data $u]
button .b -image $i
pack .b
$i write n.gif -format GIF
```

The following example (input and output shown) first creates a photo image by reading this GIF file named "n.gif". Then a new NAO is created and assigned the name "abc".

```
% set pi [image create photo -file n.gif]
image8
% $pi write abc -format NAO
% $abc header
```

::NAP::2790-2790 u8 MissingValue: (NULL) References: 1 Unit:

(NULL)

Dimension 0 Size: 3 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL) Dimension 1 Size: 256 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL) Dimension 2 Size: 256 Name: (NULL) Coordinate-variable: (NULL)

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