

 Macintosh®

Allegro Common LISP



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Introduction

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Introduction

Allegro CL is a complete implementation of the Common Lisp standard, with additional programming and Macintosh interface tools. It is based on the specification described in *Common Lisp the Language* by Guy Steele (Digital Press 1984), taking into account clarifications which have occurred since the book's publication.

For details on our implementation, and our approach to situations not clearly defined by Common Lisp, see the appendix Implementation Notes.

This manual assumes some knowledge of Common Lisp the Macintosh user interface. If you don't know anything about the Macintosh, read through the *Macintosh User's Guide* and try out some simple Macintosh applications, such as MacWrite™ and MacPaint™. For information on Lisp, consider some of the books in the bibliography at the end of the manual.

Documentation

Common Lisp: the Language should be used as the primary reference for the Common Lisp features of Allegro CL. The information in *Common Lisp: the Language* is not duplicated in the Allegro CL manual. Tutorials and other reference works on Common Lisp are listed in the bibliography.

Information regarding installation and use of Macintosh computers can be found in the *Macintosh User's Guide*. Technical information on the Macintosh can be found in *Inside Macintosh* volumes 1-5 (Addison Wesley, 1985-87). Because Allegro CL adds a high-level programming interface to many Macintosh system routines, you may not need to use *Inside Macintosh* at all. However, it does provide good background material, and is probably indispensable for programming Macintosh features which Allegro CL does not provide at a high level.

The information specific to Allegro CL is described in this manual. The documentation covers the Allegro CL environment (editing, evaluating, etc), language extensions (file system extensions and Object Lisp), Macintosh tools, and implementation notes (information on the compiler, and Allegro CL's approach to ambiguities in Common Lisp).

Running Allegro CL

Hardware Requirements

To run Allegro CL you will need a Macintosh Plus, Macintosh SE, or Macintosh II. Allegro CL requires 1 megabyte of RAM and 1.6 megabytes of disk storage (though 2 megabytes of RAM and a hard disk are recommended). It will currently take advantage of up to 8 megabytes of RAM, the limit imposed by the Macintosh operating system.

Allegro CL has been tested and works with the Levco Prodigy-4, General Computer's HyperCharger, and E-Machines' Big-Picture monitor. It has not been tested with other hardware add-ons, but should run on these without problems. Allegro CL runs approximately 5-times faster on a Macintosh II than it does on a 68000-based Macintosh.

System Software Configuration

Allegro CL has been designed to run the Macintosh System version 4.1 and Finder 5.5. These are the versions provided on the Allegro CL disks. It should also run on newer versions of the system software as they are released by Apple.

Installing Allegro CL

Allegro CL comes on 2 double sided disks.

- Disk A contains three directories. The first is a system folder containing Macintosh System 4.1 and Finder 5.5. The second is the ccl-docs directory, which contains files used by the Allegro CL help system and other useful text documents. The third is the Library folder, containing example and utility files.
- Disk B contains Allegro CL and a file named init.lisp. The init.lisp file is automatically loaded when you launch Allegro CL. The contents of this file may be changed by the user.

You should not run Allegro CL from the original disk. Instead, copy it to a hard disk (the preferable solution) or make a working copy on another floppy. If possible, the Allegro CL application, the init.lisp file, and the ccl-doc and Library folders should all reside in the same folder. The original disks should be kept as back-ups. Allegro CL is not copy-protected, so it can be copied easily.

Launching Allegro CL

To launch Allegro CL, double-click on the Allegro CL icon. This will load the kernel, initialize the Lisp system, and load the file init.lisp or init.fasl (if one of these is present). When this is done, you will be presented with the Allegro CL menubar, a Listener window, and a welcome message.

You can also launch Allegro CL by double-clicking an Allegro CL document. When this is done Allegro CL is started and the document is loaded. In this case, no init file is loaded.

You may wish to turn off the RAM cache and remove memory-hungry inits before starting Allegro CL. When running under MultiFinder, Allegro CL should be given a partition of at least 1 megabyte.

Overview

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Getting Started

Overview

This chapter describes the basic information you'll need to get started programming in Allegro CL. It describes the Allegro CL environment and the functions found in the menubar.

The Allegro CL Environment

Allegro CL provides an integrated programming environment built around a Lisp listener, Emacs-style editor, and window- and menu-based programming tools.

If you are familiar with the Macintosh user interface, you can probably start working in Allegro CL with little instruction. However, there are a few things to keep in mind:

The Lisp Listener

The Lisp listener is a special window designed for interactive Lisp programming.

- Text entered into the listener by the user is in boldface. Text printed by Allegro CL is in a plain typeface.
- Interaction occurs at the bottom of the listener. The upper portions of the listener provide a transcript history.
- Typing RETURN drops the caret (i.e. the insertion point) to the bottom of the listener. If there is a selection, the selection is copied down to the bottom of the listener. If there is no selection, the text surrounding the caret is copied down only if it is boldface (i.e. if it was typed by the user), not if it is plain (i.e. printed by Allegro CL).
- Typing ENTER performs both copy-down and evaluation.
- When at the bottom of the listener, typing RETURN from a complete Lisp expression evaluates the expression. If the expression is not complete (e.g. there are unmatched parentheses or quotes), a carriage return is inserted and no evaluation takes place.
- CONTROL-RETURN inserts line-breaks in the listener without causing evaluation or drop-down. This is useful when expressions do not fit comfortably on a single line. (However, such expressions might be more conveniently edited in a non-listener editor window).
- All Fred editor commands work from the listener.
- The listener may be closed, like any other window. If there is no listener, any attempt to output to the listener will create a new listener. Closing the listener purges its buffer, which can be useful if a large buffer begins to retard listener performance.

Evaluating Lisp Expressions

- Expressions can be evaluated from any editing window. They do not have to be copied to the listener for evaluation. Simply select the expression or place the caret at the end of an expression, and type ENTER or choose the Eval menu-item from the Eval menu.
- Allegro CL uses an incremental compiler. In the default mode, evaluation of function definitions actually causes compilation (provided there are no lexically apparent bindings); expressions other than definitions are evaluated. To turn off auto-compilation of definitions set `*compile-definitions*` to nil.

The Environment

- When the user double-clicks the Allegro CL icon, Allegro CL attempts to load a file called "init.lisp" or "init.fasl" from its home folder (i.e. the folder containing Allegro CL). If both files are found, the more recent one is loaded. The init file can be used to create a default initial environment. For example, it can set the state of various system parameters, load utility files, etc.
- The user may also double click an Allegro CL file. In this case, Allegro CL is launched, and the file is loaded.

- There are several parameters used to control the environment. These can be set in the normal Lisp fashion, in an init file, or from the **Print Options...** and **Environment...** menu-items, available through the **Tools** menu. These parameters are described in the System Parameters appendix.
- Functions are loaded into main memory as they are needed. There may be slight pauses as functions are first loaded in from disk. Garbage collection purges any Allegro CL functions which are not currently on the stack. This "load on call" mechanism allows Allegro CL to operate with extremely modest memory requirements.
- On systems with sufficient memory, function purging can be disabled by calling `(purge-functions nil)`. Purging can be re-enabled by calling `(purge-functions t)`. All functions can be pre-loaded into memory by calling `(preload-all-functions)`. See the appendix Implementation Notes for details.
- During garbage collection, Lisp operation pauses and the cursor turns into the letters "GC". Garbage collection can be invoked manually by calling the procedure `gc`.
- Allegro CL has a pseudo multi-tasking system. This allows editing and other operations to occur while Lisp code is running (e.g. during evaluation and compilation). Allegro CL never puts up the Macintosh watch cursor. When Allegro CL is in the eval phase of the read/print/eval loop (i.e. when it is executing rather than reading) the **About Allegro CL...** menu-item will be preceded by a diamond.
- Certain Allegro CL tasks are non-interruptible, including garbage collection and event processing (such as menu-item-action processing). During these operations no other functions can be performed.
- Lisp operations—besides those which are non-interruptible—can be stopped by typing `clover-` (clover period). This will return control to the top level listener loop, or will enter a break loop if `*break-on-errors*` is non-`nil`. The user can define a synonym for `clover-` by setting `*abort-character*` to the desired character.
- Allegro CL has an elegant method for specifying directories with logical pathnames. These are described in a section of the File System chapter.

Note on the Clover Key

The Allegro CL environment attempts to conform to both Macintosh and Emacs standards. The largest problem is in the use of keyboard modifier keys. (Shift and control are examples of modifier keys. They do not register as keystrokes, but are only used to modify the values of other keystrokes.) Older Macintosh computers do not provide a control key. The following method is used to work around this limitation. (Note: in the discussion below, "clover-key" refers to the physical key on the keyboard, "command" refers to the logical modifier key used to invoke menu-items, and "control" refers to the logical modifier key used to invoke Fred commands.)

Allegro CL can operate in two modes: Macintosh mode and Emacs mode. In Emacs mode, the clover key is used as control, and shift-clover is used as command. In Macintosh mode, the clover key is used as command, and shift-clover is used as control. If there is no menu-item for a given character, clover and shift-clover will both be interpreted as control.

The global variable `*emacs-mode*` determines whether Allegro CL is in Macintosh or Emacs mode. Allegro CL originally comes up in Macintosh mode.

The physical control key is supported on those Macintoshes which provide one.

Note on the Clipboard and Kill-Ring

Allegro CL integrates the Macintosh clipboard with the Emacs kill-ring. The clipboard is taken to be the top item in the kill-ring. Commands which move text to the clipboard also move it to the top

of the kill-ring, and vice-versa. This mechanism functions properly with all Macintosh requirements, such as the ability to copy and paste between applications. For Macintosh users, the kill-ring can be thought of as a multi-level clipboard.

The Menubar

This section describes the options available through the Allegro CL menubar. Note that the menubar can be customized by the user (for details see the Menus chapter). This section describes the menubar that appears when an unmodified version of Allegro CL is booted.

Command-key equivalents for menu-items are noted after the menu-item name.

Apple Menu

About Allegro CL...

[Menu Item]

displays a dialog box showing the version number of Allegro CL. Also gives the version numbers of the Macintosh ROM and system file.

The remainder of the **Apple** menu contains desk accessories. These are described in the *Macintosh User's Manual*.

File Menu

New (command-n)

[Menu Item]

creates an editor window for a new file.

Open... (command-o)

[Menu Item]

allows the user to select a text file, and creates a new editor window for the file.

Open Selected File

[Menu Item]

is only enabled when there is a selection in the top editor buffer. It attempts to parse this selection as a pathname; if successful, it creates an editor window for the pathname's file. The title of this menu-item will change to reflect the contents of the current selection.

Close

[Menu Item]

closes the active window. If text in the window has been edited since the last time it was saved, a dialog box will appear asking if you want to save or throw away the changes.

Save (command-s)

[Menu Item]

saves the contents of the active window into the file named in the window's title bar. If the window is not yet associated with a disk file, Save As... is invoked.

Save As...

[Menu Item]

allows the user to specify a directory and file name, and saves the contents of the active window to that directory/file name.

Revert

[Menu Item]

reverts the window to the last version saved to disk. Before the reversion occurs, you will be asked to verify that you *really* want to revert to the last version saved.

Page Setup... [Menu Item]
allows the user to set printing options for the current hardcopy device.

Print (command-p) [Menu Item]
prints the contents of the active window to the currently selected hardcopy device.

Quit [Menu Item]
closes all open windows and exits the Lisp environment. If there are any modified and unsaved editing windows, you are given a chance to save them.

Edit Menu

Undo (command-z) [Menu Item]
undoes the last editor command. This does not work for all commands (it will be disabled at times when it will not work). In general, Undo works for insertions and deletions, but not for caret movement. The name of this menu-item may change depending on context.

Cut (command-x) [Menu Item]
deletes the selected region and pushes it onto the kill-ring/clipboard.

Copy (command-c) [Menu Item]
copies the selected region to the top of the kill-ring/clipboard.

Paste (command-v) [Menu Item]
replaces the current selection with the text on the top of the kill-ring (i.e. with the contents of the clipboard). If there is no current selection, the text is simply inserted.

Clear [Menu Item]
deletes the current selection. The deleted text is not saved anywhere, and the kill-ring/clipboard is not altered.

Select All (command-a) [Menu Item]
selects the entire contents of the active window.

Insert Killed String... [Menu Item]
shows a dialog box of the strings in the kill-ring. The user may select one for insertion in the top editor buffer.

Search (command-f) [Menu Item]
brings up a search/replace dialog box.

Change Font [Menu Item]
allows the user to change the font, font-size, and font-style of the top editor buffer. This menu-item will be disabled if the top window is not a Fred window.

Eval Menu

Eval Selection (command-e) [Menu Item]
evaluates the current selection in the top editing buffer. If there is no selection and the caret is next

to a close parenthesis, the expression bounded by the parenthesis is evaluated. If `*compile-definitions*` is non-`nil` (and there are no lexically apparent bindings), function definitions will be compiled rather than evaluated. If `*fast-eval*` is non-`nil` the expression may be compiled and executed.

Eval Buffer*[Menu Item]*

evaluates the entire contents of the top editing buffer. If `*compile-definitions*` is non-`nil` (and there are no lexically apparent bindings), definitions will be compiled rather than evaluated. This is equivalent to **Select All** followed by **Eval Selection**.

Load..*[Menu Item]*

allows the user to select a file for loading into Allegro CL. Both text and fasl files may be loaded.

Compile File...*[Menu Item]*

allows the user to select a file for compilation. The user will be asked to specify both the source and destination files.

Tools Menu**List Definitions***[Menu Item]*

brings up a modeless dialog box containing a table of all the definitions in the top editor buffer. The user can select a definition, and the buffer will scroll to that definition. When the dialog is the top window, typing the name of a definition causes the table to scroll to the entry for that definition.

Edit Definition...*[Menu Item]*

allows the user to enter a symbol name, and attempts to find the source code for the definition of the symbol.

Apropos...*[Menu Item]*

performs apropos on a string entered by the user. The user can specify several options for filtering the symbols returned.

Inspect*[Menu Item]*

brings up the inspector control dialog box. (See the Debugging chapter for details).

Backtrace*[Menu Item]*

this item is only enabled when Allegro CL is in a break loop. Selecting it brings up a stack backtrace. (See the Debugging chapter for details.)

Documents...*[Menu Item]*

opens up a standard file dialog to the `ccl-docs` folder. This folder contains text files with information on Common Lisp, and text files used by the Allegro CL help system.

Fred Commands*[Menu Item]*

brings up a window of Fred keyboard commands. The commands shown are calculated at run time from `*comtab*` (see the chapter Programming Fred for a description of `comtabs`).

Print Options...*[Menu Item]*

brings up a dialog box which allows the user to set the values of several Lisp printer parameters.

Environment...*[Menu Item]*

brings up a dialog box which allows the user to set the values of several global variables which effect the Allegro CL environment.

Windows Menu

The titles of all visible windows appear as items in this menu. The menu is ordered by window layer (i.e. the front window is the top menu-item and the back window is the bottom menu-item). To activate a window, select its menu-item. Editor buffers which have been changed and not saved have a cross next to their names. The menu-item of the front window is dimmed and cannot be selected. The listener menu-item has the command-key equivalent command-l.

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Fred the Editor

Overview

In the Allegro CL programming environment, Fred (Fred Resembles Emacs Deliberately) plays the star role of editor. Fred is a combination of the standard Macintosh multiple window text-editor and Emacs. If you are familiar with other editors on the Macintosh (such as MacWrite or QUED), you can skip the section on Macintosh-style editing. Following the Macintosh section is a section describing Fred's Emacs-style capabilities. Documentation for programming Fred is provided in the chapter Programming Fred.

Fred and Packages

Every Fred window has an associated package. Expressions evaluated from the window are evaluated in the window's package. If the window's package is `nil`, then `*package*` is used. (Note that the declaration `in-package` effects `*package*`. If a window has an associated package, `in-package` declarations will not effect evaluation of expressions from the window.)

A window's package may be set in one of two ways:

- Through a mode line at the start of the buffer. This method only works if the mode line is present when the buffer is opened. Only the package declaration in the mode line is parsed. The other declarations are ignored.

The mode line, if present, must be the first non-empty line in the buffer. It begins with a comment character (semi-colon), followed by `--`, followed by the package declaration. For example, the following mode line would cause evaluations in a buffer to take place in the `QUUX` package.

```
;;; -- package: QUUX  --
```

- Through the function `set-window-package`. This is an object function defined for Fred windows. It takes a single argument, which should be a package or a symbol.

You can find the package associated with a window through the window object function `window-package`.

Editing Macintosh Style

At first glance, Fred looks just like a normal Macintosh editor.

Menus

Many Fred commands are invoked through menus. These commands are described in the chapter Getting Started.

Windows

All Fred editing takes place inside windows. Window movement and scrolling commands conform to Macintosh standards.

- Select a window by moving the mouse into it and clicking. This brings it to the front and makes it the active window.

- Scroll a window horizontally and vertically
by using the scroll bars at the bottom and right edge of the window respectively, or by dragging the thumb.
- Move the window
by moving the cursor to the window's title bar, holding down the mouse button, and moving the mouse to a new location on the screen.
- Resize a window
by moving the mouse to the grow-box in the lower right corner of the window, holding down the mouse button, and dragging to a new location.
- Toggle between full-screen and a smaller size
by clicking in the zoom-box in the upper-right corner of the window. This is called 'zooming' the window. The full-screen size can be customized. See the Windows chapter for details.
- Close a window
by clicking the mouse in the close-box in the upper-left corner of the window, or by choosing Close from the File menu.
- A small cross appears on the left side of the file name in the window's title bar to indicate that the window has been altered since the last time the buffer was saved. The cross also appears next to the window's title in the Windows menu. A quick look at the Windows menu will let you know if *any* windows have been modified and not saved.
- You can cut, copy, and paste text between different windows (including the listener).

The Caret

The caret (also known as the *insertion-point* and sometimes known as the *cursor*) is shown by a flashing vertical bar between characters. As distinguished from text editors on other computers, the caret is not *on* a character—it is between two adjacent characters. BACKSPACE deletes the character to the left of the caret. Text insertion moves the caret to the right.

- Move the caret to a location
by moving the mouse to a new location and clicking.
- Select a region
by dragging the mouse through the region with the mouse-button down.

A selection can be extended by holding the shift key and clicking.

Regions larger than the window can be selected by holding down the mouse button and moving outside the edge of the window. The window will auto-scroll.

You can select a Lisp expression by positioning the mouse at a close-parenthesis and double-clicking.

You can select a word by positioning the mouse over the word and double-clicking. After selecting a word with a double-click, dragging the mouse extends the selection along word boundaries.

Inserting text when there is a selection causes the selection to be replaced by the new text.

Editing Emacs Style

Fred commands have been defined with care to conform to Emacs conventions. The exceptions are primarily due to the Macintosh standards and keyboard limitations.

Control, Command, Option and Meta

Combining Macintosh capabilities and Emacs capabilities requires some creative use of the Macintosh keyboard. The Macintosh does not have a meta key, and only the most recent Macintoshes have a control key. To get around this, Allegro CL uses the following system:

- The option key is used as the meta key.
To access the Macintosh's optional character set, type control-q, and then type the desired option-character. For the first character following control-q, option will not be treated as meta.
- The clover key and shift clover key are used for control and command.
In Macintosh-mode, the clover key is used for command, and shift-clover is used for control. In Emacs-mode, the mapping is reversed. For details, see the note on the clover key in the chapter Getting Started.

The function names given are accessible as object functions defined for windows.

Documentation Conventions

- C** stands for Control (either clover or shift-clover. See the note on commands keys in the menubar section of this chapter.)
- M** stands for Meta (the option key)
- current expression** stands for the region selected by the user, if any. If no region is selected and the caret is next to a parenthesis, the current expression is between that parenthesis and the matching parenthesis. If no region is selected and the cursor is inside a symbol, the symbol is taken as the current expression. In other cases, the current expression is considered to be nil.

Help Functions

- C-** (ed-help) brings up the Fred help window. This window contains a list of all Fred keyboard commands available in the current comtab. It may be searched and printed.
- C==** (ed-what-cursor-position) prints information about the current buffer.
- M-.** (ed-edit-definition) attempts to bring up the source code (and surrounding file) for the symbol surrounding the caret. If the symbol was defined from more than one source code the user is given a choice of definitions.
This function works for most forms defined with a call to defxxx with *record-source-files* non-nil.
- C-x C-a** (ed-arglist) attempts to print the argument list of the function bound to the symbol surrounding the caret.
This works for Common Lisp functions, and for most forms defined with a call to defxxx with *record-source-files* turned on.

- C-x C-d** (ed-get-documentation) attempts to print the documentation string of the function bound to the symbol surrounding the caret.
This works for most forms defined with a call to defxxx with *save-doc-strings* turned on.
- C-x C-i** (ed-inspect-current-sexp) inspects the current expression.

Movement

- LEFTARROW** (ed-backward-char) moves the caret back one character.
- RIGHTARROW** (ed-forward-char) moves the caret forward one character.
- UPARROW** (ed-previous-line) moves the caret up one line.
- DOWNARROW** (ed-next-line) moves the caret down one line.
- C-b** (ed-backward-char) moves the caret back one character.
- C-f** (ed-forward-char) moves the caret forward one character.
- M-b** (ed-backward-word) moves the caret back one word.
- M-f** (ed-forward-word) moves the caret forward one word.
- C-M-b** (ed-backward-sexp) moves the caret back one expression.
- C-M-f** (ed-forward-sexp) moves the caret forward one expression.
- C-a** (ed-beginning-of-line) moves the caret to the beginning of the line.
- C-e** (ed-end-of-line) moves the caret to the end of the line.
- C-p** (ed-previous-line) moves the caret up one line.
- C-n** (ed-next-line) moves the caret down one line.
- M-v** (ed-previous-screen) scrolls towards the top of the text by a window-full and moves the cursor to the upper left corner of the window. The number of lines to be retained after scrolling is determined by *next-screen-context-lines*.
- C-v** (ed-next-screen) scrolls towards the bottom of the text by a window-full and moves the cursor to the upper left corner of the window. The number of lines to be retained after scrolling is determined by *next-screen-context-lines*.
- M-<** (ed-beginning-of-buffer) moves the caret to the beginning of the buffer.
- M->** (ed-end-of-buffer) moves the caret to the end of the buffer.
- M-)** (ed-move-over-close-and-reindent) moves the caret over the next close parenthesis and into position for typing the next Lisp expression.
- C-x h** (select-all) selects the entire buffer.

Insertion

- RETURN** (ed-self-insert) inserts a new line and puts the caret at the beginning of that line.
- C-o** (ed-open-line) inserts a new line without moving the caret.
- TAB** (ed-indent-for-lisp) re-indents the current line.
- C-M-q** (ed-indent-sexp) re-indents the current expression.
- C-RETURN** (ed-newline-and-indent) is equivalent to RETURN followed by TAB.
- C-y** (ed-yank) inserts (yanks) the current kill-ring string into the buffer at the caret. If there is a selected region, it is replaced with the inserted text.

M-y	(ed-insert-killed-string-from-menu) brings up a menu of the strings in the kill-ring, allows the user to pick a string from it, and inserts it into the buffer at the caret. If there is a selected region, it is replaced with the inserted text.
C-q	(ed-insert-quoted) allows access to the Macintosh optional character set. For a single keystroke following C-q, the Option key will not be translated into meta. For example, inserting the bullet sign (normally the Option-8 keystroke) is accomplished by the keystrokes C-q and M-8. By itself, M-8 would cause Fred to look for a command. C-q can also be used for inserting control characters—such as tabs—into buffers.
M-"	(ed-insert-double-quotes) inserts a set of double quotes and puts the caret in between them.
M-#	(ed-insert-sharp-comment) inserts # # and puts the caret in between them.
M-(	(ed-insert-parentheses) inserts a set of parentheses and puts the caret in between them.
M-U	(ed-upcase-word) upper-cases the current word or selection. (Because of the design of the Macintosh, this should be typed with the shift-key held down.)
M-l	(ed-downcase-word) lower-cases the current word or selection
M-c	(ed-capitalize-word) capitalizes the current word or selection
C-t	(ed-transpose-chars) transposes the two characters surrounding the caret. If there is a selection, the first character in the selection is transposed with the character before the selection.

Deletion

BACKSPACE	(ed-rubout-char) deletes the character to the left of the caret.
M-BACKSPACE	(ed-rubout-word) deletes the word to the left of the caret. If the caret is inside a word, only the portion of the word to the left of the caret is deleted.
C-d	(ed-delete-char) deletes the character to the right of the caret.
M-d	(ed-delete-word) deletes the word to the right of the caret. If the caret is inside a word, only the portion of the word to the right of the caret is deleted.
C-M-BACKSPACE	(ed-delete-bwd-delimiters) deletes backward delimiters. This works when caret is behind (...) or "..." or # ... # .
C-M-d	(ed-delete-fwd-delimiters) deletes forward delimiters. Works when the caret is in front of (...) or "..." or # ... # .
C-w	(cut) deletes the current selection, adding it to the kill-ring.
M-w	(ed-copy-region-as-kill) pushes current expression onto the kill-ring. The expression is not deleted from the buffer.
C-k	(ed-kill-line) kills (deletes) the selected region or the remainder of the line containing the caret, adding it to the kill-ring. If the caret is at the end of a line, the following RETURN is deleted.
C-M-k	(ed-kill-sexp) kills the current expression, adding it to the kill-ring.

Lisp Operations

ENTER	(ed-eval-or-compile-current-sexp) evaluates the current expression. If *compile-definitions* is t (and there are no lexically apparent bindings) then definitions will be compiled rather than evaluated.
--------------	---

- C-x C-c** (ed-compile-top-level-sexp) compiles the current selection or the current top-level Lisp expression. The current top-level Lisp-expression is determined heuristically by searching backwards for an open parenthesis at the start of a line.
- C-x C-e** (ed-eval-current-sexp) evaluates the current expression.
- C-m** (ed-macroexpand-1-current-sexp) macroexpands the current expression with macroexpand. The result of each call to macroexpand-1 is printed in the listener.
- C-x C-m** (ed-macroexpand-current-sexp) macroexpands the current expression and pretty-prints the result into the listener. The expansion is done as if by a macroexpand.
- C-x C-r** (ed-read-current-sexp) reads the current expression and pretty-prints the result into the listener. This command is useful for checking read-time bugs, especially for those expressions containing backquotes.
- C-M-SPACE** (ed-select-current-sexp) selects the current expression.

Windows

- C-s** (wfind) brings up the search dialog box.
- C-x C-s** (window-save) saves the contents of the top Fred window to its associated disk file. If there is no file associated with the window, the user will be requested to supply a file name.
- C-x C-w** (window-save-as) saves the contents of the top Fred window to file specified by the user.
- C-x C-v** (edit-select-file) allows the user to select a text file and opens up a Fred window for editing that file.

Miscellaneous

The following keys are used by the Macintosh to implement a function key feature. These are invoked by typing `clover-shift-n`, where *n* is a number between 0 and 9. Four standard function keys are provided with the Macintosh. Additional function keys are available through commercial and other sources.

- clover-shift-1** ejects the internal floppy disk.
- clover-shift-2** ejects the external floppy disk.
- clover-shift-3** save current screen as MacPaint® file.
- clover-shift-4** if the current hardcopy device is a non-networked ImageWriter®, prints current window (including window-frame). If the caps-lock key is depressed, the entire screen is printed.

- clover-.** clover-period is used as the abort key. It can be typed to interrupt program execution.

In addition to the keyboard commands listed above, many menu items can be invoked through the keyboard. See the chapter Getting Started for details.

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Object Lisp

Overview

In traditional programming methods, a series of procedures is used to operate on a set of data. The procedures and the data are stored separately. Object-oriented programming combines procedures and data into discrete units called *objects*. An object contains data as well as procedures which know how to operate on the data. When you want to perform some operation on the data, you ask the object to do it. The object knows how, so you don't need to specify the operation in more detail. You can create multiple *instances* of an object; each one has its own data, but they all have the same procedures (i.e. they all know how to do the same things).

Object-oriented programming is a powerful metaphor for simplifying many programming tasks. Object-oriented programming increases *modularity*, so it helps keep program units from interfering with each other. It aids in hiding complexity, because once an object is implemented it can be used without extensive knowledge of its internal workings. It facilitates the re-use of code, because new objects can easily inherit the capabilities of old objects.

Allegro CL currently supports an object-oriented programming system (oops) called *Object Lisp*. Object Lisp is elegant, and very easy to use. It supports multiple-inheritance, a feature missing from many oops'.

The Common Lisp community is standardizing on an oops called CLOS (Common Lisp Object System). CLOS is largely derived from Common Loops, with additions from Flavors and Object Lisp. Future releases of Allegro CL will support CLOS. At that point native support of Object Lisp may be phased out, to be replaced by an implementation built on top of CLOS. The current implementation of Object Lisp has not been optimized for speed. It is suitable for implementing user-interface tools (its main function in Allegro CL), but in other areas performance may become a problem. We don't recommend using Object Lisp in large, time-critical portions of systems.

Tutorial

Objects as Containers

Objects act as containers for variables and procedures. The variables and procedures inside an object are local to the object, i.e. they do not interfere with global versions, and they do not interfere with versions inside other objects. For example, the variable `foo` could have the value "I am Foo" in the global environment, it could have the value 15 in one object, and it could have the value (a b (c d foo) (x)) in another object. In a window object the procedure `show` could cause its argument to appear on the screen, while in a speaker object, `show` could send its argument to a speech synthesizer. Each object can have its own value for any variable, and its own definition for any procedure. Objects can access their own variables and procedures directly. They can also access the variables and procedures of other objects indirectly. The global environment can be considered the global object (also known as the root object). In most situations where an object should be specified, passing `nil` indicates the root object.

The following sample interaction shows how objects can be used to create private versions of variables

```
? (setq fourth-grader (kindof nil))
#<Object #322, a generic object>
```

Here we create a new object, using the function `kindof`. `kindof` creates and returns a new object based on its argument, which should be an object. If no the new object is based on the root object. We store the new object in the global variable `fourth-grader`. The `setq` returns the object, and we see its print representation.

To do something inside an object, you use the special form `ask`. `ask` takes at least two arguments: the first argument should be an object and the rest are Lisp expressions. `ask` evaluates the expressions in the environment of the object. Think of it as asking the object to evaluate the expressions.

```
? (ask fourth-grader (have 'teacher))
NIL
```

In this case, we are asking the object to have a variable. The function `have` creates a distinct binding for a variable within the object. It tells the object to have its own version of the variable, rather than using a global or otherwise inherited version of the variable. (Details on inheritance are given below).

We now ask `fourth-grader` to set the value of the variable `teacher`. The binding between the variable and value is internal to `fourth-grader`. It does not affect other bindings of the variable.

```
? (ask fourth-grader (setq teacher "Mrs. Marple"))
"Mrs. Marple"
```

We can ask `fourth-grader` to evaluate `teacher`, and we get back the correct value, the string `"Mrs. Marple"`.

```
? (ask fourth-grader teacher)
"Mrs. Marple"
```

If we try to evaluate `teacher` in the global environment, we get an error, because `teacher` does not have a global binding. It only has a binding inside the object `fourth-grader`.

```
? teacher
> Error: Unbound variable: TEACHER
> While executing: SYMBOL-VALUE
```

We can give `teacher` a global binding by assigning it a value at the global level. Once this is done, we have established two independent bindings for the variable `teacher`: one is global and one is local to the `fourth-grader` object. These two bindings do not interfere with each other. Changing the value of one does not change the value of another.

```
? (setq teacher "Hal")
"Hal"
? teacher
"Hal"
? (ask fourth-grader teacher)
"Mrs. Marple"
```

When we evaluate `teacher` in the global environment, we get back `"Hal"`. When we evaluate it in the environment of the `fourth-grader` object, we get back the value `"Mrs. Marple"`.

Objects Inherit from Other Objects

Objects do not only have access to their own variables and procedures. They also have access to *inherited* variables and procedures. When you create a new object, the new object is always based on one or more previously existing objects. We will initially discuss the simpler case, where an object inherits from a single parent.

```
? (setq school "Bronx Science")
"Bronx Science"
? school
"Bronx Science"
? (ask fourth-grader school)
"Bronx Science"
```

Here we create a global binding for the variable `school`. We see that `fourth-grader` has access to this binding. As stated above, `fourth-grader` inherits from the root object (i.e. the global environment). Because `fourth-grader` did not have its own binding for the variable `school`, it used the inherited binding.

```
? (ask fourth-grader (setq school "PS 110"))
"PS 110"
? (ask fourth-grader school)
"PS 110"
? school
"PS 110"
```

When we ask an object to set the value of a variable, it sets whichever binding it can access. `fourth-grader` does not have its own binding of `school`, so the `setq` affects the inherited binding. If we want `fourth-grader` to have its own binding of `school`, we must ask it to (`have 'school`).

```
? (ask fourth-grader (have 'school))
NIL
? (ask fourth-grader (setq school "MIT"))
"MIT"
? (ask fourth-grader school)
"MIT"
? school
"PS 110"
```

When we ask `fourth-grader` to `have school`, it creates its own binding for `school`. The new binding is internal to the object, and is said to *shadow* any inherited binding. All references to `school` in `fourth-grader`'s environment will now refer to this local binding. A single object can use some inherited values, and some values of its own.

```
? (setq planet "Earth")
"Earth"
? (ask fourth-grader planet)
"Earth"
? (ask fourth-grader school)
"MIT"
? (ask fourth-grader teacher)
"Mrs. Marple"
```

In the second line, fourth-grader uses the inherited binding for planet, because it does not have its own binding. In the last two lines, fourth-grader uses its own bindings.

Besides creating new objects which inherit from the root object, we can create objects which inherit from other objects. This is where the power and utility of object-oriented programming becomes more evident.

We can create another object which inherits from fourth-grader. This new object will have access to all of fourth-grader's environment; it will have access to all of fourth-grader's bindings and all the bindings which fourth-grader inherits.

```
? (setq Amanda (kindof fourth-grader))
<object #367, a #322>
```

Here the argument to `kindof` is fourth-grader. We are creating a new object based on fourth-grader and storing this new object in the global variable `Amanda`. A short interaction shows us that because `Amanda` inherits from fourth-grader she has access to all the things which fourth-grader can access.

```
? (ask Amanda teacher)
"Mrs. Marple"
? (ask Amanda school)
"MIT"
? (ask Amanda planet)
"Earth"
```

;fourth-grader's binding
;fourth-grader's binding
;global binding

Just as fourth-grader's bindings are not accessible to its parent, Amanda's bindings are not accessible to her parent.

```
? (ask Amanda
  (have 'calculator "hp")) ;have can take another argument
"hp"
? calculator
> Error: Unbound variable: CALCULATOR
> While executing: SYMBOL-VALUE ;no global binding for calculator
? (ask fourth-grader calculator)
> Error: Unbound variable: CALCULATOR
> While executing: SYMBOL-VALUE ;no fourth-grader binding
? (ask Amanda calculator)
"hp"
;Amanda has a binding
```

This points out that inheritance flows in only one direction. `Amanda` inherits from fourth-grader (and, through fourth-grader, from the root object), but fourth-grader does not inherit from `Amanda`. fourth-grader therefore does not have access to `Amanda`'s bindings.

Object Environments are Composed of Frames

The above examples illustrate an object hierarchy; Amanda inherits from fourth-grader which in turn inherits from the global environment. In such a hierarchy, there is a simple rule for determining which binding is accessed by an object: the object will use the innermost binding. If the object has its own binding, that will be used. If not, the look-up will proceed to the parent, then to the parent's parent, and so on, all the way to the root object. As soon as one binding is found, it is used and the search stops. All further bindings are shadowed by the innermost binding, and are therefore inaccessible.

Technically, an object's environment is composed of a series of frames. The innermost frame contains the object's own bindings. The next frame out contains the bindings local to the object's parent. The next frame contains the bindings of the parent's parent, and so on. The outermost frame is the global environment. Whenever a look-up occurs, the frames are searched from innermost to outermost.

Objects with Internal Procedures

In all of the examples above, we have given objects internal variables, but not any internal functions. Objects can have private versions of both functions and variables. Function inheritance follows the same rules as variable inheritance.

The macro `defobjfun` is used to define functions within objects.

```
? (defobjfun (say fourth-grader) (sentence)
    (princ "*** ")
    (princ sentence)
    (princ " ***"))
    (terpri))
SAY
? (say "hello")
> Error: Undefined function: SAY .
> While executing: EVAL          ;no global definition of say

? (ask fourth-grader (say "hello"))
*** hello ***
NIL
?
```

Here we define the function `say` inside of `fourth-grader`. Just as with object variables, this function definition is not accessible globally. It is only accessible from `fourth-grader`, and from objects which inherit from `fourth-grader`.

Because Amanda inherits from `fourth-grader`, she has access to `fourth-grader`'s function definition of `say`, (just as she has access to `fourth-grader`'s variable binding for `teacher`).

```
? (ask Amanda (say teacher))
*** Mrs. Marple ***
NIL
? (ask Amanda (say calculator))
*** Hp ***
NIL
?
```

(Note: Amanda has access to the definition of say, even though say was defined in fourth-grader *after* Amanda was created from fourth-grader. This is because the look-ups, for both values and functions, occur at run time.)

So far so good. Amanda can do the things that any fourth-grader can do. But she can actually do even more. One of the most powerful features of object oriented programming is that objects can modify inherited behavior. Of course, we could define say inside Amanda, thereby shadowing the inherited version of say and giving Amanda her own, completely new version of say. But a more efficient technique allows Amanda to use the inherited version, *and* add her own idiosyncrasies.

```
? (defobfun (say Amanda) (sentence)
      (usual-say sentence)
      (princ "I have an hp calculator")
      (terpri))
```

```
SAY
? (ask Amanda (say "hi there. "))
*** hi there. ***
I have an hp calculator
NIL
?
```

The magic line in the above definition is (usual-say sentence). The construct usual-xxx is used to call the shadowed version of xxx. That is, it calls the version of the function which would have been called if the current version did not exist. In this case, say calls the shadowed version of say with the same argument that it was passed, and then performs some additional behavior. There are many other uses of usual, however. For example, a function can do some bounds checking, or other type of checking, before invoking its usual function. Or it can modify an argument or pass a completely different argument to the usual function. In addition, it can add behavior before and/or after the usual behavior, as in this example.

We can create another object which inherits from fourth-grader, and give it yet another definition of say:

```
? (setq doubly (kindof fourth-grader))
<object #400, a #322>
? (ask doubly (say teacher))
*** Mrs. Marple ***
NIL
? (defobfun (say doubly) (sentence)
            (usual-say sentence)
            (usual-say sentence))
SAY
? (ask doubly (say "hello"))
*** hello ***
*** hello ***
NIL
?
```

Here we have given doubly a slightly more complex version say. It calls the usual-say twice. Of course, Amanda's version of say, and fourth-grader's version of say are unaffected by this redefinition inside doubly.

```
? (ask Amanda (say "hi there"))
*** hi there. ***
I have an hp calculator
NIL
? (ask fourth-grader (say "I'm fourth-grader"))
*** I'm fourth-grader ***
NIL
?
```

Multiple Inheritance

Multiple inheritance occurs when one object inherits from more than one other object—when an object has more than one parent.

In Object Lisp, an object can have a virtually unlimited number of parents. There are two general cases of multiple inheritance: the simple case, in which the characteristics of the parents do not have any overlap; and the more complex (but often more useful) case, in which there is overlap in the characteristics of the parents.

In the simple case there is no overlap between the functionality of the parents, so there is no possible ambiguity in variable and function reference. Some functions and variables are inherited from one parent, some from another.

It is often useful to create an object with multiple parents, where the parents *do* have some overlap in their functionality. In this case, the same function may have one definition in one parent, and a different definition in another. There is a simple rule for determining which binding is used when a look-up occurs in the child object. The frames of the parents are combined in a linear sequence, with duplicate frames removed. An example will illustrate this.

```
? (setq Bob1 (kindof Amanda Doubly))
<object #464, a #367, #400>
? (ask Bob1 (say "I am Bob1"))
*** I am Bob1 ***
*** I am Bob1 ***
I have an hp calculator
NIL
```

Here we create a new object based on both Amanda and Doubly. The frames inherited from Amanda are:

Amanda's, fourth-grader's, and the global frame.

The frames inherited from Doubly are:

. Doubly's, fourth-grader's, and again the global frame.

First we combine these two sequences of frames. This gives us the series of frames:

Amanda, fourth-grader, root, Doubly, fourth-grader, root.

The next step involves removing duplicate frames. Only the outer-most occurrence of each frame is retained. After the removal we have the frames:

Amanda, Doubly, fourth-grader, and root.

It is as if Amanda inherited from Doubly which inherited from fourth-grader, etc. When Amanda's say calls usual-say, the say inside Doubly will be called. When Doubly calls usual-say, fourth-grader's say will be invoked. The outermost frame is retained because inner definitions are often specializations which depend on being able call their shadowed counterparts.

The order in which parents are specified can have a significant effect on the behavior of the child object. In the example below we see that in an object that inherits from Doubly and Amanda in the inverse order, the say procedure behaves quite differently. Both cases can be understood by looking at the order of frames and tracing through the calls to say and usual-say.

```
? (setq Bob2 (kindof Doubly Amanda))
<object #4699, a #367, #400>
? (ask Bob2 (say "I'm Bob2"))
*** I'm Bob2 ***
I have an hp calculator
*** I'm Bob2 ***
I have an hp calculator
NIL
```

A final word about these examples. They all work because the specialized functions make calls to their usual counterparts. Given the example of Bob1, Doubly's behavior would not have been exhibited if Amanda's say had not called usual-say. If we look at Bob1's set of frames—Amanda, Doubly, fourth-grader, and root—it becomes clear why. If Amanda's say did not call usual-say, the call to say would just stop inside Amanda. Any function which does not call its usual counterpart cuts off the inheritance path. This can be useful in some situations (for example, in implementing filters), but it can cause unexpected behavior in others. (Don't worry about calling usual-foo if there is no inherited version. Object Lisp simply ignores such calls.)

Classes and Instances

In the examples above, the evolution of objects from fourth-grader through Amanda and Doubly, to the Bobs was exploratory and somewhat haphazard, and does not show how a typical object hierarchy would be set up in a program.

When using objects there is usually a distinction made between *classes* and *instances*. Object Lisp does not enforce this distinction; you are free to create and modify objects incrementally, as we did above. This is very useful when learning, and when prototyping a system. However, in production work the class/instance paradigm often leads to more organized programs.

A *class* describes a type of object. For example, you could have a class of spreadsheet windows. From this class, multiple *instances* can be created; you might want to have many spreadsheet windows on the screen at once. It is normal for the class to contain procedures (i.e. behavior), while instances contain *instance variables* (i.e. data) for maintaining the individual state of the instance. In the spreadsheet example, the class would contain the code for entering information and performing calculations, while each instance would have unique instance variables holding the contents of the cells, screen position, etc.

All objects, both classes and instances, are normally created from classes. You would not typically create a new object based on an instance. In general, classes are created at the start of a program, and instances are created for use during the course of a program.

Initializing Instances and the `exist` Procedure

In creating object instances, it is usually necessary to perform some initialization. The initialization may give the new instance its own bindings for instance variables and set these variables to initial values; it also may create more complex data structures which need to be owned by the instance.

For example, each instance of the spreadsheet window class will need to be associated with its own spreadsheet data, and with its own window on the screen. In this case, the initialization of an instance would involve creating a window and some instance variable bindings and filling the instance variables with initial data. These variables cannot be stored in the class, because then there would be no difference between one spreadsheet and another. Each instance must have its own bindings for the instance variables, and must have its own window. These bindings are created by asking each instance to have the variables. This process should occur when the instance is initialized.

Object Lisp provides a standard protocol for initializing instances. This is the `exist` procedure. Any initialization common to all instances of a class should be performed by `exist`. As stated above, this initialization usually involves giving the instance its own bindings of variables, and perhaps setting these bindings to initial values.

The function `oneof` is supplied to facilitate the creation of instances. `oneof` does two things. First it calls `kindof`, creating a new object, and then it asks the new object to `exist`. It then returns the newly created and initialized object. In general, most `exist` procedures will call `usual-exist`; this guarantees that no inherited steps in the initialization process are left out.

By convention, `exist` takes a single argument, called an *init-list*. This argument, again by convention, is a list of alternating keys and values. The keys are generally keywords, and the values may be any Lisp data. The values are extracted from the *init-list* with the Common Lisp function `getf` (for this reason, *init-lists* should always have an even number of elements). When

calling usual-exist, the init-list or a modified version of the init-list is generally passed as an argument.

exist is simply an object-function that can be defined for a class. When instances are created from a class, the exist procedure will be run. Because the object is new, and doesn't have its own exist procedure, it will naturally run the one it inherits from its class.

```
? (defobfun (exist fourth-grader) (init-list)
    (have 'nick-name (getf init-list :nick-name "Anonymous"))
    (have 'age (getf init-list :age 10)))
```

EXIST

?

When we create new instances of fourth-grader with oneof, they will be initialized to have a name and age instance variable (note that oneof takes a rest argument, which it passes to exist as a list.)

```
? (setq franklin (oneof fourth-grader
                          :nick-name "frankie" :age 11))
<object #476, a #322>
? (ask franklin (print nick-name) (print age) (terpri))
```

"frankie"

11

nil

```
? (setq bettina (oneof fourth-grader :nick-name "betsy"))
```

<object #481, a #322>

```
? (ask bettina (print nick-name) (print age) (terpri))
```

"betsy"

10

nil

?

;betsy gets the default age

Advanced Topic: Objects and Scoping

This section discusses scoping in objects, especially cases where objects need to communicate the values of their instance variables to other object. You may want to skip it until you have some experience with programming in Object Lisp.

When you ask an object to evaluate an expression, the expression is evaluated in the environment of the object being asked, not in the environment of the asking object. This means that variable references inside the expression will generally refer to bindings within the object being asked. The following example shows a common scoping difficulty which occurs when one object asks another object to do something.

```
? (setq ob-1 (kindof))
#<Object #500, a generic object>
? (ask ob-1 (have 'x-var 10))
10
? (ask ob-1 x-var)
10
? (setq ob-2 (kindof))
```

```
#<Object #501, a generic object>
? (ask ob-2 (have 'y-var 20))
20
? (ask ob-1 (ask ob-2 (+ x-var y-var)))
> Error: Unbound variable: X-VAR .
> While executing: SYMBOL-VALUE
```

The last line caused an error, because the reference to `x-var` was evaluated inside `ob-2`, and `ob-2` has no binding—its own or inherited—for `x-var`. To get around this problem, the last line could be rewritten:

```
? (ask ob-1 (+ x-var (ask ob-2 y-var)))
30
```

A more insidious problem occurs when `ob-2` *does* have a binding for `x-var` (or perhaps inherits such a binding), but we want the reference to refer to `ob-1`'s binding of `x-var`.

```
? (ask ob-2 (have 'x-var 20))
20
? (ask ob-1 (ask ob-2 (+ x-var y-var)))
40
?
```

This situation does not signal an error, but gives incorrect results. The thing to keep in mind is that variable look-ups always occur in the environment of the innermost `ask`. Again, the proper functionality could be achieved by rewriting the last line

```
? (ask ob-1 (+ x-var (ask ob-2 y-var)))
30
?
```

Object Variables and Lexical Variables

The solutions given above are usable because the function `+` is defined in both `ob-1` and `ob-2`. A more difficult situation arises when `ob-1` wants to pass a value to be acted upon by a function defined in object-2. Of course, it is possible to write

```
(ask ob-1
  . . . ;miscellaneous code here
  (ask ob-2 (frob (ask ob-1 x-var) y-var))
  ;frob is only defined in ob-2
  . . .)
```

But this is somewhat ungainly. There is a better way of communicating the values of instances variables between objects. The method relies upon the fact that lexical bindings take precedence over object bindings, and they are always visible (unless, of course, they are shadowed by other lexical bindings). Using lexical bindings, the above code could be rewritten

```
(ask ob-1
  (let ((my-x-var x-var))
    . . . ;miscellaneous code
    (ask ob-2 (frob my-x-var y-var)) ;lexical binding is accessible
    . . .))
```

Object bindings are only accessed for free references. If there is a lexical binding for a symbol, that will be used.

```
? (ask ob-2 (have 'y-var 100))
```

Y-VAR

```
? (ask ob-2
  (print (+ y-var 1))
  (let ((y-var 200))
    (+ y-var 1)))
```

101

201

?

Because of the lexical binding of `y-var` (from the `let` statement), `ob-2`'s object binding was not used. This technique makes it possible for an object to pass the values of its instance variables to another object. The giving object first binds the values to lexical variables, and then uses these in the call to the receiving object. The giving object doesn't need to worry about the possibility that the receiving object has object variables with the same name. As an added benefit, lexical bindings are accessed more quickly than object bindings.

Lexical bindings are established for arguments to functions, as well as by `let` statements.

```
? (defun lex-show (x1)
  (ask ob-1 (princ x1)) (terpri)
  (ask ob-2 (princ x1)) (terpri))
```

LEX-SHOW

```
? (lex-show "x1 is now referenced lexically")
```

x1 is now referenced lexically

x1 is now referenced lexically

NIL

?

Object Variables and Special Variables

Object variables have dynamic scope. For example:

```
? (setq foo (kindof))
#<Object #507, a generic object>
? (ask foo (have 'bar 10))
10
? (defun baz (n) (+ n bar))
BAZ
? (baz 5)
> Error: Unbound variable: BAR
> While executing: BAZ
? (ask foo (baz 5))
15
```

The first call to `baz` fails because of the free reference to `bar`. However, the second call succeeds, because the call was made inside `foo`. Inside `foo`, `bar` is bound, and the free reference in `baz` uses this binding.

The dynamic nature of object variables introduces possible conflicts with special variables. For this reason, an error will be signalled if a program attempts to use a variable as both a special variable and an object variable.

Object Lisp Functions

In the functions below, which require objects as arguments, `nil` should be passed to indicate the root object.

Creating and Initializing Objects

kindof &rest *parents* [Function]
creates and returns a new object which inherits from *parents*. *parents* should all be objects. If no *parents* are given, the new object will inherit from the root object.

oneof &optional *parents* &rest *key-val-pairs* [Function]
creates and returns a new object using `kindof`, and then asks the object to run `exist` with *key-val-pairs* as the argument. *parents* should be either an object or a list of objects from which the new object will inherit. If no arguments are passed to `oneof`, the new object will inherit from the root object.

defobject *name* {*parents*}* [Macro]
creates a new object based on *parents* using `kindof` or `remake-object` (see below), binds the new object to the global symbol *name*, and gives the new object an instance variable `object-name`, whose value is the symbol *name*. The new object is consed onto the instance variable `object-children` in any of the parents that were created with `defobject`. If no *parents* are specified, then the new object will inherit from the root object.

If *name* is not currently globally bound to an object, the new object is created with `kindof`. If *name* is currently globally bound to an object, then the new object is created with `remake-object`. *name* is returned.

remake-object *object* &rest *parents* [Function]
remakes *object*, leaving its own frame intact, but making it inherit from *parents*, rather than the objects from which it previously inherited. If no *parents* are given, the object will be made to inherit directly from the root object. The new inheritance path is propagated to any objects which inherit from *object*. `exist` is not called. The variables and functions owned by the object are not affected.

exist *init-list* [Function]
`exist` is the function conventionally used to initialize new instance objects. `exist` is used to give instance variables to a new instance and to perform other required initializations. `exists` should generally call `usual-exist` (unless they have a specific reason for not doing so). `exist` is called by `oneof`.

init-list should be a list of alternating keys and values. The keys should be symbols or keywords. *init-list* is used to specify the initial state of the new object. *get f* can be used to conveniently extract values from an *init-list* (for this reason, *init-lists* should always have an even number of elements). *init-list-default* (described below) is also useful for manipulating *init-lists*. Note that nothing is automatically done with an *init-list*. Each object must have a definition of *exist* that performs actions appropriate to the contents of the *init-list* it receives.

init-list-default *init-list* {*key expression*}⁺ [Macro]
is used to add default values to an *init-list*.

init-list should be a list of alternating keys and values. For each *key* and *expression*, if *key* is a member of *init-list* (using *eq* for comparison), then *expression* is not evaluated and *init-list* is not altered; if *key* is not a member of *init-list*, then *expression* is evaluated, and result and *key* are appended to *init-list*. The modification is not destructive; the resulting list is returned.

Communicating with Objects

ask *object* {*form*}⁺ [Macro]
evaluates *forms* inside *object*. It returns the value returned by the last *form*. Multiple value returns are supported.

talkto &optional (*object* nil) [Function]
changes the current object to *object*. If *object* is not specified, the root object is used. Future evaluation will take place in *object*'s environment (until the execution of another *talkto*). *talkto* should only be used from the top-level read-eval-print loop; inside programs, *ask* should be used instead. *talkto* returns the *previously* current object.

Whenever the current object is not the root object, the listener question-mark prompt is preceded by the current object's number (from its *object-license*). This is done to remind you that forms typed in are no longer evaluated in the global Lisp environment.

Managing Bindings and Definitions Inside Objects

defobfun (*name* [*object*]) *lambda-list* {*declaration* | *doc-string*}^{*} {*form*}^{*} [Macro]
defobfun *name* *lambda-list* {*declaration* | *doc-string*}^{*} {*form*}^{*}
is used to define and name a function within an object. It causes *name* to be bound in *object* to the function (*lambda* *lambda-list* {*declaration* | *doc-string*}^{*} {*form*}^{*}). Definitions of *name* in other objects are not affected. Within the *forms* *usual-name* may be called. Such calls will invoke the inherited version of *name*, i.e. the definition of *name* which would have been called had there been no binding for *name* within *object*.

If *object* is not specified the parentheses surrounding *name* may be omitted; the definition will be created in the root object

It is an error to *defobfun* a function which has previously been defined with *defun*, and it is an error to *defun* a function which has previously been defined with *defobfun*. In this way the name-spaces of global and object-bound functions are kept separate.

symbol-value *symbol*

[Function]

symbol-function *symbol*

[Function]

These Common Lisp functions are extended to work with the object system. Both functions work properly with `setf`.

`symbol-value` returns the first accessible object binding or special binding of *symbol*. The search will proceed up the inheritance path of the current object. If there is no object binding of *symbol*, then the value of any special binding will be used.

`symbol-function` returns the first accessible object or global function binding of *symbol*. The search will proceed up the inheritance path of the current object.

set *symbol new-value*

[Function]

setq {*symbol new-value*}*

[Special Form]

fset *symbol function*

[Function]

fset-globally *symbol function*

[Function]

`set` and `setq` are extended to work with the object system. `set` makes an assignment to the first accessible object or special binding of *symbol*, using the same look-up algorithm as `symbol-value`. If *symbol* is unbound, a global binding is created.

`setq` performs the same action as `set`, except that it takes any even number of arguments, does not evaluate its *symbols*, and recognizes lexical bindings of its *symbols* (whereas `set` does not).

`fset` is analogous to `set`, except it affects the functional binding of *symbol*.

`fset-globally` always sets the global definition of *symbol* and makes it illegal to ever create an object binding for it. It is analogous to proclaiming a variable special. `defun` uses `fset-globally`.

The *new-value* or *function* is returned.

nfunction *name lambda-expression*

[Special Form]

is equivalent to `(function lambda-expression)`, except that it lets the compiler and evaluator associate *name* with the function. The name lets otherwise functions work with usual mechanism. It is also used in the error system.

name must be a symbol; *lambda-expression* must be a lambda expression.

In the following example, we cannot call `usual-double` from an anonymous compiled function. We have to call it from a compiled function with the name `double`.

```
? (defobject foo)
foo
? (defobjfun (double foo) (x) (+ x x))
double
? (defobject bar foo)
bar
? (defobjfun (double bar) (x) (usual-double (+ x x)))
double
? (ask bar (double 1))
```

```

4
? (ask bar (fset 'double #'(lambda (x) (usual-double x))))
#<An Anonymous Compiled Function>
? (ask bar (double 1))
> Error: Undefined function: usual-double .
> While executing: ask
? (ask bar (fset 'double
                (nfunction double
                        (lambda (x) (usual-double x))))))
#<Compiled Function DOUBLE>
? (ask bar (double 1))
2

```

have *symbol* &optional *value* [Function]
fhave *symbol* *function* [Function]
 have creates a value binding for *symbol* in the current object and sets the binding to *value* (or nil if *value* is not supplied). fhave creates a function binding for *symbol* in the current object and sets it to *function*. *value* or *function* is returned. defobfun uses fhave.

makunbound *symbol* [Function]
fmakunbound *symbol* [Function]
 These Common Lisp functions are extended to work in the object system. They will delete the current object's own value or function binding of *symbol*. Inherited bindings are not affected. If the current object does not have its own value or function binding of *symbol*, no action is taken. *symbol* is returned.

makunbound-all *symbol* [Function]
fmakunbound-all *symbol* [Function]
 makunbound-all deletes all the value bindings of *symbol*, in any object including the root object. fmakunbound-all performs the same operation on function bindings. These are very dangerous operations. If used without care, they can delete necessary system bindings and crash the system.

ownp *symbol* [Function]
fownp *symbol* [Function]
 ownp returns t if *symbol* has a value binding in the current object (inherited bindings are excluded); otherwise, it returns nil. fownp performs the same operation on function bindings.

boundp *symbol* [Function]
fboundp *symbol* [Function]
 These functions are extended to work with the object system. boundp is true if *symbol* has a value binding which is accessible from the current object. fboundp is true if *symbol* has a function-binding which is accessible from the current object, or if it is a macro or a special form. Inherited bindings are included. (Lexical bindings are, of course, not included).

bound-anywhere-p *symbol*

[Function]

fbound-anywhere-p *symbol*

[Function]

bound-anywhere-p is true if *symbol* is bound anywhere in the system, otherwise it returns nil. **fbound-anywhere-p** is true if *symbol* has a function binding anywhere in the system or was ever defined inside an object, otherwise it returns nil. Note that unlike the Common Lisp function **fboundp**, **fbound-anywhere-p** does not check for macro and special form definitions. (These functions do not recognize lexical bindings; they only recognize object and special bindings).

where *symbol*

[Function]

fwhere *symbol*

[Function]

where returns the object containing the first accessible value binding of *symbol*, or nil if *symbol* has no currently accessible binding. **fwhere** returns the object containing the first accessible function binding of *symbol*, or nil if *symbol* has no currently accessible function binding. The look-up algorithm is the same as that used by **symbol-value** and **symbol-function**, respectively.

Managing Objects

self

[Function]

returns the current object. The returned value can, for example, be lexically bound, passed to functions, or passed to objects.

typep *thing specifier*

[Function]

extended to work with the object system if *specifier* is an object. **typep** returns t if *thing* inherits from *specifier*, otherwise returns nil. (Note: this means that *specifier* must be an ancestor of *thing*, not necessarily an immediate parent of *thing*).

typep is the one function which does not accept nil as a synonym for the root object. To find out if *thing* is an object, *specifier* can be the symbol object (alternatively, use the function **objectp** instead of **typep**).

If either *thing* or *specifier* is not an object, the normal rules for evaluating **typep** take place.

Examples:

```
? (typep *window* 'object)
T
? (typep *window* 'number)
NIL
? (typep *window* nil)
NIL
? (typep (car (windows)) *window*)
T
? (typep (front-window) *menu*)
NIL
? (typep (car (windows)) *stream*)
T
```

objectp *thing*

[Function]

returns non-nil if *thing* is an object, otherwise returns nil.

object-name

[Instance Variable]

Every object created with `defobject` is given an instance variable `object-name`. The value of `object-name` will be the symbol to which the new object is being bound. Objects created with `oneof` and `kindof` may be given a binding of `object-name` explicitly. The system uses `object-name` in the print representation of an object and its children. If a program binds or alters `object-name`, it should ensure that the new value can be easily displayed in the object's print representation.

object-children

[Instance Variable]

This instance variable is maintained for objects created by `defobject`. It contains a list of objects which have been created from the object with `defobject`. Objects created from the object with `kindof` and `oneof` are not included on this list. (Note: because such children are pointed to by their parents, the children will not be garbage-collected until the parents are garbage-collected.)

object-parents *object*

[Function]

returns a list of *object*'s immediate parents. These are the objects which were passed to `kindof`, `oneof`, `defobject`, or `remake-object` when *object* was created.

object-ancestors *object*

[Function]

returns a list of *object*'s ancestors, i.e. its entire inheritance path. Duplicate references are removed, so that the list returned is the one used when function and variable look-up takes place in *object*.

print-self &optional *stream*

[Function]

is used to print objects. The print representation of an object will vary, depending on whether the object has an `object-name`, and whether its parent(s) have `object-names`. The print representation is not readable. If *stream* is not specified, the object will be printed to `*standard-output*`. `print-self` may be shadowed.

In the unshadowed form of `print-self`, the format for print representations is:

```
#<object #n, [name,] a {parent-name-or-number,}+>
```

Examples:

```
? (defobject fourth-grader)
FOURTH-GRADER
? fourth-grader
#<object #45, FOURTH-GRADER, a generic-object>
? (setq foo (kindof))
#<object #47, a generic-object>
? (defobject Amanda fourth-grader)
AMANDA
? amanda
#<object #50, AMANDA, a fourth-grader>
? (defobject Herbert foo)
HERBERT
```

```

? herbert
#<object #51, HERBERT, a #47>
? (setq bar (kindof foo))
#<object #53, a #47>
? (defobject baz Herbert foo)
BAZ
? baz
#<object #54, baz, a Herbert, #47>
? (setq bim (kindof foo Herbert))
#<object #55, a #49, HERBERT>
? (ask foo (have 'object-name "foobird"))
"foobird"
? foo
#<object #49, "foobird", a generic-object>
? baz
#<object #54, BAZ, a "foobird", HERBERT>

```

object-license *object* [Function]
 returns *object*'s license number. Whenever an object is created, it is given a object-license. object-licenses are integers, generated sequentially by the Lisp operating system (though there may appear to be gaps in the numbers due to objects generated by the run time system). object-licenses are used in print representations, and are sometimes useful for interactive debugging. Programs should not depend on them, because they will almost certainly change from one programming session to another.

The object-license of the root object is 0.

license-to-object *integer* [Function]
 returns the object whose object-license is *integer*, or nil if no such object exists. This function should be used for single-session debugging only.

next-license-to-object *integer* [Function]
 returns the object with the smallest object-license greater than *integer*, or nil if no such object exists.

highest-license-number [Function]
 returns the highest object-license used by the system so far.

do-all-objects (*var result-form*) {*form*}* [Macro]
 goes through all existing objects, evaluating *forms* with *var* bound to each object in turn. When all of the objects have been gone through, *result-form* is evaluated and its result is returned. While *result-form* is being evaluated, *var* is bound to nil. Objects created during the evaluation of *forms* may or may not be included in the iteration.

Example:

```

;;who-fowns returns a list of all the objects which have their
;; own definition of a given function

```

```
(defun who-fowns (sym &aux return-list)
  (do-all-objects (ob)
    (when (ask ob (fownp sym))
      (push ob return-list)))
  return-list)
```

? (who-fowns 'window-close)

```
(#<Object #164, ccl::*step-fred-window*, a *fred-window*>
 #<Object #84, a *dialog*>
 #<Object #82, a *dialog*>
 #<Object #68, *dialog*, a *window*>
 #<Object #10, ccl::*da-window*, a *window*>
 #<Object #9, ccl::*listener*, a #2,
               ccl::*selection-stream*,
               *fred-window*>
 #<Object #8, *fred-window*, a *window*>
 #<Object #7, *window*, a *stream*>)
```

do-object-variables (*var object result-form*) {*form*}⁺

[Macro]

goes through all the variables owned by *object*, evaluating *forms* with *var* bound to the name of each variable in turn. When all the variables have been gone through, *result-form* is evaluated and its result is returned. While *result-form* is being evaluated, *var* is bound to *nil*. The effect of creating or removing bindings during the evaluation of *forms* is undefined.

do-object-functions (*var object result-form*) {*form*}⁺

[Macro]

goes through all the functions owned by *object*, evaluating *forms* with *var* bound to the name of each function in turn. When all the variables have been gone through, *result-form* is evaluated and its result is returned. While *result-form* is being evaluated, *var* is bound to *nil*. The effect of creating or removing bindings during the evaluation of *forms* is undefined.

Overview
Points
Font Specs
Turnkey Dialogs
Miscellaneous



Macintosh Basics

Overview

This chapter describes some data formats and functions used in Allegro CL's implementation of Macintosh features, points and font-specs. It also describes some turnkey dialogs built into the Allegro CL system.

Points

Points are used throughout Allegro CL for representing two-dimensional data. The most common use of points is in graphics operations which require a width and height (e.g. the size of a window), or a horizontal and vertical coordinate (e.g. the position of a dialog-item within a dialog).

2-dimensional points are often stored in 31-bit fixnums. This is known as the "encoded form." The low-order 16 bits correspond to the horizontal dimension, and the high-order 15 bits correspond to the vertical dimension. Both dimensions are signed. This representation makes point manipulation very efficient; creating points does not cons, and `eq` can be used to compare points (in Allegro CL, `eq` can be used to compare fixnums).

Many functions which take a point as an argument can take it as two coordinates (h and v) or a single fixnum holding both coordinates. If a function takes more than one point, or has optional arguments, the points must all be passed in encoded form. Points are always returned as a single encoded fixnum.

The reader macro `#@` converts the subsequent list of two fixnums into a point. This can be used for clarity in source code and for efficiency. For example `#@ (30 -100)` expands into `-6553570` a fixnum that represents the point with horizontal coordinate 30 and vertical coordinate -100.

point-string *point*
returns a string representation of *point*.

[Function]

```
? (point-string 4194336)
"#@(64 32)"
```

point-h *point*
returns the h-coordinate of *point*.

[Function]

```
? (point-h 2097184)
32
```

point-v *point*
returns the v-coordinate of *point*.

[Function]

```
? (point-v 4194336)
32
```

make-point *h v* [Function]
 returns a point constructed from horizontal and vertical coordinates *h* and *v*. If *v* is *nil*, *h* is assumed to be a point, and is returned unaltered. **make-point** signals an error if *h* and *v* are not fixnums (or *nil* for *v*).

add-points *point-1 point-2* [Function]
 returns a point that is the result of adding *point-1* and *point-2*. (Points cannot be added with the generic addition function because of possible overflow between the low and high words).

subtract-points *point-1 point-2* [Function]
 returns a point that is the result of subtracting *point-2* from *point-1*. (Points cannot be subtracted with the generic subtraction function because of possible overflow between the low and high words).

Font Specs

Font information is given in the form of font-specs. A font spec is an atom or list of atoms giving the font-name and/or font-size and/or font-styles and/or transfer-mode.

The font-name is a string. It should correspond to a font available in the system file. You can find out which fonts are available by examining the variable **font-list**. Font names are not case sensitive.

The font-size is a fixnum in the range 1-127.

The font-style is one or more of the following style keywords: *:plain*, *:bold*, *:italic*, *:underline*, *:outline*, *:shadow*, *:condense*, *:extend*. These keywords are the keys in an association list in the global variable **style-alist**.

The transfer-mode should be one of the following transfer-mode keywords: *:srcCopy*, *:srcOr*, *:srcXor*, *:srcBic*, *:srcPatCopy*, *:srcPatOr*, *:srcPatXor*, *:srcPatBic*. (See the pen-mode section in the addendum on Quickdraw for a description of the transfer modes). These keywords appear in the global variable **pen-modes**.

An error will be signalled if more than one name, more than one size, or more than one transfer mode are given in a single font-spec. Multiple font-styles are allowed.

The following are examples of legal font-specs:

```
"New York"
"nEw YOrk"
(9 "Monaco")
("Monaco" :extend :shadow 57 :srcpatcopy)
:srccopy
:outline
(12 :srccopy)
```

font-list [Variable]
 a list of all the fonts installed in the current Macintosh operating system.

font-info & optional *font-spec* [Function]

returns four values that represent the ascent, descent, widmax, and leading in pixels of *font-spec*. The ascent is distance from the baseline to the top of the font, descent is the distance from the baseline to the bottom of the font, widmax is the maximum width for characters in the font, and the leading is the suggested spacing between lines. Only the font and font-size are used in the calculation. The font-styles and transfer mode are not significant. If *font-spec* is not supplied, the font-spec of the current window object (if any) is used, otherwise the font-spec of the current grafport is used.

If the user clicks OK, the contents of the editable-text are returned. If the user clicks Cancel, a throw to :cancel is performed.

choose-font-dialog &optional *font-spec* [Function]
displays a dialog showing available fonts, sizes and styles. If the user clicks OK, the chosen font information is returned as a font-spec. If the user clicks Cancel, a throw to :cancel is performed.

font-spec may be given as an argument to set the initial values displayed when the dialog appears. For example, when setting the font of a window, the choose-font dialog should reflect the font, size, and style currently being used by the window.

Miscellaneous

ed-beep [Function]
makes a short beeping sound, often used by the Macintosh to issue warnings. ed-beep can also be useful when running diagnostics (i.e., if it beeps, you know that part of the got executed).

Overview
Menubars
Menus
Menu-items



Menus

Overview

The standard Macintosh user interface displays a menubar at the top of the screen. The menubar displays the titles of several menus. When the user clicks on a menu title, the menu pulls down, displaying the titles of its menu-items. The user can then move the mouse to select one of the menu-items.

In Allegro CL menus and menu-items are objects. A menubar is simply a list of menus. You can maintain several such lists, but only one will be the current menubar. Only the current menubar is displayed and useable.

A menu object is created from the class `*menu*`. A menu will not be displayed (and will therefore be unusable) until it is added to the current menubar with the function `menu-install`. Once installed, a menu will appear in the current menubar until it is de-installed. The menu-title may be changed, and menu-items may be added or removed regardless of whether the menu is installed. Menus may also be disabled; an installed disabled menu appears grayed-out and its items cannot be selected.

A menu-item has five characteristics. These are the title (used for displaying the menu-item when its menu is pulled down), the keyboard equivalent for the menu-item (if any), the font-style to be used in displaying the menu-item title, whether the menu-item has a check mark (or other character) next to it when it is displayed, and whether the menu-item is enabled or disabled (disabled menu-items are displayed grayed-out and cannot be selected).

Most menu-items have a definition for the object function `menu-item-action`. This object function is called whenever the user selects the menu-item. Menu-items may also have definition for the object function `menu-item-update`. `menu-item-update` is called for every menu-item when the user clicks in the menubar or types a keyboard equivalent. `menu-item-update` functions let menu-items adjust to program context (for example, the **Save** menu-item is only enabled when the top window is an editor buffer which has been modified). The usual `menu-item-update` does nothing.

If a menu-item has the keyboard equivalent `<x>`, then the menu-item's action may be invoked by typing `command-<x>`. In Emacs mode, `command-<x>` is typed as `clover-shift-<x>`. In Macintosh mode, `command-<x>` is typed as `clover-<x>`. For a complete description of Emacs and Macintosh modes, see the chapter on Getting Started.

It is often desirable to separate menu-items within a menu into groups. This is done by placing a dotted line between the groups of items. A menu-item whose title is the string `"-"` will appear as a dotted line which cannot be selected.

Whenever a menu-item is selected by the user (either by mousing a menu or using a keyboard equivalent) the current program is interrupted and the menu-item's definition of `menu-item-action` is run. The result of the function is not used. When the function returns, normal program operation resumes.

During the execution of `menu-item-action`, event interaction is disabled. If a menu-item is used to initiate a program, the program should be inserted into the normal `read/eval/print` loop with `eval-enqueue`. This will allow event processing during program execution.

Many menu-items perform their actions on the front window. Such actions can find the front window with the `front-window` function (see chapter Windows for details).

Menubars

menubar

[Function]

set-menubar *new-menubar*

[Function]

`menubar` returns the current menubar (i.e. a list of all the installed menus).

`set-menubar` installs a new menubar. *new-menubar* should be a list of menus. All the currently installed menus are asked to de-install, and each of the menus in *new-menubar* is asked to install. *new-menubar* may be nil, in which case the menubar is simply cleared.

Example:

```
? (setq foo (menubar))
(#<Object #15, "Apple", a *menu*>
 #<Object #18, "File", a *menu*>
 #<Object #29, "Edit", a *menu*>
 #<Object #42, "Eval", a *menu*>
 #<Object #48, "Tools", a *menu*>
 #<Object #60, "Windows", a *menu*>)
? (set-menubar (list (car foo) calc-menu))
(#<Object #15, "Apple", a *menu*>
 #<Object #180, "Calculate", a *menu*>)
? (menubar)
(#<Object #15, "Apple", a *menu*>
 #<Object #180, "Calculate", a *menu*>)
```

default-menubar

[Variable]

the default menubar. This is the menubar which appears when you begin a Allegro CL session. It may be installed using `set-menubar` if you want to get a fresh start after hacking things up.

Example:

```
? (set-menubar *default-menubar*)
(#<Object #15, "Apple", a *menu*>
 #<Object #18, "File", a *menu*>
 #<Object #29, "Edit", a *menu*>
 #<Object #42, "Eval", a *menu*>
 #<Object #48, "Tools", a *menu*>
 #<Object #60, "Windows", a *menu*>)
```

find-menu *string*

[Function]

returns the first installed menu that has *string* as its title.

Example:

```
? (find-menu "File")
#<Object #18, "File", a *menu*>
```

Menus

menus [Function]
returns a list of all existing menu objects, including those which are not currently installed.

menu [Variable]
the menu class, used for creating new menus.

exist *init-list* [Menu Function]
initializes the menu so that menu-items can be added to it and so that it can be installed. **exist** does not add the menu to the menu-bar. This must be done by asking the menu to **menu-install**.

keyword	type	default	meaning
:menu-title	string	"Untitled"	the title of the menu.
:menu-items	list	()	list of items to be added to the newly created menu.

Example:

```
? (setq foo-menu (oneof *menu* :menu-title "Foo"))
#<Object #187, "Foo", a *menu*>
? (ask foo-menu (menu-title))
"Foo"
? (ask foo-menu (menu-installed-p)) ;Hasn't yet been installed
NIL                               ; in the menubar.
```

menu-install [Menu Function]

menu-deinstall [Menu Function]

menu-installed-p [Menu Function]

menu-install adds the menu to the menubar, at the rightmost position. From this point (until it is **deinstall**ed), it will be useable.

menu-deinstall removes a menu from the menubar. It still exists, so it retains its state and may be re-installed.

menu-installed-p returns non-nil if the menu is installed, nil if the menu is not installed.

menu-dispose [Menu Function]

retires the menu and reclaims its storage. If it is installed, it will first be asked to **deinstall**.

menu-dispose returns t. Once a menu is disposed of, its state is lost. To do anything more with it, you must first ask it to exist again.

menu-title [Menu Function]

set-menu-title *new-title* [Menu Function]

menu-title returns the menu's title as a string.

set-menu-title sets the menu's title to *new-title*, which should be a string. If the menu is installed, the change in title will be immediately reflected in the menubar. *new-title* is returned.

Example:

```
? (ask foo-menu (menu-title))
"Foo"
? (ask foo-menu (set-menu-title "Bar"))
"Bar"
```

```
? (ask my-menu (menu-title))
"Bar"
```

menu-disable [Menu Function]
menu-enable [Menu Function]
menu-enabled-p [Menu Function]

menu-disable dims out a menu. Its items may still be viewed, but they cannot be selected. The menu and its items will appear in grayed out text. **menu-disable** has no effect if the menu was already disabled.

menu-enable undims a menu, making it possible to use its items (provided it is installed). **menu-enable** has no effect if the menu was already enabled.

menu-enabled-p returns non-nil if the menu is enabled, or nil if the menu is disabled.

add-menu-items &rest *menu-items* [Menu Function]
 appends *menu-items* to the menu. They will be added to the bottom of the menu in the order they are specified. nil is returned.

Example:

```
? (ask foo-menu (add-menu-items
                    (oneof *menu-item*
                          :menu-item-title "Beep"
                          :menu-item-action '(ed-beep))
                    (oneof *menu-item*
                          :menu-item-title "Say Hello"
                          :menu-item-action '(print "Hello"))))
```

NIL

remove-menu-items &rest *menu-items* [Menu Function]
 removes *menu-items* from the menu. The *menu-items* may later be re-installed, or may be installed in other menus. nil is returned. It is not an error to attempt to remove an item that is not in the menu.

menu-items &optional (*menu-item-class* *menu-item*) [Menu Function]
menu-items returns a list of the menu-items currently installed in the menu. Only those menu-items which inherit from *menu-item-class* are included in the list that is returned. The menu-items are in the same order in which they appear in the menu.

Example:

```
? (ask foo-menu (menu-items))
(#<Object #190, "Beep", a *menu-item*>
 #<Object #191, "Say Hello", a *menu-item*>)
```

find-menu-item *string* [Menu Function]
 Returns the first menu-item in the menu whose title is *string*. If no menu-items in the menu have *string* for a title, nil is returned.

menu-update [Menu Function]
 This procedure is called whenever the user clicks in the menubar. The usual menu-update simply asks all the of menu's menu-items to menu-item-update. This facility is provided so that menus and menu-items can adjust to the current program context before they are displayed (for example, by checking, unchecking, enabling or disabling, or adding or removing items).

menu-update may be shadowed, but should not normally be called by the user. (It is called by the Lisp run-time system).

Menu-items

menu-item

[Variable]

the menu-item class. This is used for creating menu-items.

exist init-list

[Menu-item Function]

initializes the menu-item so that it may be installed in a menu.

keyword	type	default	meaning
:menu-item-title	 <i>string</i>	"Untitled"	the title of the menu-item.
:command-key	 <i>char/nil</i>	nil	if nil, then the menu-item will have no command-key equivalent. If a character, then that character will be the menu-item's command-key equivalent.
:menu-item-action	 <i>thing</i>	()	used to define menu-item-action, i.e. the action run when the menu-item is selected. <i>thing</i> may be a function, a symbol with a function binding, or a form. If it is a form, it will be used as the body of a defobfun.
:disabled	 <i>boolean</i>	nil	if non-nil, the menu-item will be disabled.

Example:

```
? (setq Quux (oneof *menu-item*
  :menu-item-title "Quux"
  :menu-item-action #'(lambda ()
    (ed-beep)
    (print "I beeped!"))))
#<Object #203, "Quux", a *menu-item*>
?
```

menu-item-action

[Menu-item Function]

this function is called whenever the user selects the menu-item with the mouse or through the command-key equivalent. The usual version does nothing. This function should generally be shadowed by each menu-item. It is responsible for actually doing whatever the menu-item is supposed to do.

menu-item-title

[Menu-item Function]

set-menu-item-title *new-title*

[Menu-item Function]

menu-item-title returns the menu-item's title (a string).

set-menu-item-title sets the menu-item's title to *string* and returns *string*.

If a menu-item's title is "-", then the menu-item will be an unselectable dotted line. Such items are useful for separating sets of items in a menu.

Example:

```
? (ask Quux (menu-item-title))
"Quux"
? (ask Quux (set-menu-item-title "Baz"))
"Baz"
? (ask foo (menu-item-title))
"Baz"
```

command-key

[Menu-item Function]

set-command-key *char*

[Menu-item Function]

command-key returns the menu-item's keyboard equivalent. If the menu-item does not have a command-key equivalent, *nil* is returned.

set-command-key sets the menu-item's keyboard equivalent to *char*, which should be a character.

menu-item-disable

[Menu-item Function]

menu-item-enable

[Menu-item Function]

menu-item-enabled-p

[Menu-item Function]

menu-item-disable disables a menu-item. It will be grayed-out, and the user will not be able to select it (with the mouse or its command-key equivalent). **menu-item-disable** has no effect if the menu-item is already disabled.

menu-item-enable enables a menu-item. The user will be able to select it.

menu-item-enable has no effect if the menu-item is already enabled.

menu-item-enabled-p returns non-*nil* if the menu-item is enabled, or *nil* if the menu-item is disabled.

menu-item-check-mark

[Menu-item Function]

set-menu-item-check-mark *new-mark*

[Menu-item Function]

menu-item-check-mark returns the character which is currently used to check the menu-item, or *nil* if the item is not currently checked.

set-menu-item-check-mark sets the check-mark of the menu-item. If *new-mark* is *nil*, then the item will be unchecked. If it is *t*, then the item will be checked with a standard check-mark symbol (✓). If it is a character or *ascii* value, then the appropriate character will be used as a check-mark next to the menu-item. *new-mark* is returned. (Note, the check-mark character has the reader macro #\checkmark.)

(See example below).

menu-item-style

[Menu-item Function]

set-menu-item-style *new-styles*

[Menu-item Function]

menu-item-style returns a single keyword or list of keywords representing the menu-item's style.

new-styles should be a keyword or list of keywords. Allowable keywords are :plain, :bold, :italic, :shadow, :outline, :underline, :condense, and :extend. :plain indicates the absence of other styles.

menu-item-update

[Menu-item Function]

menu-item-update is called by **menu-update** whenever the user clicks in the menubar. The pre-defined **menu-item-update** does nothing, but may be shadowed to let menu-items adjust

to the current program context. (for example, by checking, unchecking, disabling, or enabling themselves.) It is not normally called by the user. The value returned by `menu-item-update` is not normally used.

Example:

```
(defobfun (menu-item-update Quux) ()  
  (if (= *time-zone* 5)  
      (set-menu-item-check-mark t)  
      (set-menu-item-check-mark nil)))
```

`Quux` will be checked if Allegro CL is running in the same time zone as Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Overview

Window Functions and Variables

Supporting Undo

Supporting Save and Save As...



Windows

Overview

Windows are the primary method for doing screen-related I/O. Information is displayed in windows, and the user edits, alters, and enters information by mousing windows, typing, etc. Events (such as keystrokes) are generally handled by the top window (see the Events chapter for details). The most commonly used windows are subclasses of **window**, Fred windows and dialog windows, which add important behavior. This chapter describes only the primitive superclass from which other windows inherit. All the commands described in this chapter can, however, be applied to the subclasses.

For information on drawing into windows, see the Quickdraw appendix.

For information on the size, resolution, and other physical characteristics of the display, see the System Parameters appendix.

Window Functions and Variables

window [Variable]
the window class. Windows inherit from **stream**.

windows &optional (*class* **window**) (*only-visible-p* *t*) [Function]
returns a list of existing windows which inherit from *class*. They are listed in order from front to back. If *only-visible-p* is *nil*, then invisible windows are included in the list; otherwise only visible windows are included.

front-window &optional (*window-class* **window**) [Function]
(*only-visible-p* *t*)
returns the front-most window satisfying the arguments. The window must inherit from *window-class*, and if *only-visible-p* is *t*, then only visible windows qualify. If no windows satisfy the tests, *nil* is returned.

find-window *string* [Function]
returns the front-most window whose title is *string*. If no window has *string* as its title, *nil* is returned. (Note: the cross which appears in the title bar of modified Fred windows is ignored).

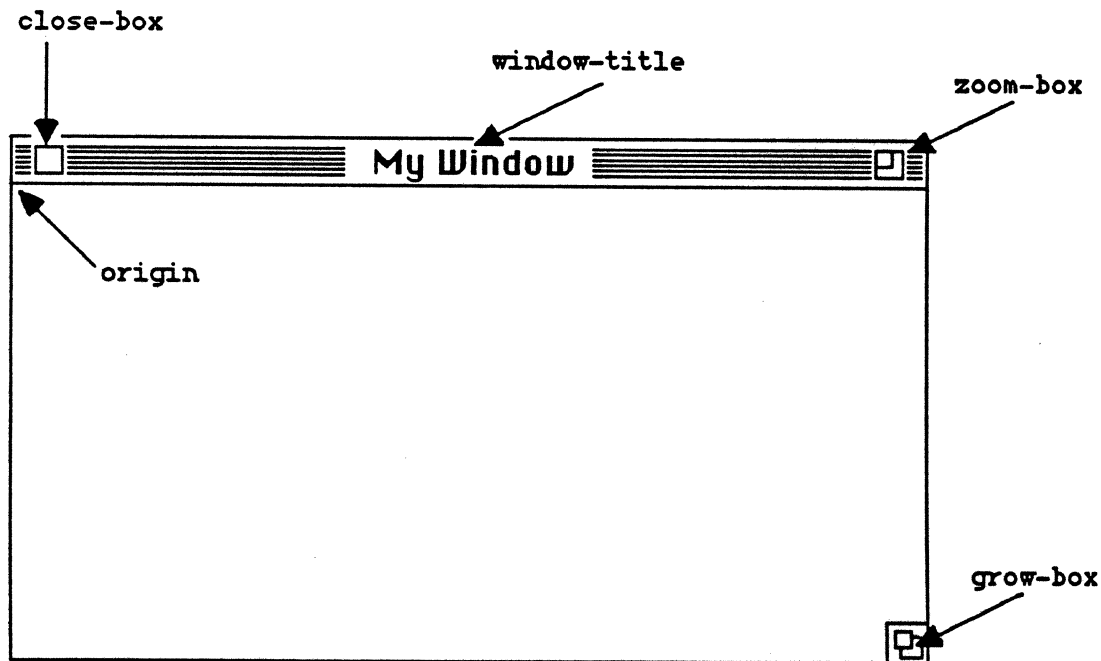
exist *init-list* [Window Function]
initializes a window instance.

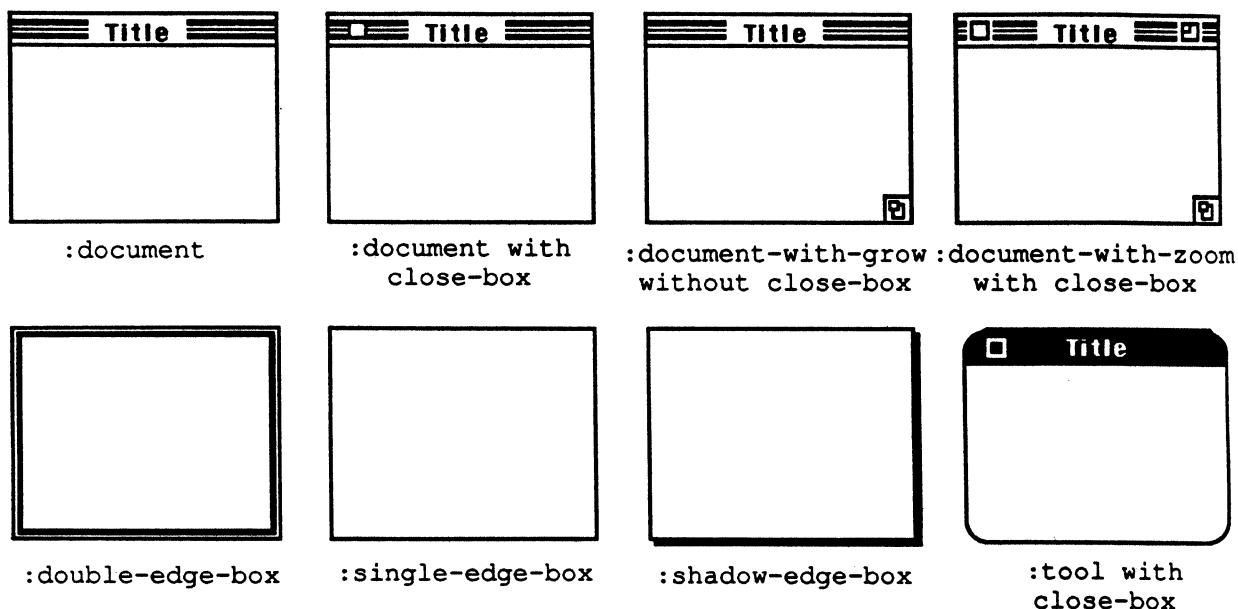
keyword	type	default	meaning
:window-title	<i>string</i>	"Untitled"	initial title of window is <i>string</i> . Only some types of windows display their titles.
:window-position	<i>point</i>	#@ (6 44)	initial position of window is <i>point</i> .
:window-size	<i>point</i>	#@ (502 150)	initial size of the window is x and y dimensions of <i>point</i> .
:window-show	<i>boolean</i>	<i>t</i>	determines whether the window is visible when created.
:window-font	<i>font-spec</i>	("monaco" 9)	the font-spec used by the window.

`:window-layer.....integer.....0.....` determines the plane in which the new window will be created (see `set-window-layer` for details).

`:window-type.....type-key ....:document-with-zoom` sets the window type according to *type-key*. *type-key* should be one of `:document`, `:document-with-grow`, `:document-with-zoom`, `:double-edge-box`, `:single-edge-box`, `:shadow-edge-box`, or `:tool` (see diagram below). The window type cannot be modified once the window is created.

`:close-box-p.....boolean.....t.....` determines whether the window has a close box. This feature cannot be modified once the window is created. It is only available on `:document`, `:document-with-grow`, `:document-with-zoom`, and `:tool` windows.





Example

```
? (setq baz (oneof *window*      :window-title "Bazwin"
                               :window-position #(200 300)
                               :window-type :tool))

#<Object #206, "Bazwin", a *window*>
```

window-close

[Window Function]

removes the window from the screen and reclaims the memory it uses. This operation is the inverse of `exist`. The window may be asked to exist again but its state will be lost. If the window is active when it is closed, `window-deactivate` is called first. It is an error to call `window-close` a second time, without first calling `exist`. `window-close` is called by the Allegro CL event system when the user clicks in a window's close-box. You can tell if a window has been closed (or has not yet been asked to exist) by seeing if the window has a binding for the variable `wptr`.

Example:

```
? (ask baz (window-title))
"Bazwin"
? (ask baz (ownp 'wptr))
t
;the window has a binding of wptr
? (ask baz (window-close))
NIL
;the window disappears from screen
? (ask baz (ownp 'wptr))
NIL
;now closed, so no binding of wptr
? (ask baz (exist))
NIL
;the window reappears,
? (ask baz (window-title))
"Generic Window"
;but with default state
```

window-position

[Window Function]

set-window-position *h* &optional (*v* nil)

[Window Function]

window-position returns the position of the window's origin (i.e. the upper-left corner of the window's content region), in global screen coordinates. The position is returned as a point.

set-window-position moves the window. If both *h* and *v* are give, they should be the new horizontal and vertical coordinates of the window. If *v* is nil, *h* is taken to be an encoded point holding both dimensions. The new position is returned as a point.

Example:

```
? (setq bim (oneof *window* :window-position #@ (50 50)))
#<Object #208, "Untitled", a *window*>
? (ask bim (point-string (window-position)))
#@ (50 50)
```

window-size

[Window Function]

set-window-size *h* &optional (*v* nil)

[Window Function]

window-size returns the window's size as a point.

set-window-size sets the size of the window. The upper-left corner of the window will be anchored, and the lower-right corner will move according to the new size. If both *h* and *v* are given, they should be the new horizontal and vertical dimensions of the window. If *v* is nil, *h* is taken to be an encoded point holding both dimensions. The new size is returned as a point.

window-zoom-position

[Window Variable]

window-zoom-size

[Window Variable]

These variables determine the size and position of a window when it is zoomed out. Initially, windows use inherited bindings for these values. The inherited bindings may be changed, or particular classes or instances may be given their own bindings. **window-zoom-position** defaults to the upper-left corner of the screen, and **window-zoom-size** defaults to the full size of the screen.

window-title

[Window Function]

set-window-title *new-title*

[Window Function]

window-title returns the window's title as a string.

set-window-title sets the window's title to *new-title*.

Both functions ignore the crosses in the title-bars of modified Fred windows.

window-font

[Window Function]

set-window-font *font-spec*

[Window Function]

window-font returns the font-spec used for drawing text into the window.

set-window-font sets the window's font-spec to *font-spec*.

Example

```
? (ask bim (set-window-font '("helvetica" 10)))
#<A MAC Pointer 10371E>
```

The undo function will be called when the **Undo** menu-item is selected.

window-can-undo-p*[Window Function]*

If a window has an undo function, it may also have window-can-undo-p function. If it does, then the **Undo** menu-item will only be enabled when calls to window-can-undo-p return non-nil.

window-can-undo-p can also have the sneaky side-effect of changing the title of the **Undo** menu-item (this menu-item is bound to the global variable *undo-menu-item*). The title will automatically be changed back when another window is selected.

Supporting Save and Save As...

Any window can make use of the **Save** and **Save As...** menu-items on the file menu. To support **Save**, the window should have a definition for the function window-save. To support **Save As...**, the window should have a definition for the function window-save-as. In addition, a window may have a definition for the function window-needs-saving-p, which determines whether the **Save** menu-item is enabled when the window is on top.

window-save*[Window Function]*

called when the window is on top and the user selects the **Save** menu-item from the **File** menu. If a window does not have (or inherit) a definition for this function, the **Save** menu-item will be disabled when the window is on top.

window-save-as*[Window Function]*

called when the window is on top and the user selects the **Save As...** menu-item from the **File** menu. If a window does not have (or inherit) a definition for this function, the **Save As...** menu-item will be disabled when the window is on top.

window-needs-saving-p*[Window Function]*

if defined for a window that also has a definition for window-save, window-needs-saving-p is used to determine whether the **Save** menu-item from the **File** menu should be enabled. A window does not need to have a definition for this function; if it doesn't (but *does* have a definition for window-save) then the **Save** menu-item will always be enabled. Otherwise, it will only be enabled if window-needs-saving-p returns non-nil.

- Overview
- Dialog Functions
- Dialog Items
- Specialized Dialog-items
- Table-dialog-items
- Specialized Table-dialog-items

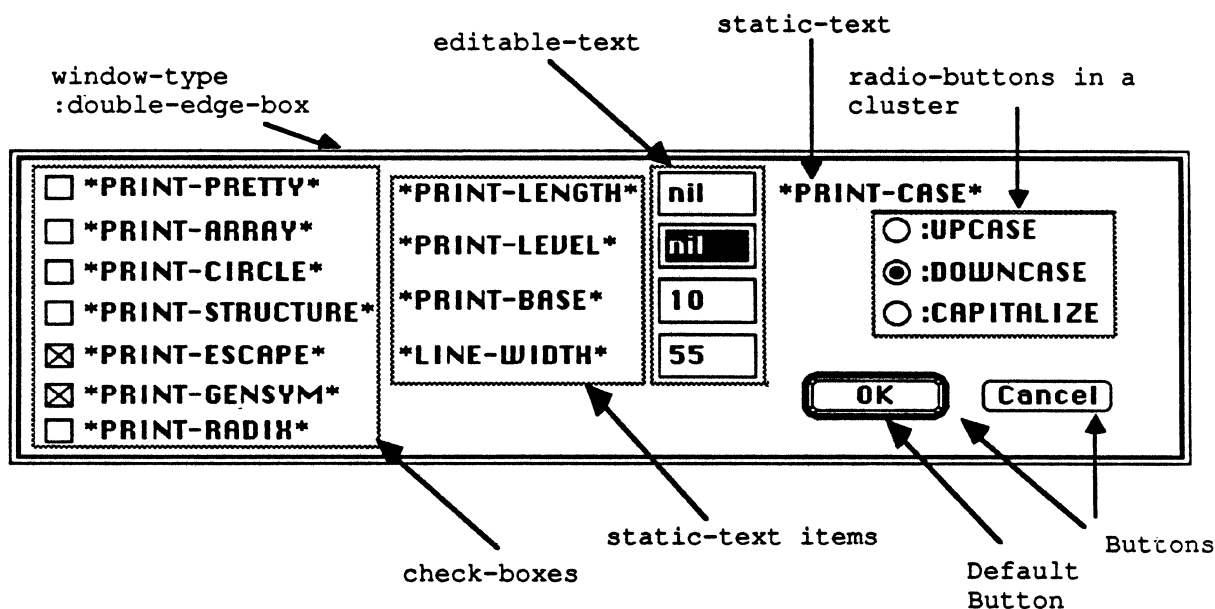


Dialogs

Overview

A *dialog* is a specialized kind of window that contains *dialog-items* (which perform actions when clicked by the user), text, and graphics. Dialog-items are implemented as objects; the available classes are buttons, check-boxes, radio-buttons, static text, editable text, and tables. Each dialog-item class inherits from the generic **dialog-item** class, so they share common capabilities. They all have a position, size, text and action. They are also either enabled or disabled. Disabled dialog-items usually appear grayed-out.

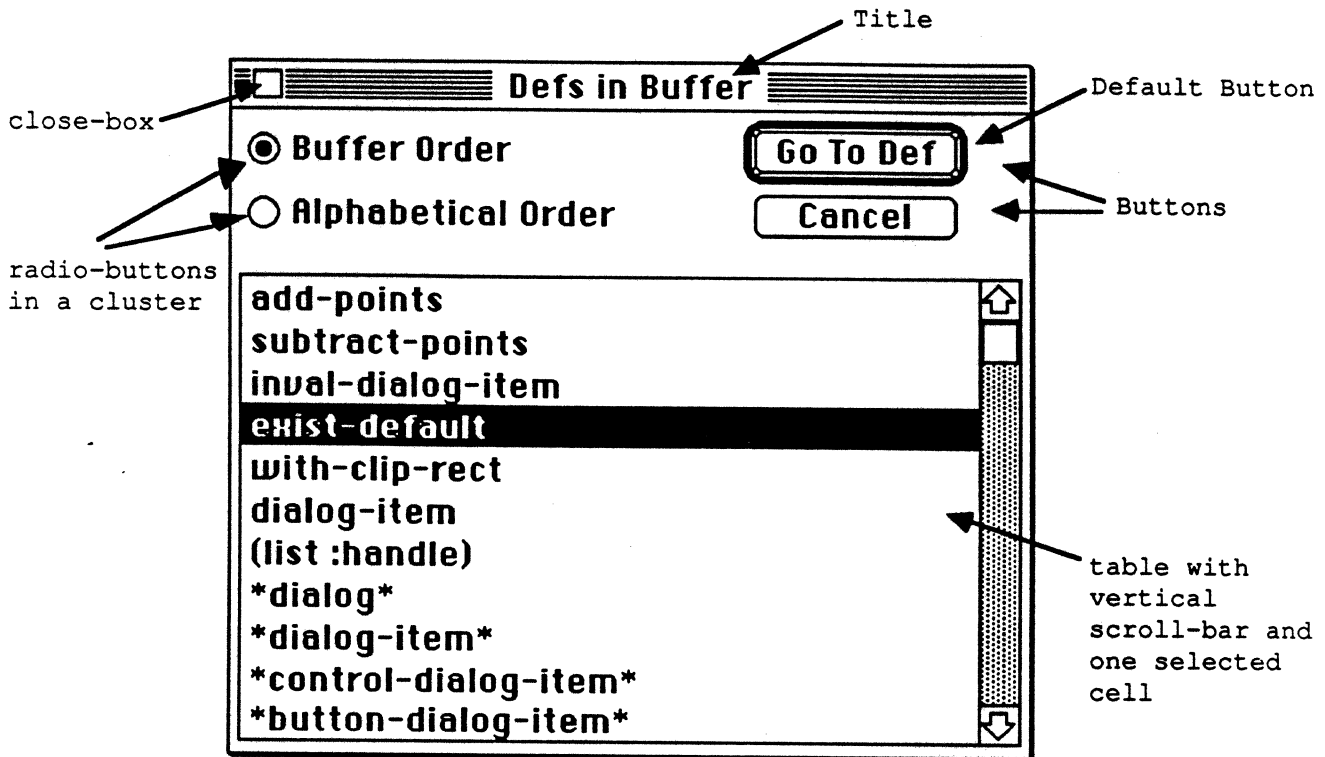
Because dialogs inherit from **window** they can perform all window operations. Some window operations (such as *window-show* and *set-window-position*) are needed to use dialogs effectively. See the chapter **Windows** for details of these operations.



A Modal Dialog Box

A dialog may be either *modal* or *modeless*. A modal dialog requires the user to exit the dialog before any other user actions can be performed. A message box with an OK button is an example of a modal dialog. A modeless dialog allows active menus and the activation of other windows without explicitly terminating the dialog interaction. The “search” dialog is an example of a modeless dialog.

A dialog’s modality is not inherent in the dialog object, but is determined by how the dialog is used. Any dialog object may be used as a modal or modeless dialog (although dialogs will normally be set up to work as one or the other). In order not to confuse users, a particular dialog should only be used in one way, as modal or modeless. Modal dialogs are usually created from window-type `:double-edge-box` (and are therefore not movable and have no close-box, size-box, or title). Modeless dialogs are usually created from window-type `:document` (and are therefore movable, have a title, and may have a close-box). Modal dialogs should only be made from `:document` windows when they must be movable.



A Modeless Dialog Box

A modal dialog is activated by calling the function `modal-dialog` with a dialog object as the argument. The dialog will be shown (an error will be signalled if the dialog is already shown), and made the front window. All subsequent user events will be processed by the dialog, illegal events will produce a beep and legal events will trigger the action of the appropriate dialog-item. The dialog will continue to intercept all events until `return-from-modal-dialog` is called. This causes the dialog to be hidden and supplies the value to be returned from the call to `modal-dialog`. Modal dialogs may be nested. An abort (command-period) always gets you out of a modal dialog.

Modeless dialogs are available for use if they are shown. Like any window, if a modeless dialog is clicked when it is not the front window, it comes to the front and becomes the active window. If a modeless dialog is the active window, then appropriate user events trigger the actions of its dialog-items.

Unless otherwise specified, all the text in a dialog (i.e. the text of all the items) appears in the window's current font. The desired font should be set before the dialog is created (using `set-window-font` or the `window-font` init option). Individual items may be given their own font, which will be used instead of the window's font. Changing the font while a dialog is shown may produce some undesirable cosmetic effects.

dialog

Contains the dialog class object.

[Variable]

exist *init-list*

[Dialog Function]

Initializes the dialog. The dialog will take up space on the Macintosh heap until it is closed. A window is closed by clicking in the close-box or explicitly asking it to window-close.

keyword	type	default	meaning
:window-title.....	<i>string</i>	"Untitled Dialog"	the window title of the dialog.
:window-position..	<i>point</i>	#@(200 50)	initial position
:window-size	<i>point</i>	#@(200 100)	size of dialog
:window-show	<i>boolean</i>	t	whether dialog window is initially shown
:window-font	<i>font-spec</i> ...	("chicago" 12)	font to be used in the dialog.
:window-type	<i>keyword</i>	:document	type of window used. For available window-types, see the Windows chapter.
:dialog-items.....	<i>list</i>	nil	a list of dialog-items to place in the dialog
:default-button....	<i>thing</i>	t	may be t, nil, or a button. If nil, the dialog will have no default button. If t, the first button in the dialog will be the default button. If a button, it will be made the default button.

modal-dialog *dialog-object* &optional (*close-on-return* t)

[Function]

makes *dialog-object* the front window, shows it, then intercepts subsequent user events until a return-from-modal-dialog is executed. User events are directed to the appropriate dialog-items triggering their actions; events outside the frame of the dialog window cause a beep. The return value is supplied by the call to return-from-modal-dialog that exits the modal dialog. An error is signalled if *dialog-object* does not inherit from *dialog*. Modal dialogs may be nested.

The optional argument *close-on-return* specifies whether the dialog window should be closed just before the call to modal-dialog returns. Having the windows closed automatically prevents the accumulation of numerous hidden windows during development. If *close-on-return* is nil, then the window is hidden, but not closed. (Note: *close-on-return* is unwind-protected, so that any throw past modal-dialog will close or hide the window, as appropriate).

return-from-modal-dialog *values*

[Macro]

Causes *values* to be returned from the most recent call to modal-dialog. The dialog is hidden or closed, depending on the value of *close-on-return* that was passed to the call to modal-dialog. (Any throw past the modal-dialog call also causes the dialog to be hidden or closed). If the dialog is only hidden, it will continue to take up memory until it is explicitly asked to window-close.

return-from-modal-dialog supports multiple-values. If the first (or only) value is the keyword :cancel, return-from-modal-dialog will throw to :cancel. Unless caught by the user, this throw will return to the top level listener loop. It is customary for the cancel button to return the value :cancel.

If the modal dialog has a close box (they usually shouldn't), and the user clicks in it, return-from-modal-dialog will be called with the argument :closed. The window will be closed, regardless of the value of *close-on-return*.

window-close

[Dialog Function]

Reclaims space used by the dialog. All of the items in the dialog are removed.

add-dialog-items &rest *dialog-items*

[Dialog Function]

each of the *dialog-items* is added to the dialog. If any of the items are already owned by a dialog, an error is signalled. nil is returned.

Example:

```
(ask my-dialog
  (add-dialog-items (oneof *button-dialog-item*
                           :dialog-item-text "Do It"
                           :dialog-item-position #(20 80)))
```

remove-dialog-items &rest *dialog-items*

[Dialog Function]

Removes each of the *dialog-items* from the dialog. nil is returned.

dialog-items &optional *dialog-item-class*

[Dialog Function]

returns a list of the dialog's dialog-items that inherit from *dialog-item-class*. *dialog-item-class* defaults to *dialog-item* so that all of the dialog's dialog-items will be returned. The items are returned in the reverse order that they were added.

find-dialog-item *string*

[Dialog Function]

returns the first item in the dialog whose dialog-item-text is equalp to *string*. The items are searched in the order they were added to the dialog (which is the reverse of the order that they are returned by dialog-items).

current-editable-text

[Dialog Function]

set-current-editable-text *dialog-item*

[Dialog Function]

The current-editable-text-item is the editable text item that contains the blinking insertion point. This is the item where user typing appears.

current-editable-text returns the dialog's current editable text dialog-item. If the dialog contains no enabled editable text items, nil is returned.

set-current-editable-text changes the dialog's current editable text item to be *dialog-item*. *dialog-item* must inherit from *editable-text-dialog-item* and be in the dialog's list of dialog-items or an error will be signalled. *dialog-item* is returned.

default-button

[Dialog Function]

set-default-button *thing*

[Dialog Function]

The default button is the button whose action is run when the user types #\return or #\enter while a dialog is active. The default button is automatically outlined with a black border to indicate to the user which button it is. If the current editable text allows returns, return characters will go into the editable text instead of running the default button's action. If this is true, the black border around the default button will be removed to indicate this condition to the user (but calls to default-button will still return the button).

default-button returns the current default button. If the dialog has no default button, nil is returned.

set-default-button changes the default button in the dialog according to the value of *thing*, which should be `nil`, `t`, or a `button-dialog-item`. If *thing* is `nil`, there will be no default button. If it is `t`, the first button in the dialog will be made the default button. If it is a button, the button will be made the default button. *thing* is returned.

pushed-radio-button &optional (*cluster* 0) [Dialog Function]
returns the pushed radio-button from the specified cluster. `nil` is returned if there is no such cluster, or no pushed radio-button in the cluster (the latter should only occur when the radio-buttons in a cluster are disabled).

cut [Dialog Function]
Deletes selected text from the current editable text dialog-item and puts it into the Clipboard.

copy [Dialog Function]
Copies selected text from the current editable text dialog-item into the Clipboard.

paste [Dialog Function]
Replaces the selected text of the current editable text dialog-item with the contents of the Clipboard.

Dialog-items

`*dialog-item*` is an abstract class (it is not meant to be directly instantiated). It is the parent of more specific classes of dialog-item class.

The dialog-item subclasses are:

- `*button-dialog-item*`
- `*check-box-dialog-item*`
- `*radio-button-dialog-item*`
- `*static-text-dialog-item*`
- `*editable-text-dialog-item*`
- `*table-dialog-item*` (an abstract class)
- `*sequence-dialog-item*`
- `*array-dialog-item*`

dialog-item [Variable]
The dialog-item class. `*dialog-item*` provides the basic functionality that all dialog-items share.

exist init-list [Dialog-Item Function]
Initializes a dialog-item. If `dialog-item-size` is not specified in *init-list* it is determined heuristically from the dialog-item's class and other *init-list* data. For example, a button will be made just big enough to contain its text. If `dialog-item-position` is not specified, the dialog-item is positioned in the first vacant space when it is added to the dialog window; if there is no rectangle large enough to hold the item, an error is signalled.

keyword	type	default	meaning
<code>:dialog-item-position</code>	<i>point</i>	calculated	 the position in the dialog where the item will be placed, in local window coordinates. If not

specified, the first available position large enough to hold the item will be used.

`:dialog-item-size..... point..... calculated.....` the size of the dialog-item. If not specified, this will be calculated to fit the item. If specified and too small, the item will be clipped.

`:dialog-item-font..... font-spec ... nil.....` the font used to display the dialog-item's text. If *nil*, the dialog's window-font is used.

`:dialog-item-enabled-p.... boolean ..... t .....` whether the item is enabled. disabled items are displayed grayed-out, and their actions are not run when you click on them.

`:dialog-item-text..... string ..... t .....` the text of the dialog-item.

`:dialog-item-action ..... expression . nil.....` used to define dialog-item-action, i.e. the action run when the dialog-item is selected. *thing* may be a function, a symbol with a function binding, or a form. If it is a form, it will be used as the body of a defobjfun.

dialog-item-action*[Dialog-Item Function]*

This function is called with no arguments whenever the user clicks in the dialog-item. Each individual instance of a dialog-item may have its own definition, but since each class of dialog-item has a usual behavior (for example check-boxes toggle their state), `usual-dialog-item-action` should normally be called. `dialog-item-action` will not be called if the item is disabled. It is normally called when the mouse button is released, not when it is pressed (this allows tracking to be performed by the system).

When a `dialog-item-action` is called, the program is interrupted and further events are disabled until the `dialog-item-action` returns. This means that other dialog-items cannot be selected until the first returns. To avoid locking out other actions, dialog-items can insert forms into the read/eval/print loop with `eval-enqueue`. For details, see the Events chapter.

If a `dialog-item-action` is found to an anonymous lambda expression, the action will only be able to call `usual-action` if the lambda was defined with `nfunction`. See the Object Lisp chapter for details.

dialog-item-position*[Dialog-Item Function]***set-dialog-item-position** *h* &optional (*v nil*)*[Dialog-Item Function]*

A dialog-item's position is the position of the item's upper-left corner in the dialog window's local coordinates.

`dialog-item-position` returns the dialog-item's position.

`set-dialog-item-position` moves the dialog-item to the position represented by *h* and *v* in the dialog window's local coordinates. If *v* is *nil*, *h* is assumed to represent a point. The new position is returned as a point.

dialog-item-size [Dialog-Item Function]

set-dialog-item-size *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Dialog-Item Function]

When a dialog-item is drawn, the drawing is clipped to the rectangle determined by the dialog-item's position and size. This is also the rectangle that is used to determine which dialog-item receives user mouse-clicks.

dialog-item-size returns the dialog-item's size as a point.

set-dialog-item-size changes the size of the dialog-item to the width and height represented by *h* and *v*. If *v* is not given, *h* is assumed to represent a point. The new size is returned.

dialog-item-text [Dialog-Item Function]

set-dialog-item-text *string* [Dialog-Item Function]

The text of a dialog-item has different meanings for each dialog-item class. It is the text of static-text and editable-text items. It is displayed inside buttons, and to the right of radio-buttons, and check-boxes. If a different location is desired, set the text to the empty string and use a separate static-text item. Tables do not display their dialog-item-text.

set-dialog-item-text returns the text associated with the dialog-item as a string.

dialog-item-text sets the text associated with the dialog-item to *string* and returns *string*.

dialog-item-font [Dialog-Item Function]

set-dialog-item-font *font-spec* [Dialog-Item Function]

dialog-item-font returns the font used by the item in the form of a font-spec, or nil if the dialog-item uses its window's font.

set-dialog-item-font sets the dialog-item's font to *font-spec*. If *font-spec* is nil, the dialog-item will use the font of its dialog window. The dialog-item will not resize, so calling this function after a dialog-item has been created may cause display problems.

dialog-item-draw [Dialog-Item Function]

This function is defined in each type of item. It is called by the system whenever the item needs to be drawn (for example, when the dialog is first displayed, or when it is uncovered after having been covered up). This function may be defined for any user-specialized items.

dialog-item-enable [Dialog-Item Function]

dialog-item-disable [Dialog-Item Function]

dialog-item-enabled-p [Dialog-Item Function]

dialog-item-enable enables the dialog-item. It will not be dimmed, and its action will be run when the user clicks in it. nil is returned.

dialog-item-disable disables the dialog-item. This causes the dialog-item to become dimmed; clicks in the item are ignored, and the action of the item is never run. Disabling a check-box does not uncheck it, and disabling a radio-button does not unpush it (you may want to uncheck or unpush the item explicitly). nil is returned.

dialog-item-enabled-p returns t if the dialog-item is enabled, nil if it is disabled.

my-dialog [Dialog-Item Variable]

the dialog object that owns the dialog-item. It is nil if the item is not installed in any dialog object. This variable should never be changed by the user. It is affected by the *dialog* functions: add-dialog-items, and remove-dialog-items.

add-self-to-dialog *dialog*

[Dialog-Item Function]

this function is called by `add-dialog-items` when it is adding an item to a dialog. Its purpose is to perform those initialization tasks that require a window (e.g. defaulting the position or size). It should never be called directly by user code. However, it may be shadowed. *dialog* will hold the dialog that the item is being added to. Specialized versions of `add-self-to-dialog` should always call `usual-add-self-to-dialog`.

remove-self-from-dialog

[Dialog-Item Function]

this function is called when a dialog-item is being removed from a dialog by a call to `remove-dialog-items`. It should never be called directly by user code. However, it may be shadowed. Specialized versions of `remove-self-from-dialog` should dispose of any Macintosh data (i.e. non-garbage-collectable data) used by the item, and should always call `usual-remove-self-to-dialog`.

Specialized Dialog-items***button-dialog-item***

[Variable]

the class used to make button dialog-items. Buttons are displayed as rounded rectangles that contain text. Clicking in a button usually has an immediate result (they should have their own definition of `dialog-item-action`). The first button added to a dialog automatically becomes the default button. This may be changed by asking the dialog to `set-default-button`. The default button is outlined with a black border. In general, typing `return` or `enter` is equivalent to clicking in the default button. However, if the current editable-text item allows returns, then returns and enters will not trigger the default button; in this case, the black border around the default button is removed.

static-text-dialog-item

[Variable]

the class of static text dialog-items. Static text may be positioned anywhere in a dialog window to explain the layout of the dialog or supply additional information to the user. The text appears in the window's font, unless otherwise specified. Static text does not generally have an action, but it may. (Unlike other items, the action of a static text is run when button is pressed, not when it is released).

Depending on the amount of text, and the size of the item, the text may perform word-wrap to fit within its area. If the size is not given explicitly, it will be the size needed to hold the text without wrapping to multiple lines.

editable-text-dialog-item

[Variable]

Contains the editable text dialog-item class. Editable text dialog-items are surrounded by a box. The text that appears in the box may be edited by the user in the standard Macintosh ways. It may be selected using the mouse, and works with cut, copy, and paste (though the command-keys for cut, copy and paste do not work from within modal dialogs).

At any given time, there is only one current editable text dialog-item. This is the one that contains a blinking cursor or a highlighted selection. User typing is directed to the current editable text dialog-item by asking it to `dialog-item-key-event-handler`. The tab key changes the current editable text to the next editable text in the dialog, cycling back to the first after the last. The current editable text item may be determined by asking the dialog `current-editable-text` and changed by asking the dialog to `set-current-editable-text`.

The text may be determined by calling `dialog-item-text` or changed by calling `set-dialog-item-text`. The initial text may be specified when an editable text dialog-item is created by using the `dialog-item-text` init option.

exist init-list [Editable-Text-Dialog-Item Function]

Initializes the editable text dialog-item.

keyword	type	default	meaning
<code>:allow-returns</code>	<code>boolean</code>	<code>nil</code>	if <code>allow-returns</code> is non- <code>nil</code> , then carriage returns may be entered into the text of the editable text item. The default button (if there is one) will be disabled.

allow-returns [Editable-Text-Dialog-Item Variable]

this variable will be non-`nil` if the editable-text item allows returns, otherwise it will be `nil`. This variable should never be changed by the user.

check-box-dialog-item [Variable]

Contains the check-box class. Check-boxes are small squares that contain an x when they are checked. The usual dialog-item-action toggles its state between being checked and unchecked. The text of a check-box appears to the right of the box.

exist init-list [Check-Box-Dialog-Item Function]

Initializes the item.

keyword	type	default	meaning
<code>:check-box-checked-p</code>	<code>boolean</code>	<code>nil</code>	whether the item is initially checked.

check-box-check [Check-Box-Dialog-Item Function]

check-box-uncheck [Check-Box-Dialog-Item Function]

check-box-checked-p [Check-Box-Dialog-Item Function]

`check-box-check` checks the dialog-item's check-box. The dialog-item's action is not run.
`check-box-uncheck` unchecks the dialog-item's check-box. The dialog-item's action is not run.

`check-box-checked-p` returns `t` if the dialog-item's check-box is checked, `nil` if it is unchecked.

radio-button-dialog-item [Variable]

Contains the radio-button dialog-item class. Radio-buttons are small open circles that contain a black dot when pushed. Radio-buttons occur in clusters in which only one button is pushed at a time. They are like the buttons on a car radio: pushing one button causes the previously pushed button to unpush.

exist

Initializes the radio-button instance.

[Radio-Button-Dialog-Item Function]

keyword	type	default	meaning
:radio-button-cluster.....	<i>sym</i>	0.....	the cluster to which the radio-button belongs. To test if two buttons are in the same cluster, the values for this variable are compared using eq.
:radio-button-pushed-p.....	<i>boolean</i>	<i>nil</i>	determines whether the radio-button is initially pushed.

radio-button-push

[Radio-Button-Dialog-Item Function]

radio-button-unpush

[Radio-Button-Dialog-Item Function]

radio-button-pushed-p

[Radio-Button-Dialog-Item Function]

radio-button-push pushes the radio-button and unpushes the previously pushed button in the cluster. The dialog-item's action is not run.

radio-button-unpush unpushes the radio-button.

radio-button-pushed-p returns *t* if the radio-button is pushed, *nil* if it is not pushed.

radio-button-cluster

[Radio-Button-Dialog-Item Variable]

this variable holds the radio-button's cluster ID. Only one button from a given cluster is pushed at a time. Whenever you push one button, all the other buttons with the same value for radio-button-cluster (testing with eq) are asked to radio-button-unpush.

Table-dialog-items

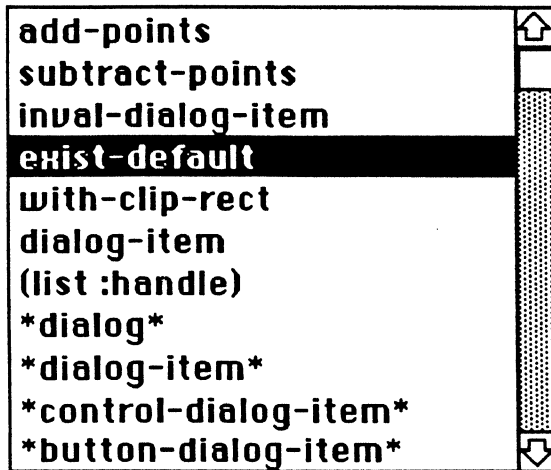
Table-dialog-items provide a method for viewing a set of items, and selecting items from the set. The items are usually members of a list, vector, or multi-dimensional array, but this is not required. table-dialog-items may be one or two dimensional. Two dimensional table-dialog-items look like spreadsheets. One dimensional table-dialog-items look like the file selection boxes when you choose **Save As....** (Note: table-dialog-items are implemented using the Macintosh List Manager. We call them tables to avoid confusion with the ubiquitous "list" of Lisp.)

foo	CaSe	foo
bar	!!!	bar
baz	1234	baz
bim	(+ 5 4)	bim
quux	jjj	quux
		

2 dimensional table-dialog-item
with horizontal scroll-bar.

aaa
bbb
ccc
ddd

1 dimensional table-dialog-item
arranged vertically, with no
scroll-bar.



1 dimensional table-dialog-item arranged vertically, with vertical scroll-bar.



1 dimensional table-dialog-item arranged horizontally, with horizontal scroll-bar

Everything that works for normal dialog-items (such as dialog-item-size, dialog-item-position, etc) works for tables, except that the text of tables is not shown.

Table-dialog-items are rectangles with a series of cells. In each given dimension (vertically and horizontally), if all the cells cannot be fit in the item's rectangle, then scroll bars will appear. When you click on a cell, it is selected, and the previously selected cell is de-selected. Selected cells usually appear in inverse video (though you can shadow the highlighting function). A contiguous group of cells can be selected by holding down the shift key and dragging or clicking. A discontinuous group of cells can be selected by holding down the command key and clicking on each desired cell. Clicking and dragging outside the table's rectangle causes auto-scrolling. Your program can access various information about a table, such as which cells are selected, the quickdraw positions of any cell, the contents of any cell, etc.

The cells in table-dialog-items are described as points. The horizontal and vertical dimensions of the point are encoded in a fixnum, with the same technique used for Quickdraw points. The horizontal and vertical components can be retrieved from the point with the functions `point-h` and `point-v`. The point can be printed readably with the function `point-string`. The following diagrams show one and two dimensional tables, and the points associated with their cells.

#@(0 0)	#@(1 0)	#@(2 0)	#@(3 0)
#@(0 1)	#@(1 1)	#@(2 1)	#@(3 1)
#@(0 2)	#@(1 2)	#@(2 2)	#@(3 2)
#@(0 3)	#@(1 3)	#@(2 3)	#@(3 3)
#@(0 4)	#@(1 4)	#@(2 4)	#@(3 4)
#@(0 5)	#@(1 5)	#@(2 5)	#@(3 5)
#@(0 6)	#@(1 6)	#@(2 6)	#@(3 6)
#@(0 7)	#@(1 7)	#@(2 7)	#@(3 7)
#@(0 8)	#@(1 8)	#@(2 8)	#@(3 8)
#@(0 9)	#@(1 9)	#@(2 9)	#@(3 9)

#@(0 0)
#@(0 1)
#@(0 2)
#@(0 3)
#@(0 4)
#@(0 5)
#@(0 6)
#@(0 7)
#@(0 8)
#@(0 9)

#@(0 0)	#@(1 0)	#@(2 0)	#@(3 0)	#@(4 0)
---------	---------	---------	---------	---------

table-dialog-item

[Variable]

an abstract class, from which usable classes of table-dialog-items inherit. It provides the base functionality for all types of table-dialog-items. This class should not be directly instantiated.

Exist init-list

[Table-Dialog-Item Function]

initializes a new table-dialog-item.

keyword	type	default	meaning
:table-vscrollp	<i>boolean</i>	...calculated	whether the table should have a vertical scroll-bar.
:table-hscrollp	<i>boolean</i>	...calculated	whether the table should have a horizontal scroll-bar.
:table-dimensions	<i>point</i>	#@ (0 0)	number of cells in horizontal and vertical dimension. A dimension given as zero will be calculated. The theoretical dimension limit is 32k by 32k. However, the Macintosh allocates 4 bytes per cell, so the practical limitation is much smaller than this, and depends on available memory.
:visible-dimensions	<i>point</i>	calculated	if given, will set the size of the table so that the number of cells shown horizontally and vertically correspond to the dimensions of <i>point</i> .
:cell-size	<i>point</i>	calculated	horizontal and vertical dimensions of the cells in the table.

:selection-type *keyword* ..:single determines whether the table allows single or multiple selections, and whether multiple selections must be contiguous. Possible keywords are :single, :contiguous, and :disjoint.

The standard keyword arguments for dialog-items (such as `dialog-item-position`, `dialog-item-size`) may also be used. Note that `table-dialog-items` do not display their text.

cell-contents *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
This function is shadowed by specialized forms of `table-dialog-items` to return a printable representation of the contents of the cell specified by *h* and *v*. `cell-contents` is called by `draw-cell-contents`.

draw-cell-contents *cell* [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
draws the contents of *cell*. This function is called by CCL and should not usually be called by user code. It may be shadowed to provide specialized displays (for example, you could create a table of patterns, or icons). The usual version prints the cell's contents into the display; if the item is too long to fit in the cell, an ellipsis is added to specify that truncation has occurred. *cell* is a point.

Before calling this function, CCL sets the clip-rect to restrict drawing to the cell, erases the cell, and moves the pen to a position three-pixels from the bottom, and three pixels from the left edge of the cell.

table-dimensions [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
set-table-dimensions *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
`table-dimensions` returns a point indicating the number of cells horizontally and vertically in the table.
`set-table-dimensions` sets the number of cells horizontally and vertically according to *h* and *v*. The theoretical limits on the number of cells are 32k by 32k. However, the Macintosh allocates 4 bytes per cell, so the practical limit will be much lower. The new dimensions are returned as a point.

visible-dimensions [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
set-visible-dimensions *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
provides an alternate to `dialog-item-size` for specifying the size of a table.
`visible-dimensions` returns a point indicating the number of cells visible in the horizontal and vertical dimensions.
`set-visible-dimensions` resizes the table so that *h* cells are visible per row, and *v* cells are visible per column. The new dimensions are returned as a point.

cell-size [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
set-cell-size *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
`cell-size` returns the cell-size of the table.
`set-cell-size` sets the cell size according to *h* and *v* and returns the new size as a point.

cell-select *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
cell-deselect *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
cell-selected-p *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
cell-select selects the cell specified by *h* and *v*. Previously selected cells are not affected.
cell-deselect deselects the cell specified by *h* and *v*.
cell-selected-p returns *t* if the cell specified by *h* and *v* is selected, otherwise *nil*.

selected-cells [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
 returns a list of all the cells selected in the table. Each cell is represented by a point. If no cells are selected, *nil* is returned.

scroll-to-cell *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
 scrolls the table so that the cell specified by *h* and *v* is in the upper-left corner.

scroll-position [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
 returns the coordinates of the cell in the upper left corner of the table.

cell-position *cell* [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
 if the cell is visible, returns the position of the *cell*'s upper left corner, otherwise returns *nil*.
 Positions are given in the dialog window's local window coordinates.

point-to-cell *point* [Table-Dialog-Item Function]
point should be given in the local coordinates of the dialog window. Returns the cell enclosing *point*, or *nil* if *point* is not within a cell.

Specialized Table-dialog-items

The following are specializations of table-dialog-items which may be used to create dialog-item instances. The first associates the table with a sequence. The second associates the table with an array.

sequence-dialog-item [Variable]
 the sequence dialog-item class, used for displaying the elements of a sequence. Each instance is associated with a sequence. The elements of the sequence are displayed in the table, in a single row or column, or in multiple rows and columns. The table will only have multiple rows and columns if the length of the sequence is greater than the `:sequence-wrap-length`.

exist [Sequence-Dialog-Item Function]
 initializes a sequence dialog-item.

keyword	type	default	meaning
<code>:table-sequence</code>	<i>sequence</i>	must be specified	the sequence to be associated with the table. This argument must be specified by the user.
<code>:sequence-order</code>	<i>keyword</i>	<code>:vertical</code>	whether the sequence will fill the table row by row, or column by column. Allowed keywords are <code>:vertical</code> and <code>:horizontal</code> .

`:sequence-wrap-length.....integer.....1073741823.....` The number of items to be allowed in a row or column before the table wraps to the next row or column. This number overrides the `:table-dimensions` argument.

table-sequence [Sequence-Dialog-Item Function]
set-table-sequence *new-sequence* [Sequence-Dialog-Item Function]
 table-sequence returns the sequence associated with the dialog-item.
 set-table-sequence sets the sequence associated with the dialog-item to *new-sequence*, resets the table's dimensions and scroll-bars, and redisplay the table.

cell-to-index *cell* [Sequence-Dialog-Item Function]
 returns an index into the sequence associated with the table, corresponding to the element associated with *cell*. This index may be used with `elt`.

index-to-cell *index* [Sequence-Dialog-Item Function]
 returns a cell in the table which corresponds into the *index*'th element of the table's sequence.

Example

The following definitions create a new class which inherits from `*sequence-dialog-item*`. This class is useful for displaying association lists. Only the keys are displayed in the table. The keys, the values, or the complete association pair can be retrieved from the table.

```
;define the class
(defobject *alist-dialog-item* *sequence-dialog-item*)

;cell-contents is called by draw-cell-contents
;it returns only the car of the pair
(defobfun (cell-contents *alist-dialog-item*) (cell)
  (car (usual-cell-contents cell)))

;full-cell-contents returns the full pair
(defobfun (full-cell-contents *alist-dialog-item*) (cell)
  (elt (table-sequence) (cell-to-index cell)))

;value-cell-contents returns the value
(defobfun (value-cell-contents *alist-dialog-item*) (cell)
  (cdr (full-cell-contents cell)))
```

array-dialog-item [Variable]
 The array-dialog-item-class. Each instance displays an associated array. The array may have any number of dimensions. At a given time, the index into all but two of the dimensions will be constant. The indexes into the non-constant dimensions are associated with the rows and columns of the table, and may be scrolled through. The non-constant dimensions are called the *h-specifier* and *v-specifier*. The indexes into the constant dimensions are taken from the *current-subscript list*.

exist

[Array-Dialog-Item Function]

keyword	type	default	meaning
:table-array.....	array.....	must be specified.....	the array which will be associated with the table.
:h-specifier.....	integer.....	0	the array dimension to be associated with the horizontal axis of the table.
:v-specifier.....	integer.....	1	the array dimension to be associated with the vertical axis of the table.
:table-subscript.....	list.....	'(0 0 0 ...)'	list of integers used for indexing into the array. The list's length should equal the array's rank.

h-specifier

[Array-Dialog-Item Function]

set-h-specifier *new-h-specifier*

[Array-Dialog-Item Function]

h-specifier holds the dimension of the array which is currently shown along the horizontal axis of the table.

set-h-specifier sets the table's *h-specifier* to *new-h-specifier*.

v-specifier

[Array-Dialog-Item Function]

set-v-specifier *new-v-specifier*

[Array-Dialog-Item Function]

v-specifier holds the dimension of the array which is currently shown along the vertical axis of the table.

set-v-specifier sets the table's *v-specifier* to *new-v-specifier*.

cell-to-subscript *cell*

[Array-Dialog-Item Function]

given a cell (as a point), returns an index into the array (as a list of integers).

subscript-to-cell *list-of-integers*

[Array-Dialog-Item Function]

given a list of subscripts, returns the corresponding cell or nil (if there is no corresponding cell).

table-array

[Array-Dialog-Item Function]

set-table-array *new-array*

[Array-Dialog-Item Function]

table-array returns the array associated with the dialog-item.

set-table-array sets the table's array to *new-array*, resets the table's dimensions and scroll-bars, and redisplay the table.

table-subscript

[Array-Dialog-Item Function]

set-table-subscript *new-subscript*

[Array-Dialog-Item Function]

table-subscript returns a list holding the subscripts currently used for indexing into the array.

set-table-subscript sets the subscripts used for indexing into the array. *new-subscript* should be a list (of integers) whose length equals the rank of the array. The *h-specifier* and *v-specifier* still determine which dimensions are displayed in the vertical and horizontal dimensions of the table. The indexes into the other dimensions are taken from the *table-subscript*.

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- Event Handlers
- Event Information Functions
- The Event Management System
- Cursor Handling



Events

Overview

This chapter describes Allegro CL's facilities for handling events, and for changing the appearance of the cursor.

Whenever possible, Macintosh programs should be *event driven*. Events are usually generated by the user as a way of directing program flow. Typical events are keystrokes and mouse clicks. Events interrupt a program and often require a response. This chapter explains how Allegro CL processes events and describes the language features for responding to events.

Allegro CL automatically handles events as a background task. When an event occurs, the current program is interrupted and the event is handled. Program execution is not resumed until the event handling function returns. Further event processing is also deferred until the event handling function returns. To initiate a program from within an event handler, use the function `eval-enqueue`.

Many user programs do not need to handle events explicitly. For those programs that do, there are several different event handling methods available. In order of increasing complexity these are:

- Defining a window object's response to specific types of events;
- Defining a window object's response to all events directed to the window;
- Defining a hook procedure that has first crack at processing all events;
- Disabling all background event-processing, and handling events with an event loop.

Most programming languages for the Macintosh support only the last (the most difficult) method of event handling. Programs in Allegro CL rarely need to do anything more complex than the first.

Event Handlers

The Allegro CL event system gets each event from the Macintosh operating system in turn and binds it to `*current-event*`. It then determines the type of the event and asks the appropriate window object to run an event-handling function for that event. The name of each window event-handler function starts with "window-" to indicate that it is a window object function and ends with "-event-handler" to indicate that it should only be called by the event system.

Many of the system's default event-handler functions do nothing, though they are called whenever an event of the appropriate type is processed. These handlers exist so that they may be shadowed by any window object that needs to process events of that type.

Event handler functions assume that a valid event record (see the chapter Pascal Records) is bound to `*current-event*`; they may call the current event information functions listed in the next section, which depend on `*current-event*` being bound.

window-click-event-handler *where* [Window Function]
 is called by the event system whenever the user clicks in the content region of the active window. It is not called when the user clicks in an inactive window; in this case `window-activate-event-handler` is called. It is also not called when the user clicks in the title-bar, close-box, or other window control. *where* holds the mouse position of the click, in window coordinates. The

usual version does nothing (except, of course, in specialized windows provided by the system, such as Fred windows).

The following function will print the mouse coordinates whenever the user clicks in my-window.

```
(defobfun (window-click-event-handler my-window) (where)
  (print (point-string where)))
```

window-key-event-handler *char*

[Window Function]

is called by the event system whenever the window is active and the user types a key. *char* is the character that was typed. This function is not called in response to command- and control-key events. Such events are handled by Fred (see the chapter Programming Fred for details).

window-null-event-handler

[Window Function]

is called by the event system whenever it checks for an event and finds no events pending. window-null-event-handler should be defined for any window that needs to perform some periodic action, such as blinking the caret. The global version calls update-cursor (see the section Manipulating the Cursor, below). The Fred version blinks parentheses and other delimiters.

window-activate-event-handler

[Window Function]

is called by the event system when a window is made the front window. It draws its controls, and deactivates the previously active window.

window-deactivate-event-handler

[Window Function]

is called by the event system to deactivate a window. It is called when the window is active, and a different window is brought to the front.

window-update-event-handler

[Window Function]

is called by the event system whenever any portion of the window needs to be redrawn. The usual version calls _BeginUpdate to up the VisRgn of the window to the portion that needs to be redrawn, draws the controls (if any), calls window-draw-contents, then calls _EndUpdate to restore the window's VisRgn. Since its behavior is universal for all windows, this function is seldom shadowed. Instead, window-draw-contents is shadowed.

window-draw-contents

[Window Function]

is called whenever a window needs to redraw its contents. It may be shadowed so that a user-defined window can redraw when portions of it are covered and uncovered. When window-draw-contents is called by the event system, the window's VisRgn will be set so that drawing will only occur in the portions of the window that need to be redrawn. window-draw-contents is not strictly an event handler, since it may be called at any time (not only during event processing).

window-key-up-event-handler

[Window Function]

Every key typed by the user actually generates two events. One event when the key is pressed down and another when the key is let up. This function is called whenever a key is let up. The usual version does nothing.

window-mouse-up-event-handler

[Window Function]

is called whenever the user releases the mouse button. The usual version does nothing.

window-select-event-handler

[Window Function]

is called whenever the user clicks the mouse in an inactive window. The usual version calls `_SelectWindow`. `window-select-event-handler` may be shadowed, for example, to make a window unselectable.

window-suspend-event-handler

[Window Function]

is called by the event system whenever Lisp is suspended by the Switcher. The usual version converts the scrap from internal format to universal format (if necessary) and calls `window-deactivate-event-handler`.

window-resume-event-handler

[Window Function]

is called by the event system whenever Lisp is resumed from the Switcher. The usual version converts the scrap to internal format and calls `window-activate-event-handler`.

window-disk-insert-event-handler

[Window Function]

is called whenever a disk is inserted. The usual version mounts the disk; if the disk is unreadable, the usual version asks the user whether or not it should be initialized.

Event Information Functions

The following functions give event-related information. In addition, a program may examine the value of `*current-event*` during event-handling.

mouse-down-p

[Function]

returns `t` if the mouse button is pushed, otherwise returns `nil`. This function may be called at any time, not only during event processing.

window-mouse-position

[Window Function]

returns the mouse position as a point in the window's local coordinates. The point will be returned as a single fixnum (see the chapter Macintosh Basics). This function may be called at any time from within a window object, not only during event processing. The coordinates may be negative, or outside of the window's portrect, depending on the position of the mouse.

double-click-p

[Function]

returns `t` if the mouse-click currently being processed was the second half of a double-click. `double-click-p` will return `nil` if called from outside event processing.

double-click-spacing-p point1 point2

[Function]

This function is called by `double-click-p` when checking if two clicks should count as a double-click. *point1* and *point2* give the mouse positions of the two clicks. Macintosh guidelines specify that if the mouse is moved excessively between clicks, the clicks should not be counted as a double-click.

The usual version of `double-click-spacing-p` returns `nil` if *point1* and *point2* are separated by more than 4 pixels, horizontally or vertically. If they are within 4 pixels of each other, both horizontally and vertically, `t` is returned.

This function may be shadowed by windows which filter double-click spacing with a different algorithm.

command-key-p	[Function]
control-key-p	[Function]
option-key-p	[Function]
shift-key-p	[Function]
caps-lock-key-p	[Function]

Each of these functions has two meanings, depending on whether they are called during or outside of event processing.

If called during event processing, they will return `t` if the corresponding key was depressed during the event, otherwise `nil`.

If called outside of event processing, they will return `t` if the key is currently depressed, otherwise `nil`.

Note that only the most recent Macintosh keyboards have a control key.

The Event Management System

This section describes the system used for implementing event-handling in Allegro CL.

event-dispatch [Function]

is called periodically in the background. It calls `_GetNextEvent`, binds the value of `*current-event*` for the duration of the event processing, sets up the event-processing environment. It then calls `*eventhook*`, if it is bound. If `*eventhook*` returns `nil`, the event is then passed passed to the system event handlers. If `*eventhook*` returns non-`nil`, the processing of the event stops.

current-event [Variable]

holds the event record currently being processed. This is bound by `event-dispatch` and is only valid during event processing. The fields of `*current-event*` may be accessed with `rref` (see the chapter Pascal Records and *Inside Macintosh* for details).

The definition of the event record-type is:

```
(defrecord Event
  (what integer)
  (message longint)
  (when longint)
  (where point)
  (modifiers integer))
```

eventhook [Variable]

If `*eventhook*` is non-`nil`, it should contain a function to call in response to all events. After getting an event from the Macintosh operating system and binding it to `*current-event*`, the event system will funcall `*eventhook*` if it is non-`nil`. If the function returns `nil`, then normal event processing will continue, otherwise no further event processing will occur. This is the mechanism used to implement modal dialogs that beep on inappropriate events.

event-ticks [Function]

returns the number of ticks (60ths of a second) between calls to `event-dispatch`.

set-event-ticks *ticks*

[Function]

sets the number of ticks between calls to `event-dispatch` to *ticks*. If *ticks* is too low, the system may get bogged down by event processing. If it is too high, the system may not respond smoothly to events.

window-event

[Window Function]

After determining which window is the appropriate recipient for an event, the event system asks the window object to `window-event`. The usual `window-event` determines the type of the event and calls the appropriate event-handler. `window-event` should be shadowed by windows that need to do something in addition to or different from the default behavior.

eval-enqueue *form*

[Function]

queues up *form* for evaluation in the read-eval-print loop. `eval-enqueue` returns immediately.

This function is useful for initiating programs from within event handlers. The *form* is executed as part of the normal read-eval-print loop, rather than as part of an event-handler. This means that other events can be processed during the execution of *form*.

Example:

```
(setq my-menu (oneof *menu* :menu-title "Events"))

(ask my-menu (menu-install))

(setq inter-item
  (oneof *menu-item*
    :menu-item-title "Interruptible"
    :menu-item-action '(eval-enqueue
                        '(loop
                          (print "choose menus")))))

(setq non-inter-item
  (oneof *menu-item*
    :menu-item-title "Non Interruptible"
    :menu-item-action '(loop
                        (print "choose if you can"))))

(ask my-menu (add-menu-items inter-item non-inter-item))
```

The first menu-item does not disable event handling. The second menu-item does. (Note: both can be aborted by typing command-period.)

The use of `eval-enqueue` can also be important for use in dialogs.

Example:

```
(setq my-dialog
  (oneof *dialog*
    :window-title "Stop and Go"
    :dialog-items
    `((, (oneof *button-dialog-item*
      :dialog-item-text " Start "
      :dialog-item-action
      '(eval-enqueue
        '(progn
          (setq *stop-global* nil)
          (loop
            (if *stop-global*
              (return)
              (print
                "Click 'Stop' when bored"))))))))
      , (oneof *button-dialog-item*
        :dialog-item-text " Stop "
        :dialog-item-action
        '(setq *stop-global* t))))))
```

Notice that the action of the Stop button does not use `eval-enqueue`. If it did, the queued up form would never be evaluated (because the form queued up by the Go button would never return). The stop button has to communicate with the Go button's action by side-effecting a variable.

without-interrupts &body *body* [Special Form]
 executes *body* with all event processing disabled. This should be used sparingly since anything executing dynamically within a `without-interrupts` cannot be aborted or easily debugged. You are on your own if you execute a `break` within a `without-interrupts`.

Manipulating the Cursor

The *cursor* is the screen image corresponding to the mouse. As the mouse moves, the cursor moves on the screen. This is distinguished from the *caret* or *insertion point* that indicates the position in text where typed characters will appear.

The cursor often changes shape as it is moved over different areas of the screen. For example, when pointing at the menubar or into scroll-bars, it is shaped like an arrow; when inside a text window, the cursor is shaped like an I-beam. There are four ways a program can control the appearance of the cursor:

- a window may have a `window-cursor` variable. The event system will set the cursor according to this variable whenever the cursor is over the window.
- a window may have a `window-update-cursor` function. This function will be called by the event system whenever the cursor is over the window.
- the `with-cursor` macro may surround a series of forms. The cursor will be set to a given shape for the duration of the macro.
- the variable `*cursorhook*` may be bound to a function or `cursor-shape`, giving you complete control over the shape of the cursor.

window-cursor

[Window Variable]

Whenever the window is on top, and the cursor is over its content region, the cursor will be set to the cursor-shape contained in this variable. This is done by **window**'s *window-update-cursor* function. If this function is shadowed (as it is by Fred windows), then this variable may not have any effect.

window-update-cursor *where*

[Window Function]

This function is called by *update-cursor* whenever the mouse is over the window (i.e. not only over the content region). *where* is the position of the cursor in the window's local coordinates. **window**'s version simply sets the cursor to the contents of the variable *window-cursor*. **fred-window**'s version sets the cursor to **arrow-cursor** if it is over a scroll bar or **i-beam-cursor** if it is not. *window-update-cursor* should be shadowed if a window needs to change the cursor to a different shape depending on what part of the window it is over.

with-cursor *cursor* &body *body*

[Macro]

body is executed with the cursor set to *cursor*. *cursor* may be a cursor record or a CURS resource id (see *Inside Macintosh* for details).

cursorhook

[Variable]

If this variable is non-nil, then no other cursor functions will be called. If **cursorhook** is a function, it will be called repeatedly in the background and have complete control over the state of the cursor at all times. If it is not a function then it should be a cursor. The cursor shape will be repeatedly set to its value using *set-cursor*.

update-cursor

[Function]

does the actual work of cursor handling. It calls the **cursorhook** function if there is one, otherwise it calls *window-update-cursor*. It is called periodically by the global *window-null-event-handler*. It is not normally necessary to call this function directly, but it may be called to make sure that the cursor is correct at a particular time. The definition of *update-cursor* could be the following:

```
(defun update-cursor ()
  (if *cursorhook*
    (if (functionp *cursorhook*)
      (funcall *cursorhook*)
      (set-cursor *cursorhook*))
    (window-update-cursor)))
```

set-cursor *cursor*

[Function]

Sets the shape of the mouse cursor to *cursor*. *cursor* may be a cursor record (either a pointer or a handle) or a CURS resource id. Note: if *set-cursor* is called from anywhere besides within a *window-update-cursor* function, a **cursorhook** function, or a *without-interrupts*, the cursor will be immediately set back to some other shape by the event system's background cursor handling. If *cursor* is not of an acceptable type, then no action is taken and no error is signalled.

arrow-cursor

[Variable]

The standard north-northwest arrow cursor shape.

watch-cursor*[Variable]*

The watch cursor. This cursor should be shown during time-consuming operations when event-processing is disabled.

i-beam-cursor*[Variable]*

The I-beam cursor which is used when the cursor is over text to position the insertion point or make selections.

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Programming Fred

Overview

This chapter describes the functions and concepts needed to program Fred the editor.

Windows, Buffers, and Marks

Fred editing depends on two new data types and one new class: the two new data types are `buffer` and `mark`, and the new class is `*fred-window*`. Edited text appears on the screen in Fred windows. The actual text being edited is stored in a buffer. Locations or components of a buffer are associated with marks. In general, low-level operations are not object-oriented, and take a buffer as an argument. Higher-level operations are implemented as object functions for Fred windows.

Buffers

A buffer holds a sequence of characters, much like a string. However, the implementation of buffers makes insertion and deletion of characters much more efficient. In addition, a buffer has:

- a modification counter, which is incremented any time the buffer is modified;
- the set of marks in the buffer;
- a default-position mark, which provides the default position for many buffer operations such as insertion and deletion;
- a property list.

Marks

A mark is a pointer into a buffer. It contains:

- a pointer to its owning buffer;
- a position in its buffer, dynamically updated as the buffer changes;
- a direction, forward or backward.

The direction determines what happens when a character is inserted precisely at the mark's position: forward marks move forward, placing themselves after the new character, backward marks stay behind the new character. The buffer default-position mark is (initially) a forward mark. The window-position mark is (initially) a backward mark.

Fred Windows

Fred windows are used for on-screen editing. The variable `*fred-window*` holds the class of Fred windows. Fred windows inherit from `*window*`. In addition, a Fred window has

- a buffer, the buffer which is displayed in the window;
- a cursor mark, where the blinking caret appears in the window, and where typing is generally inserted into the window. The cursor is a forward mark in the window's buffer. It is *not* the default position mark of the buffer;
- a selection range, which is displayed in reverse video. Note that the selection range is distinct from the cursor, although most Fred window functions try to keep the cursor at one of the ends of the selection range;
- a window position, a backward mark in the first line of the buffer to be displayed in the buffer's window;
- a filename string.

Fred windows are output streams, and may be used in any situation which calls for a stream. Characters output to a Fred window stream are inserted at the cursor mark of the window. Stream

output to Fred windows is buffered, and will not be displayed until window-update or force-output is called.

Parameter Conventions

The descriptions below use the following conventions for argument description:

- A *place* is either a buffer or a mark. It will be coerced to a buffer or mark as needed. When a function which wants a mark is passed a buffer, it will generally use the buffer's default-position mark. When a function which wants a buffer is passed a mark, it uses the buffer associated with the mark.
- A *position* is a position in a buffer. It can be an integer offset from the beginning of the buffer, a mark, or t, meaning the end of the buffer. The *position* will often be an optional argument which defaults to the default-position of the given buffer.

The Kill-Ring

Fred combines the kill-ring with the Macintosh clipboard. Operations which normally operate from the clipboard (such as cut, copy, and paste), instead use the top item on the kill-ring. Clipboard interaction with other Macintosh programs works according to normal Macintosh standards.

The kill-ring is stored in the global variable `*killed-strings*`. It is a list of strings. The contents of the list may be freely manipulated.

Buffer Functions

buffer *place*

[Function]

coerces *place* to a buffer. If *place* is already a buffer, it is returned. If *place* is a mark, the mark's buffer is returned. It is an error if *place* is neither a buffer nor a mark.

mark *place*

[Function]

coerces *place* to a mark. If it is already a mark, it is returned. If it is a buffer, the buffer's default mark is returned. It is an error if *place* is neither a buffer nor a mark.

markp *form*

[Function]

returns non-nil if and only if *form* is a mark, otherwise nil. The same as (typep *form* 'mark).

bufferp *form*

[Function]

returns non-nil if and only if *form* is a buffer, otherwise nil. The same as (typep *form* 'buffer).

buffer-mark *place*

[Function]

returns the default-position mark of (buffer *place*).

buffer-position *place* &optional (*position* (mark *place*))

[Function]

Returns the position (number of characters from start of buffer) of *position* in (buffer *place*).

If *position* is an integer, it is checked for being in the range of legal buffer positions and then

returned. If *position* is a mark in (*buffer place*), its position is returned. Otherwise, an error is signalled. This function is often used to check *position* arguments to other functions.

mark-position *place* [Function]
returns the current position (number of characters from the start of the buffer) of (*mark place*).

make-mark *place* &optional (*position* (*mark place*)) (*backward-p* nil) [Function]
creates and installs a new mark, with owner (*buffer place*), and the specified position and direction. If given, *position* must be a mark or an integer. The new mark is returned.

Note: Since each buffer maintains a list of all the marks it owns, marks don't always get garbage-collected. They stay around as long as the buffer stays around. You must keep track of the marks you create and explicitly dispose of them (with kill-mark) when you are done with them. Use with-mark whenever you need a temporary mark.

kill-mark *mark* [Function]
kills *mark*, removing it from its owner. Returns *t* unless *mark* was already dead, in which case it does nothing and returns nil. It is an error to pass a killed mark to any other Fred function.

If *mark* is essential to the operation of the system, for example if it is the default mark of a buffer or a window position mark of a window, then *kill-mark* will do nothing and return nil.

with-mark (*var place* [*position* (*mark place*)] [*backward-p* nil]) {*form*}* [Macro]
evaluates *forms* with *var* bound to a new mark created by (*make-mark place position backward-p*). The mark is killed when the *with-mark* form is exited.

set-mark *place position* [Function]
sets the position of (*mark place*) to *position*. Returns the updated mark.

move-mark *place* &optional (*distance* 1) [Function]
moves (*mark place*) an amount specified by *distance*, which should be an integer. The same as (*set-mark place* (+ (*mark-position place*) *distance*)).

mark-backward-p *place* [Function]
returns *t* if (*mark place*) is a backward mark, otherwise nil.

reverse-mark *place* [Function]
reverses the direction of (*mark place*). The changed mark is returned.

make-buffer [Function]
returns a new, empty buffer.

buffer-size *place* [Function]
returns the number of characters in (*buffer place*).

buffer-modcnt *place* [Function]
returns the modification count of (*buffer place*). This is the number of times the buffer has been modified since it was created. By comparing the value returned by *buffer-modcnt* at different times, you can tell whether the buffer has been modified in the meantime.

Example:

```
(let ((start-count (buffer-modcnt buffer)))
  (maybe-do-something buffer)
  (unless (eql (buffer-modcnt buffer) start-count)
    (princ "Did something!"))))
```

buffer-plist *place*

[Function]

Returns the property list of (*buffer place*). *setf* may be used with *buffer-plist* to replace the entire property list. This is not recommended, since the system itself keeps certain information on buffer property lists.

buffer-getprop *place key* &optional *default*

[Function]

looks up the *key* property on (*buffer-plist place*). Returns the value associated with the *key*, if found, otherwise *default*.

buffer-putprop *place key value*

[Function]

gives *key* the value *value* on (*buffer-plist place*). *value* is returned.

buffer-line-start *place* &optional (*position* (mark *place*)) (*count* 0)

[Function]

returns the position of the start of the *count*th line from the line containing *position*. *count* of 0 means the start of that line, *count* of -1 means start of previous line, *count* of 1 means start of next line and so on. If there aren't enough lines in the buffer, returns the end of the range searched (start of buffer if *count* is negative, the end of buffer if *count* is positive) and a second value which is the number of lines of short-fall.

buffer-line-end *place* &optional (*position* (mark *place*)) (*count* 0)

[Function]

returns the position of the end of the *count*th line from the line containing *position*. *count* of 0 means the end of that line, *count* of -1 means end of previous line, *count* of 1 means end of next line and so on. If there aren't enough lines in the buffer, returns the end of the range searched (start of buffer if *count* is negative, the end of buffer if *count* is positive) and a second value which is the number of lines of short-fall.

buffer-column *place* &optional (*position* (mark *place*))

[Function]

returns the distance between *position* and the start of the line containing it.

buffer-line *place* &optional (*position* (mark *place*))

[Function]

returns the line number of *position* in the buffer. The first line is number 0, etc.

lines-in-buffer *place*

[Function]

returns the number of lines in the buffer.

buffer-char *place* &optional (*position* (mark *place*))

[Function]

returns the character at the specified position in (*buffer place*).

buffer-char-replace *place char* &optional (*position* (mark *place*))

[Function]

replaces the character at the specified position in (*buffer place*) with *char*.

buffer-insert *place string* &optional (*position* (mark *place*))

[Function]

inserts *string* into (*buffer place*) at position *position*. *string* may actually be anything acceptable to the *string* function, that is, a string, a symbol or a character.

buffer-substring *place* &key (:start (mark *place*)) :end :length [Function]
 returns a string of the characters in (buffer *place*) in the range described by the keyword arguments. Either :end or :length, but not both, must be specified. If :length is given, the range consists of :length characters starting at :start. If :end is given, the range consists of the characters between :start and :end. The returned string is always a simple string.

buffer-current-sexp-start-pos *place* &optional (*pos* (mark *place*)) [Function]
 returns the starting position of the current s-expression, or nil if there is no current s-expression.

buffer-current-sexp *place* &optional (*pos* (mark *place*)) [Function]
 returns two values. The first is the s-expression in (buffer *place*) at *pos*. This function actually reads the characters from the buffer, so you may evaluate what it returns. nil is returned if there is no s-expression at *pos*.
 The second value returned is t if an s-expression was found at *pos*, or nil if no s-expression was found at *pos*.

buffer-delete *place* &key (:start (mark *place*)) :end :length [Function]
 deletes the characters in (buffer *place*) in the range described by the keyword arguments. Either :end or :length, but not both, must be specified. If :length is given, deletes :length characters starting at :start. If :end is given, deletes the characters between :start and :end.

buffer-downcase-region *place* *start* &optional (*end* (mark *place*)) [Function]

buffer-upcase-region *place* *start* &optional (*end* (mark *place*)) [Function]

buffer-capitalize-region *place* *start* &optional (*end* (mark *place*)) [Function]
 lower-cases, upper-cases or capitalizes all words between *start* and *end*.

buffer-char-pos *place* *chars* &key (:start (mark *place*)) [Function]
 (:from-end nil)
 (:end (if :from-end 0 t))

buffer-not-char-pos *place* *chars* &key (:start (mark *place*)) [Function]
 (:from-end nil)
 (:end (if :from-end 0 t))

buffer-char-pos returns the position of the first occurrence of a character which is an element of *chars* in the buffer between :start and :end. *chars* may be a string or a character. If :from-end is non-nil, the search is backwards. The search is case-sensitive, i.e., the comparison is done using char=. If the character is not found, nil is returned.
 buffer-not-char-pos performs the same function, except that it returns the first character in the buffer that is *not* one of *chars*.

buffer-string-pos *place* *string* &key (:start (mark *place*)) [Function]
 (:from-end nil)
 (:end (if :from-end 0 t))

returns the position of the first occurrence of *string* in the buffer between :start and :end. An error is signalled if :start is not less than :end. If :from-end is non-nil, the search will proceed backwards. If *string* is not found, nil is returned, otherwise the position of the first character of the string is returned. The search is case-insensitive, i.e., the comparison is done using char=.

buffer-substring-p *place string* &optional (*position* (mark *place*)) [Function]
 returns *t* if *string* appears at the specified position in (buffer *place*). The comparison is case insensitive. *string* may be a string or a character.

buffer-word-bounds *place* &optional (*position* (mark *place*)) [Function]
 returns two values, the start and end of the word at *position*.

buffer-fwd-sexp *place* &optional (*position* (mark *place*)) [Function]
 returns the position of the end of the s-expression which starts at *position*.

buffer-bwd-sexp *place* &optional (*position* (mark *place*)) [Function]
 returns the position of the start of the s-expression which ends at *position*.

buffer-insert-file *place pathname* &optional (*position* (mark *place*)) [Function]
 inserts the file specified by *pathname* into (buffer *place*) at *position*.

buffer-write-file *place pathname* &key (:if-exists :error) [Function]
 outputs the contents of the buffer to the file specified by *pathname*. *if-exists* specifies what to do if the file already exists. If it is :error, an error is signalled. If it is :supercede, the file is deleted and a new file is written. If it is :overwrite, the data fork of the existing file is replaced with the contents of the buffer, and the resource fork remains unchanged.

Fred Window Functions

In addition to the functions outlined below, many Fred functions are associated with keystrokes. The names and actions of these functions are given in the chapter Using Fred. They are defined only for Fred windows, not globally. In addition, most of the keystroke functions are not exported, so you must refer to them using the CCL:: prefix, for example CCL::ed-forward-char.

You can create a new Fred window with the call (oneof *fred-window*).

exist *init-list* [*fred-window* Function]
 initializes a Fred window. The standard window init-list arguments are allowed, in addition to the following:

keyword	type	default	meaning
:buffer	<i>buffer</i>	(make-buffer) ..	The buffer to be displayed in the Fred window.
:filename	<i>pathname</i> ...	nil	if given, specifies a file to read into the buffer. The file type defaults to .lisp.
:scratch-p	<i>boolean</i>	nil	if non-nil, the user will not be prompted to save the contents of the buffer when it is closed, and the modified marker will not appear in the buffer's title.

`:package .....package .....nil .....` if given, associates a package with the window. Commands which evaluate expressions from the buffer (e.g. `window-eval-selection`) will bind `*package*` to the specified package before reading. If `nil`, the current package is not changed when evaluating from the window.

If both `:buffer` and `:filename` are specified, the buffer is erased before the file is read in.

window-buffer [*fred-window* Function]
returns the buffer displayed in the window.

window-update [*fred-window* Function]
updates the window display of the window, using the current values of the cursor-mark, window-position mark, selection region and the contents of the buffer.

`window-update` is called automatically in several situations: in response to window update events from the Macintosh Window Manager (which occur due to resizing or uncovering a portion of the window); after the execution of every Fred keyboard command; in response to mouse-clicks in the window; and in response to `force-output` calls to the window (windows inherit from output streams).

If you modify the window (or its buffer) in any other context, for instance in a menu command or in a function meant to be called directly by user code, you must call `window-update` explicitly or the changes you make will not become visible on the screen.

window-start-mark [*fred-window* Function]
returns the window-position mark of the window. The line containing this mark is always the first line drawn in the window. By moving this mark you affect which part of the window buffer is displayed by `window-update`.
For example:

```
(ask the-window
  (set-mark (window-start-mark) 0)
  (window-update))
```

will cause the beginning of the buffer in `the-window` to be visible.

Note that after every Fred keyboard command, Fred will try to make sure the cursor is visible on the screen, repositioning the `window-start-mark` if necessary. To disable this behavior for the duration of one Fred command, set the variable `*show-cursor-p*` to `nil`.

window-cursor-mark [*fred-window* Function]
returns the cursor mark of the window. `window-update` will draw the blinking vertical bar wherever this mark is located (unless the mark is off the screen, in which case no vertical bar will be drawn). Note that the cursor mark is *not* the same as the default-position mark of the window's buffer.

window-point-position *h* &optional *v* [**fred-window** Function]
 returns the buffer position of the character nearest to the point specified by *h* and *v* in the local coordinates of the window. (See the chapter Macintosh Basics for a description of the point format). This function assumes that the buffer has not been modified since the last call to `window-update`.

window-hpos &optional (*pos* (`window-cursor-mark`)) [**fred-window** Function]
 returns the horizontal position of the character at the given *pos* in the window's buffer. The value is given in local window coordinates. The position is computed as the length (in pixels) of the line containing *pos*, minus the amount of horizontal scrolling currently in effect in the window.

window-line-vpos *line-number* [**fred-window** Function]
 returns the vertical position (in local window coordinates) of the baseline of the *line-number*th line in the window.

selection-range [**fred-window** Function]
 returns two values giving the beginning and end of the current selection. If there is no selection, it returns the cursor mark position as both values. You can test if there is a selection by checking whether the two values are `eq`.
 Selections in the top window are displayed in reverse video.

set-selection-range &optional (*pos* (`window-cursor-mark`)) [**fred-window** Function]
 sets the current selection to the range of the buffer between *pos* and the cursor, and updates the window display. If *pos* is equal to the cursor position, the selection range is made empty.

collapse-selection *forward-p* [**fred-window** Function]
 If there is no selection, this function does nothing and returns `nil`. Otherwise, it sets the cursor mark to the end of the selection if *forward-p* is non-`nil`, or the beginning of the selection if *forward-p* is `nil`, de-selects the selection, and returns `t`. The Macintosh user interface guidelines suggest that cursor motion commands collapse the selection in this way and not perform their actions when there is a selection. The following function shows how to use `collapse-selection` in order to conform to the guidelines:

```
(def-fred-command (:meta #\3) ed-forward-3 "Move forward by 3")
(defobfun (ed-forward-3 *fred-window*) ()
  (unless (collapse-selection t)
    (move-mark (window-cursor-mark) 3)))
```

window-filename [**fred-window** Function]
 returns the filename associated with the window (as a string), or `nil` if there is none. Files become associated with windows when `set-window-filename` is called, or if the window was created with the `:filename` `initlist` argument.

set-window-filename *filename* [**fred-window** Function]
 sets the filename associated with the window. When the window contents are saved, they will be saved to the new filename. If a file corresponding to the filename already exists, it will be overwritten without warning when the window is next saved.

window-package [**fred-window** Function]
 returns the package associated with the window, or `nil` if there is none.

set-window-package *package* [**fred-window** Function]
 sets the package associated with the window. *package* can be a package or symbol whose name is the name of a package.

window-save [**fred-window** Function]
 saves the window to its disk file. If the window is not associated with a disk file, window-save-as is called.

window-save-as [**fred-window** Function]
 calls the standard save-as dialog box, allowing the user to choose a directory and input a filename, and saves the contents of the window to the filename. Note: if the user selects the Cancel item from this dialog, Allegro CL will throw to :cancel. User code may wish to catch cancel to prevent a return to top-level.

window-revert [**fred-window** Function]
 reverts the window to the last version saved. The user will be asked to confirm the reversion before it is performed.

window-hardcopy [**fred-window** Function]
 prints the contents of the window to the current hardcopy device. Before printing takes place, the user will be prompted for various printer options.

setup-undo *undo-function* &optional *title* [**fred-window** Function]
 allows Fred commands to support the **Undo** menu-item. Any undo-able Fred action should call setup-undo. *undo-function* should be a function to call when the **Undo** menu-item is chosen. If given, *title* should be a short string which will be used as the title of the menu-item.

The **Undo** menu-item will be enabled when the effected Fred window is the top window, and as long as the buffer-modcnt of the window's buffer does not change.

Example

;this function inserts the string "hello" at the cursor position.
 ;it supports undo and redo.

```
(defobfun (insert-hello *fred-window*) (&aux buf start-pos)
  (setq buf (window-buffer)
        start-pos (mark-position (window-cursor-mark)))
  (buffer-insert buf "hello" start-pos)
  (setup-undo #'(lambda ()
                  (buffer-delete buf
                                :start start-pos
                                :end (window-cursor-mark))
                (window-update)
                (setup-undo #'(lambda ()
                                (insert-hello)
                                (window-update))
                            "Redo Hello"))
              "Undo Hello"))
```

cut [*fred-window* Function]
 deletes the current selection from the buffer and adds it to the kill-ring/clipboard.

copy [*fred-window* Function]
 adds the current selection to the kill-ring/clipboard. The selection is not removed from the buffer.

paste [*fred-window* Function]
 replaces the current selection with the text from the top of the kill-ring/clipboard. The kill-ring is not affected. If the kill-ring is empty, no action is taken. If there is no selection, the text from the kill-ring is inserted at the caret.

select-all [*fred-window* Function]
 sets the current selection to the entire contents of the buffer.

Fred Command Tables

This section describes the functions which allow the user to associate Lisp functions with keystrokes.

In normal operation, keystrokes are handled by the front-most window. Fred treats every keystroke typed at a Fred window as a command. Associated with every possible keystroke is a Lisp function which implements the command. Some commands are simple, for example typing `#\a` is a command to insert `#\a` in the buffer; some are more complex, for example typing `control-meta-f` is a command to move forward by one s-expression. Fred makes no distinction between these two kinds of commands. Indeed, you could easily redefine `#\a` to do something complicated.

When you type a key in a Fred window, Fred first translates it into a *keystroke code*. The keystroke code contains a character and two flags called *control* and *meta*. It is encoded as a small integer, with the character code in the least significant 8 bits, the control bit in bit 9 and the meta bit in bit 8.

The binding between keystrokes and the functions they invoke is stored in a data structure called a *comtab* (short for *command table*). There is a global comtab stored in the variable `*comtab*`. In addition, each Fred window may contain a local comtab in an instance variable `comtab`. The bindings in the local comtab override global bindings.

When Fred receives a keyboard event, it translates the event to a keystroke code with the function `event-keystroke`, finds the function associated with the keystroke by using `keystroke-binding`, and then invokes the function with no arguments. When the function is invoked, the current object is the Fred window which received the event (for this reason, Fred command functions are usually `*fred-window*` object-functions). When the function returns, Fred updates the display of the window on the screen, making sure the cursor is visible. (The function may set the variable `*show-cursor-p*` to `nil` to inhibit this. This is useful for functions which scroll the display).

event-keystroke message modifiers [Function]
 takes the message and modifiers fields of a Macintosh event record and returns a keystroke code. It sets the control bit if either the Control key or the Command/shift-Command key (depending on the value of `*emacs-mode*`) was pressed, and the meta bit if the Option key was pressed. The character portion of the keystroke code is set to the ASCII code in the message field; if the Option key was pressed the character portion will contain the standard, rather than the optional character (i.e. it will be `#\s` rather than `#\ß` when you type Option-s). This function is called by Fred when it

receives a key-down event. You may redefine this function if, for example, you don't like Fred's default translation of the Macintosh modifier keys into control/meta bits.

keystroke-code *keystroke-name* [Function]
translates a keystroke name to a keystroke code. A keystroke name is either a character, or a list of the form `(:control :meta character)` or `(:control character)` or `(:meta character)`. *keystroke-name* may also be a keystroke code (an integer), in which case it is simply returned.

keystroke-name *keystroke-code* [Function]
returns the name of a keystroke code.

make-comtab [Function]
returns an empty comtab.

copy-comtab &optional (*from-comtab* *comtab*) [Function]
returns a new comtab which is initially functionally equivalent to *from-comtab*. If *from-comtab* is specified as `nil`, then it returns a copy of the comtab which was in use when Allegro CL was launched. This is useful if you've badly mangled the current comtab.

comtab-set-key *comtab* *keystroke* *function* &optional *doc-string* [Function]
sets the definition of *keystroke* to *function*. *function* may be a symbol, a compiled function, or a lambda expression (a symbol is recommended), indicating a function to call when *keystroke* is entered. It may also be a comtab, indicating that the keystroke is a prefix character (like control-x) which reads another character and looks it up in its own comtab. It may also be another keystroke (name or code) to indicate that *keystroke* should do whatever the other keystroke would do. Finally, *function* can also be `nil`, in which case *keystroke* will be made undefined. *keystroke* may be a keystroke code or a keystroke name.

def-fred-command *keystroke* *function* &optional *doc-string* [Macro]
is equivalent to `(comtab-set-key *comtab* 'keystroke 'function doc-string)`.

Example
?
`(def-fred-command (:meta #\h) insert-hello)`
#<A COMTAB>

comtab-get-key *comtab* *keystroke* [Function]
looks up the definition of *keystroke* in *comtab*. This is the reverse of `comtab-set-key`. The value may be a symbol, a compiled function, a lambda expression, another keystroke or `nil`. *keystroke* may be a keystroke code or a keystroke name.

Example
?
`(comtab-get-key *comtab* '(:meta #\h))`
INSERT-HELLO

keystroke-function *keystroke* [Fred-window Function]
does the full Fred command look-up for *keystroke*. Always returns a function or a comtab, never `nil` or another keystroke. First looks up the keystroke in the local comtab, or *comtab* if there is no local definition. If the definition is another keystroke, starts the look-up from the beginning. If no definition exists, returns `#'ed-beep` if the (original) keystroke had control or meta set, otherwise it returns `#'ed-self-insert`.

comtab-key-documentation *comtab keystroke* [Function]
returns the doc string associated with *keystroke*. *keystroke* may be a keystroke code or keystroke name.

comtab-find-keys *comtab function* [Function]
returns a list of all keystrokes which are bound to functions in the *comtab*. Comparison is done using `eq1`.

comtab [Variable]
the global comtab. You may modify this very comtab, or set the variable to a totally new comtab.

listener-comtab [Variable]
the listener's local comtab; whenever a new listener is created, the listener's local comtab is set to the value of this variable. By modifying this comtab, you may change the behavior of the listener without affecting other Fred windows. Note that setting this variable to a new comtab (as opposed to modifying the comtab it is set to) will only affect listeners created after the change.

comtab [*fred-window* Variable]
the window's local comtab.

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File System Interface

Overview

This document describes pathname specification and the functions present for manipulating the Macintosh file system. It assumes some familiarity with section 23.1 of *Common Lisp: the Language*.

Pathname Specification

A pathname is a way to specify a particular directory or file. Common Lisp specifies pathnames to have six components: host, device, directory, filename, type and version number. In the Macintosh world, pathnames have three components: directory, filename and an optional volume number. The Common Lisp and Macintosh representations each have advantages, so both are made available. Lisp pathnames are simply referred to as pathnames and Macintosh pathnames are referred to as mac-pathnames.

Common Lisp Pathnames

The host, device, and version components of Common Lisp pathnames are currently ignored in file system operations. However, a standard namestring is defined for them to allow for future extensions, or user-written extensions.

To make a pathname one can use a string representation or use the `make-pathname` function.

In Allegro CL, Lisp pathnames are printed using the `#.` reader macro.

Example:

```
? (make-pathname :directory "hd:" :name "foo")
#.(pathname "hd:foo")
```

All functions that are specified to take pathname arguments also take strings as arguments, so it will hardly ever be necessary to use `(pathname "hd:foo")`. Instead, one can use `"hd:foo"`.

Parsing Pathname Strings

The pathname parser uses the following rules to break strings into five components: host, directory, filename, file type, and version. Unspecified components are represented as `nil`.

- Host

All characters up to the last exclamation mark character `!"` in the string are part of the host description.

Because the host component is ignored, the following two pathnames are equivalent

```
(pathname "coral-vax!coral-macs!j-mac!hd:foo.Lisp")
(pathname "hd:foo.Lisp")
```

- Device

The device component is currently ignored.

- Directory

The directory component is identified as the characters between the host component and the last colon or semicolon. The colon is the standard separator character for directories. The semicolon is introduced to implement logical pathnames (see section on logical pathnames) and to allow programmers access to both the Macintosh and Common Lisp notion of the default directory (see section on default directories). A directory name that begins with a colon inherits from the Macintosh default directory. A leading semicolon indicates inheritance from the Lisp defaults.

The colons and semicolons are not merely separators. They are actually part of the directory component.

The device section of the pathname is the first directory in the directory tree.

- File Name

The filename is composed of the characters that follow the directory component until either the end of the string or the first period. The period is only a separator and is not actually part of the filename. To make a filename containing a period, use escape characters as described below. To specify a file that has an empty string as its filename, use a single period after the directory separator character. There is currently no namestring representation for a pathname which has a file type and an unspecified file name.

- File Type

The file type is composed of the characters that follow the name component until either the end of the string or the first comma. The comma is only a separator and is not actually part of the file type. To make a file type containing a comma, use escape characters as described below. As a convention, the type "lisp" is used as the type for source code files and "fasl" is used for compiled files.

These file types should not be confused with Macintosh file types. Macintosh file types are not part of the pathname of a file.

- Version

The version is composed of the characters that follow the type component until the end of the string. The Macintosh does not support versions for pathnames. Allegro CL does not implement any support.

Parsing Examples

The following table contains some examples of pathname parsing:

<i>Namestring</i>	<i>pathname Components</i>			
	<i>Directory</i>	<i>File name</i>	<i>File type</i>	<i>version</i>
"hd:foo.lisp"	"hd:"	"foo"	Lisp	nil
":foo"	": "	"foo"	nil	nil
";foo"	nil	"foo"	nil	nil
"foo"	nil	"foo"	nil	nil
"foo."	nil	"foo"	nil	nil
"foo.,"	nil	"foo"	" "	nil
";sub-dir:foo.,"	";sub-dir:"	"foo"	" "	nil
"foo.fasl"	nil	"foo"	"fasl"	nil
"foo.fasl,"	nil	"foo"	"fasl"	nil
"hd:"	"hd:"	nil	nil	nil
"hd:."	"hd:"	" "	nil	nil
"hd:.,"	"hd:"	" "	" "	nil
"ccl;foo"	"ccl;"	"foo"	nil	nil

"ccl;foo."	"ccl;"	"foo"	"	nil
"ccl;foo.."	"ccl;"	"foo"	"."	nil
"ccl;foo.,,,"	"ccl;"	"foo"	"."	","
"hd:foo.Lisp,2"	"hd:"	"foo"	"Lisp"	"2"
"Coral!hd:foo.Lisp,2"	"hd:"	"foo"	"Lisp"	"2"
"hd:pr,4.1:foo.Lisp,2.1"	"hd:pr,4.1"	"foo"	"Lisp"	"2.1"
"hd:sub-dir:foo.text"	"hd:sub-dir:"	"foo"	"text"	nil
"log-dir;subdir:foo"	"log-dir;subdir:"	"foo"	nil	nil

Table: Pathname Parsing Examples.

Neither defaults nor logical pathnames are merged at parse time. The function `merge-pathname` performs mergings by replacing `nil` components of its first argument with corresponding components of its second argument. The function `expand-logical-pathname` performs the logical to physical pathname translation.

Pathname Escape Character

Although the addition of exclamation marks, semicolons, periods, commas, and asterisks to Allegro CL's pathnames adds functionality, it also limits the use of these characters as part of a pathname. To alleviate this problem, pathnames have a special escape character, `#\d` (Option-d). This escape character works very much like the backslash character in strings.

Any character that is preceded by a `"d"` loses any special meaning it might have had in a pathname. The table below illustrates this mechanism:

Namestring	Pathname Components			
	Directory	File name	File type	version
"hd:foo\d.Lisp"	"hd:"	"foo\d.Lisp"	nil	nil
"hd:foo.Lisp"	"hd:"	"foo"	"Lisp"	nil
":foo\d.,"	":"	"foo\d.,"	nil	nil
";foo\d.,"	";"	"foo\d.,"	nil	nil
";foo\d.,.fasl"	";"	"foo\d.,"	"fasl"	nil
";ccl\d;foo"	";"	"ccl\d;foo"	nil	nil
"ccl;fo\d\o"	"ccl;"	"fo\d\o"	nil	nil
"Coral\d!hd:foo.Lisp,2"	"coral\d!hd:"	"foo"	"Lisp"	"2"
"hd:fo\"o.Lisp"	"hd:"	"fo\"o"	"Lisp"	nil

Table: Parsing Pathnames with escapes.

Only the *needed* escape characters are retained (i.e. the `"d"` before the `"o"` in the third line is removed, but the one before the period is retained). Of course, this mechanism is meant to work only for the Allegro CL additions; one is not and should not be able to specify a filename that includes a colon, since such a filename is not allowed on the Macintosh.

Note that the escape characters are not part of the truename. They are included only in the Lisp representation of the pathname, not in the Macintosh system's representation of the pathname.

Using Lisp Pathnames

make-pathname &key :host :device :directory :name :type :version :defaults [Function]

This Common Lisp function constructs and returns a pathname. After the components specified by the :host, :device, :directory, :name, :type, and :version arguments are filled in, missing components are taken from the :defaults argument. The default value of the :defaults argument is a pathname whose host component is the same as the host component of *default-pathname-default*, and whose other components are all nil.

All arguments to make-pathname should be strings or nil. nil specifies that a component should be taken from the default. Directory components beginning with a colon specify inheritance from the Macintosh default directory. make-pathname will endeavor to insert the appropriate escape characters in components which need them. The user need only insert escape characters in front of semicolons that are part of directory components, and in front of ∂'s.

Examples:

```
? (make-pathname :directory "Hd:" :name "foo" :type "Lisp")
#. (pathname "Hd:foo.Lisp")
? (make-pathname :directory ";" :name "foo" :type nil)
#. (pathname "foo")
? (make-pathname :directory nil :name "foo." :type "fasl")
#. (pathname "foo∂.fasl")
? (make-pathname :directory nil :name "foo." :type ",")
#. (pathname "foo∂..∂,")
? (make-pathname :directory "hd;" :name "foo." :type "Lisp")
#. (pathname "hd;foo∂..Lisp")
? (make-pathname :directory ";subdir:" :name "foo.")
#. (pathname ";subdir:foo∂.")
? (make-pathname :name "foo∂")
#. (pathname "foo")
? (make-pathname :name "foo∂∂")
#. (pathname "foo∂∂")
? (make-pathname :host "Coral-vax" :device "bobo" :name "foo" )
#. (pathname "foo")
? (make-pathname :directory "hd:" :type "fasl")
#. (pathname "hd:..fasl")
```

The last example shows a peculiarity of specifying pathnames using namestrings. If there is a type specified but there is no name specified, then the print representation will not read correctly. When read, the name will be taken as the empty-string, rather than as unspecified. The same situation arises if the version is specified without the preceding fields being specified.

merge-pathnames *pathname* &optional *defaults* *default-version* [Function]

This is the Common Lisp function which is generally called to process a filename supplied by the user. It fills in unspecified components of *pathname* from *defaults* and returns a new lisp pathname. The *pathname* and *defaults* arguments may each be a string, a stream, a lisp pathname, or a mac-pathname. The returned value will always be a lisp pathname. *defaults* defaults to the value of *default-pathname-defaults*. *default-version* defaults to nil.

The merge operation replaces the *nil* components of *pathname* with corresponding components from *defaults*, with the following caveats for merging versions: If a *pathname* does not specify a name, then the version, if not provided, will come from *defaults*. However, if the *pathname* *does* specify a name, then the version is not affected by *defaults*; it is taken instead from *default-version*. *default-version* defaults to *nil*.

pathname-host <i>pathname</i>	[Function]
pathname-device <i>pathname</i>	[Function]
pathname-directory <i>pathname</i>	[Function]
pathname-name <i>pathname</i>	[Function]
pathname-type <i>pathname</i>	[Function]
pathname-version <i>pathname</i>	[Function]

These Common Lisp functions accept strings, mac-pathnames, streams and Lisp pathnames as arguments. They build a corresponding Lisp pathname, if necessary, and return the specified component of that Lisp pathname.

namestring <i>pathname</i>	[Function]
file-namestring <i>pathname</i>	[Function]
directory-namestring <i>pathname</i>	[Function]
host-namestring <i>pathname</i>	[Function]
enough-namestring <i>pathname</i> &optional <i>defaults</i>	[Function]

These Common Lisp functions accept strings, mac-pathnames, streams and Lisp pathnames as arguments. *namestring* returns the full form of the *pathname* as a string.

file-namestring returns a string representing only the *name*, *type* and *version* components of the *pathname*. *directory-namestring* returns a string representing only the *directory-name* portion. *host-namestring* returns a string for only the *host* portion. Note that the string representation of unspecified components is an empty string.

lisp-pathnamep <i>thing</i>	[Function]
------------------------------------	------------

This non-Common Lisp function returns non-*nil* if *thing* is a Lisp pathname. It returns *nil* if *thing* is anything else, including a mac-pathname, string, or stream.

pathnamep <i>datum</i>	[Function]
-------------------------------	------------

This Common Lisp function returns *t* if *datum* is either a Lisp pathname or mac-pathname.

(pathnamep form) = (or (lisp-pathnamep form) (mac-pathnamep form))

Macintosh Pathnames

Mac-pathnames are much simpler than Common Lisp pathnames. Mac-pathnames know nothing about logical directories, types, or version numbers. They have two basic components: *directory-name* and *filename*. The *directory-name* consists of the Common Lisp *directory* component, and the *filename* consists of the concatenation of the Common Lisp *name*, *type*, and *version* components.

A third optional component is introduced to distinguish between mounted volumes with the same name. This component holds the volume reference number assigned by the Macintosh to mounted volumes. The user is not expected to specify this field; the system functions that return mac-pathnames will insert the correct volume reference number. Functions that use mac-pathnames

refer to this number when there is an ambiguity caused by mounted volumes having the same name.

Mac-pathnames can be used everywhere other pathnames are used. They are printed using the #P reader macro.

```
? (make-mac-pathname :directory "hd:ccl:"
                      :name "foo.Lisp"
                      :volume-number -2)
#P"hd:ccl:foo.Lisp"
```

Because volume numbers may vary between programming sessions, they are not used in a mac-pathname's printed representation.

The following functions are provided for manipulating mac-pathnames.

make-mac-pathname &key :directory :filename :volume-number [Function]
This non-Common Lisp function constructs and returns a mac-pathname. The :directory and :filename components are strings and the :volume-number must be an integer. This function inserts a colon at the end of the :directory argument if there is not one there, and errors if there is a colon in the :filename argument.

mac-pathname *thing* &optional (*volume* 0) [Function]
returns a mac-pathname that corresponds to *thing*. *thing* should be a string, stream, Lisp pathname or a mac-pathname. String arguments are first parsed as a lisp pathname and then converted to mac-pathnames.

The volume component will remain unspecified unless the optional *volume* argument is supplied. mac-pathname will signal an error if it cannot convert its argument to a mac-pathname.

mac-filename *pathname* [Function]
mac-directory *pathname* [Function]
mac-volume *pathname* [Function]
pathname is converted to a mac-pathname, and appropriate component is returned. *pathname* can be a string, stream, Lisp pathname, or mac-pathname.

mac-namestring *pathname* [Function]
returns a string that represents how the Macintosh would represent the particular pathname.
(mac-namestring *pathname*) = (concatenate 'string
 (mac-pathname-directory *pathname*)
 (mac-pathname-name *pathname*))

Default Directories

There are three different directories maintained by Allegro. These are used to fill in pathname components specified as default.

Macintosh Defaults

The Macintosh maintains a default directory of its own. Any pathname that begins with a colon specifies the Macintosh default directory. Using the Macintosh default directory is useful with mac-pathnames. Beware that desk accessories and other background processes may change the

default directory without notice. It is therefore suggested that one set the Macintosh default directory directly before accessing it.

The Macintosh default directory is initially the directory holding Allegro CL.

mac-default-directory [Function]
returns the Macintosh default directory.

set-mac-default-directory *pathname* [Function]
sets the Macintosh default directory to the directory component of *pathname*.

Allegro CL Defaults

default-pathname-defaults [Variable]
is used for merging if the default-pathname argument is not specified. The initial value is `#.(pathname "")`.

working-directory [Variable]
is used in merging arguments to `probe-file`. `probe-file` is called by all functions that access files from disk. There may be an initial merging by the function which called `probe-file`, but in any case, `probe-file` does a final merging with `*working-directory*` before actually passing the name to the Macintosh operating system. The initial value is `#.(pathname "")`.

user-homedir-pathname &optional *host* [Function]
returns a mac-pathname that represents the directory pointed to by the logical pathname "home;" (see logical pathnames section).

Search Path

If a pathname has an empty directory component, the Macintosh will look for it in the Macintosh default directory. If one wants to insure that the Macintosh default is used, then one must precede the directory name with a colon. To ensure that the Macintosh default is not used, specify the directory component of the pathname (perhaps by doing a merge with some other default).

Wildcards

Wildcards are implemented for searching the file structure for particular directories and files with the Common Lisp function `directory`. `directory` takes a pathname as argument and returns a list of matching pathnames on the system. For example, `(directory "hd:system folder:")` will return `(#P"hd:system folder:")` if the specified directory exists and `nil` otherwise.

The wildcards are used in three different ways:

- One asterisk, "*", matches zero or more characters within a component.
- Two asterisks, "**", in place of a directory matches the present directory, its subdirectory, all their subdirectories until there are no subdirectories left.
- Two asterisks, "**", in place of the filename components matches any number of components that are left.

The following examples assume that there is a mounted disk with the name "hd".

- To get a list of subdirectories under "hd:" evaluate (directory "hd:*:")
- To get a list of files under "hd:" evaluate (directory "hd:*.*,*") or (directory "hd:**")
- To get a list of all the subdirectories at all levels in all the devices known to the machine, evaluate (directory "**:")
- To get a list of all the files in all the devices known to the machine, evaluate (directory "**:*")
- To get a list of all the files in "hd:" of type "Lisp", evaluate (directory "hd:*.Lisp,*")
- To get a list of the files directly under "hd:" that do not have a type and version number specified, evaluate (directory "hd:*")
- To get a list of all the files in any device that start with the letters "prin" and end in "12" and are two levels below a directory named "ccl:", evaluate (directory "**:ccl:*:*:prin*12.**")
- Note that while
(directory "h*d:") is equivalent to (directory "h*****d:"),
(directory "hd:*") is not equivalent to (directory "hd:*:*").
The first and second commands return a list of all the devices known to the machine that start with the letter "h" and end with the letter "d". The third command returns a list of the subdirectories under "hd:". The fourth command returns a list of all the directories that are two levels below "hd:".

Logical Pathnames

Logical pathnames serve as variables in a pathname string. Logical pathnames let code with embedded pathname information run under different directory hierarchies.

Logical directories end with semicolons, as opposed to physical directories which end with colons.

When Allegro CL is run, four logical pathnames are set up automatically.

"ccl;" is set to the directory holding the Allegro CL application.

"home;" is set to the directory holding the document which was launched with Allegro CL.

"ccl-doc;" is set to the directory "ccl;ccl-doc:"

"library;" is set to the directory "ccl;library:"

logical-pathname-alist

[Variable]

an association list which maps between logical and physical pathnames.

def-logical-pathname *logical-string physical-pathname*

[Function]

defines a new logical pathname and adds it to *logical-pathname-alist*. *logical-string* becomes the name of the logical pathname and *physical-pathname* becomes the associated physical pathname. *physical-pathname* may also contain logical components. To remove a logical pathname from the environment call **def-logical-pathname** with a *physical-pathname* of nil.

expand-logical-pathname *pathname &key :no-error*

[Function]

returns a pathname that has all its logical components expanded into physical components.

expand-logical-pathname expands logical directories from left to right, calling itself recursively until there are no logical pathnames left.

If there is no physical directory for a logical directory in *pathname*, an error will be signalled or nil will be returned, depending on the value of *:no-error*.

expand-logical-namestring *name-string* &key *:no-error* [Function]
 performs the same function as *expand-logical-pathname* except that it takes a string as an argument, and returns a string as its result.

Examples:

```
? (def-logical-pathname "misc" "hd:ccl-misc") ;creates the logical to
NIL                                           ; physical mapping
? (load "misc;aloysius.Lisp") ;will load the file "hd:ccl-misc:aloysius.Lisp"
"hd:ccl-misc:aloysius.Lisp"
? (expand-logical-namestring "misc;aloysius.Lisp")
"hd:ccl-misc:aloysius.Lisp"
? (expand-logical-namestring "MISC;aloysius.Lisp")
"hd:ccl-misc:aloysius.Lisp" ;note case insensitivity
? (expand-logical-namestring "MISC;sub-dir:aloysius.Lisp") "hd:ccl-
misc:sub-dir:aloysius.Lisp"
? (expand-logical-namestring "misc:aloysius.Lisp")
"misc:aloysius.Lisp" ;no semicolon in the input, so no modification
? (def-logical-pathname "misc" "hd:music") ;redefine misc
NIL
? (expand-logical-namestring "misc;aloysius.Lisp")
"hd:music:aloysius.Lisp" ;uses new mapping
```

File System Manipulation

The following functions return mac-pathnames or lists of mac-pathnames, unless otherwise noted.

File and Directory Manipulation

These functions operate on both directories and files. A directory operation is performed if the filename component is empty (i.e. if the pathname ends in a colon or semicolon), otherwise a file operation is performed.

The functions operate on pathnames, mac-pathnames, strings and streams.

The functions that create a new file or directory have an *:overwrite* keyword. If the *:overwrite* keyword is non-nil, then the function will delete anything standing in its way. If the keyword is specified as nil, the function will not delete any file or directory and simply return nil as sign of failure. If *:overwrite* is not specified, the user is given the option of specifying a new name, overwrite the files in question, or abort computation.

rename-file *old-file-or-dir new-file-or-dir* &key *:overwrite* [Function]
 the specified *old-file-or-dir* is renamed to the result of merging *new-file-or-dir* with *old-file-or-dir*. Both arguments may be a string, stream, lisp pathname, or a mac-pathname. If *new-file-or-dir* is an open stream associated with a file, then the stream itself and the file associated with it are affected.

rename-file returns three values if successful. The first value is the renamed *old-file-or-dir*.

The second value is the truename of the *old-file-or-dir* before it was renamed. The third value is the truename of the *old-file-or-dir* after it was renamed. An error is signalled if the renaming operation is not successful.

move-file *file-or-dir new-dir* &key :overwrite [Function]
 the specified *file-or-dir* is moved to the directory component of *new-dir*. Arguments may be strings, pathnames, mac-pathnames or streams. If the first argument is a directory, then the whole directory with all its contents is moved to the new location. If the first argument is an open stream associated with a file, then the stream itself and the file associated with it are affected.

If *file-or-dir* and *new-dir* are on different volumes, move-file copies *file-or-dir* to *new-dir* and then deletes *file-or-dir* from its original volume. However, when the two arguments are on the same volume, move-file performs a fast catalog operation that does not involve moving the actual data of the file.

move-file returns three values if successful. The first value is the moved *file-or-dir*. The second value is the truename of the *file-or-dir* before it was moved. The third value is the truename of the *file-or-dir* after it was moved. An error is signalled if the operation is not successful.

delete-file *file-or-dir* &key :error-if-no-exist :overwrite [Function]
 The specified *file-or-dir* is deleted. An error is signalled if *file-or-dir* does not exist and :error-if-no-exist is non-nil (the default is t).

The :overwrite keyword is consulted in the regular manner if *file-or-dir* specifies a non-empty directory. If :overwrite is not specified, the user is given the chance to delete a different directory or to choose a file—rather than a directory—to delete. delete-file returns the truename of the deleted file if successful, otherwise nil.

create-file *file-or-dir* &key :overwrite [Function]
 :mac-file-type
 :mac-file-creator
 creates an empty file or directory named *file-or-dir*.

For files, the :mac-file-type and :mac-file-creator keywords default to :TEXT and |:CCL | (#\space is the last character in |:CCL |). The keywords are case-sensitive. Directories do not have Macintosh types or creators. create-file returns the truename of the created file or directory. An error is signalled if the operation is not successful.

probe-file *file-or-dir* [Function]
 returns nil if there is no file or directory named *file-or-dir*, otherwise it returns a pathname that is the truename of the file. probe-file does not accept wild-cards.

file-create-date *pathname* [Function]
file-write-date *pathname* [Function]
set-file-create-date *pathname time* [Function]
set-file-write-date *pathname time* [Function]
 file-create-date returns the time when the volume, directory, or file specified by *pathname* was created. file-write-date returns the time when the volume, directory, or file specified by *pathname* was last modified. The corresponding set- functions change these file parameters. The time is given in the universal-time format.

file-author *file-or-dir* [Function]

This Common Lisp function—not to be confused with `mac-file-creator`—does not make much sense on the Macintosh. It returns an empty string if *file-or-dir* exists and errors otherwise.

File Operations

The functions below operate on files only. These functions, in conjunction with the `directory` function, provide the needed flexibility for operating on directories.

copy-file *file new-pathname* &key :overwrite [Function]

file is copied to the pathname specified by merging *new-pathname* with *file*. Arguments may be either strings, lisp pathnames, mac-pathnames or streams. If *new-pathname* does not have a filename component then the *file*'s own filename is used. :overwrite has the usual meaning.

`copy-file` returns three values if successful. The first value is the *new-pathname* with the filename component filled in. The second value is the truename of the *file* before it was copied. The third value is the truename of the copied *file*. An error is signalled if the copying operation is not successful.

lock-file *file* [Function]

unlock-file *file* [Function]

file-locked-p *file* [Function]

These functions allow one to manipulate the software lock that prevents modifications to a particular file. `file-locked-p` returns nil if the file is not locked.

mac-file-type *file* [Function]

mac-file-creator *file* [Function]

set-mac-file-type *file os-type* [Function]

set-mac-file-creator *file os-type* [Function]

Every Macintosh file has two parameters specifying the type of the file and the application which created the file. These parameters are called *os-types*, and are specified by four character keywords. *os-types* are case-sensitive, and they may contain spaces.

Files created by Allegro have the creator :|CCL |, (i.e. "CCL" followed by a space), and the type :TEXT or :FASL.

`mac-file-type` and `mac-file-creator` return keywords indicating the type and creator parameters of *file*.

`set-mac-file-type` and `set-mac-file-creator` destructively modify the type or creator of the *file*. *os-type* may be a string of four characters or a four character keyword. The new type or creator is returned as a keyword.

Volume Operations

Volume operations take as argument either an integer (the volume number) or a pathname (the volume component is used). Volume numbers are unique negative integers assigned to each mounted volume. Volume numbers change from session to session, and may change if a volume is unmounted and remounted. Within these limits, volume numbers allow a program to distinguish between multiple volumes with the same name. The volume number 0 is used to specify the default volume.

The functions below will signal an error if the number or pathname given as an argument does not correspond to a mounted volume.

volume-number *volume* [Function]
 returns the volume reference number of the specified volume. If *volume* is valid volume number, it is simply returned.

eject-disk *volume* [Function]
 ejects the specified *volume* if possible. It is not possible to eject hard disks. **eject-disk** returns the truename of *volume* if successful, otherwise it signals an error.

ejectedp *volume* [Function]
 returns *t* if the volume is ejected, *nil* otherwise. **ejectedp** signals an error if the specified *volume* is not mounted. **probe-file** can be used to check whether a volume is mounted.

hfs-volume-p *volume* [Function]
 returns *t* if *volume* uses HFS (Hierarchical File System) and *nil* if it uses MFS (Macintosh File System). Most current Macintoshes only use HFS devices.

flush-volume *volume* &key :drive-number [Function]
 Some file system manipulations are buffered for execution at a later time. **flush-volume** insures that all buffered file manipulations to a specified volume are performed. *volume* may specify either a name or a drive-number. If given, :drive-number takes precedence. **flush-volume** returns the name or the drive number of the volume effected.

Directory Operations

do-files-in-directory (*var* *pathname* [*resultform*]) {*form*}* [Macro]
 iterates *forms* with the variable *var* bound to a mac-pathname specifying each file in the directory component of *pathname*.

do-directories-in-directory (*var* *pathname* [*resultform*]) {*form*}* [Macro]
 iterates *forms* with the variable *var* bound to a mac-pathname specifying each subdirectory in the directory component of *pathname*.

files-in-directory *pathname* [Function]
 returns a list of files (as mac-pathnames) in the directory component of *pathname*. Signals an error if there is no directory corresponding to the directory component of *pathname*.

files-in-directory is equivalent to

```
(let ((names nil))
  (do-files-in-directory (file pathname (nreverse names))
    (setq names (cons file names))))
```

directories-in-directory *pathname* [Function]
 returns a list of directories (as mac-pathnames) in the directory component of *pathname*. Signals an error if there is no directory corresponding to the directory component of *pathname*.

`directories-in-directory` is equivalent to

```
(let ((names nil))
  (do-directories-in-directory (file pathname (nreverse names))
    (setq names (cons file names))))
```

devices*[Function]*

returns a list of devices (as mac-pathnames) known to the machine.

User Interface

choose-file-dialog &key :mac-file-type :mac-file-creator
:directory *[Function]*

displays the standard Macintosh choose-file dialog.

:mac-file-type and :mac-file-creator should be os-type keywords, or lists of os-type keywords. If specified, only files with the given mac-file-types and mac-file-creator will be displayed in the dialog.

The :directory keyword specifies the directory shown when the dialog first appears. It defaults to the last directory shown by the choose-file-dialog or choose-new-file-dialog.

choose-new-file-dialog &key :directory :prompt *[Function]*
displays the standard Macintosh choose-new-file dialog.

The :directory keyword specifies the directory shown when the dialog first appears. It defaults to the last directory shown by the choose-file-dialog or choose-new-file-dialog.

The filename component of :directory is used as the default filename in the editable-text item of the dialog.

The :prompt keyword specifies the text to display above the file-name type in area. If supplied, :prompt should be a string. The default Prompt is "As...".



- Overview
- Fred Commands
- Inspect
- Step
- Backtrace
- Trace



Debugging

Overview

Allegro CL provides several tools which help programmers examine and debug programs and environments. These include a window-based inspector, a stepper, a stack-backtrace facility, and the standard Common Lisp `trace` function. Most of these tools can be used without any documentation. Here are a few helpful tips.

Fred Commands

Several Fred commands help the programmer get information.

m- *[Fred Command]*
 Typing meta-period when the cursor is in or next to a symbol causes Allegro CL to search for the source-code associated with the symbol. This will be available if the symbol was defined with `*record-source-files*` non-nil. If the source-code is found, it is brought up in a Fred window. If the symbol has been defined from several files, the user is given the choice of files.

c-x c-a *[Fred Command]*
 Typing control-x followed by control-a when the cursor is in or next to a symbol causes Allegro CL to display the argument list of the function associated with the symbol. This search may be performed in four ways. If the function is a Common Lisp function, the argument-list information is taken from the `cl-database.text` file in the `ccl-doc` folder. If the function was defined with `*record-source-file*` or `*save-definitions*` non-nil, Allegro CL extracts the argument list from the source code. As a last resort, limited argument-list information is extracted from the compiled function.

c-x c-d *[Fred Command]*
 Typing control-x followed by control-d when the cursor is in or next to a symbol causes Allegro CL to search for the documentation string of the function associated with the symbol. If the search is successful, the documentation string is printed. The search will only succeed if the function was defined with `*save-doc-strings*` non-nil.

c-x c-i *[Fred Command]*
 inspects the current expression. See the section on Inspect, below, for a description.

c-x c-m *[Fred Command]*
 macroexpands the current expression with `macroexpand` and pretty-prints the result into the listener.

c-m *[Fred Command]*
 macroexpands the current expression with `macroexpand`. The result of each call to `macroexpand-1` is printed in the listener.

c-x c-r *[Fred Command]*
 prints the result of reading the current s-expression. This is useful for tracking down read-time bugs, particularly in expressions containing backquotes.

Inspect

Allegro CL supports the Common Lisp function `inspect` with a window-based inspector. There are three ways of invoking the inspector.

The first is through the **Inspect** menu-item, on the **Tools** menu. Selecting this item brings up a modeless dialog box with several inspect options, including a help function and a function for inspecting system data. The help function is only available if the `ccl-docs` folder is in the same directory as Allegro CL.

The second method is through the Fred command `control-x control-i`. This command inspects the current selection or current Lisp expression. When performed in the listener, if there is no selection or current expression, the value of `*` is passed to `inspect`.

The third method is through a call to the function `inspect`. For example

```
(inspect *menu*)
```

would bring up an inspector window for the `menu` class.

The form associated with the top inspector window can be accessed through the function `top-inspect-form`. This allows limited data modification through the inspector.

Step

Allegro CL supports the Common Lisp `step` function with a modal window-based stepper. Two types of functions can be stepped: evaluated functions, and functions which were compiled when `*save-definitions*` was non-`nil`. Functions compiled with `*save-definitions*` set to `nil` need to be redefined (either as evaluated functions, or as compiled functions with `*save-definitions*` non-`nil`) before they can be stepped.

Backtrace

When Allegro CL enters a break-loop, the stack backtrace dialog becomes available. If the break-loop is entered through an error (which will happen if `*break-on-errors*` is non-`nil`), the stack backtrace dialog will appear automatically. In other situations, the stack backtrace dialog may be brought up by choosing the **Backtrace** menu-item from the **Tools** menu.

The stack backtrace dialog consists of two tables. The top table shows the functions awaiting return values on the stack. The name of each function is preceded by the address (in hex) of the function's stack frame. Keep in mind that Allegro CL is properly tail-recursive; functions may be missing from the stack, even though they were a part of the calling sequence that led to the break. (See the Implementation Notes appendix for details on tail recursion and the Allegro CL compiler).

When a function is selected in the upper table of the backtrace dialog, the lexical values held in that function's frame are shown in the lower table. Selecting a value causes it to be assigned to the global variable `*d*`. This variable may then be used in forms evaluated from the listener or other windows. When the backtrace dialog is closed, or when a different frame is selected, the value of `*d*` is set to `nil`.

The Allegro CL backtrace mechanism does not currently show the names of lexical values.

Trace

The trace function is implemented to Common Lisp standards, and has been extended to work with Allegro CL's object system. If a function has separate definitions in several objects, the tracing of each is independent. You simply ask the desired object to trace the function.

Example:

```
? (defobfun add-twice (x y)
  (+ x y x y))
ADD-TWICE
? (defobject foo)
FOO
? (defobfun (add-twice foo) (x y)
  (usual-add-twice (+ x x) (+ y y)))
ADD-TWICE
? (trace add-twice)
NIL
? (add-twice 1 1)
Calling (ADD-TWICE 1 1)
ADD-TWICE returned 4
4
? (ask foo (add-twice 1 1))
Calling (ADD-TWICE 2 2)
ADD-TWICE returned 8
8
? (untrace add-twice)
NIL
? (ask foo (trace add-twice))
NIL
? (add-twice 1 1)
4
? (ask foo (add-twice 1 1))
Calling (ADD-TWICE 1 1)
ADD-TWICE returned 8
8
? (trace add-twice)
NIL
? (ask foo (add-twice 1 1))
Calling (ADD-TWICE 1 1)
Calling (ADD-TWICE 2 2)
ADD-TWICE returned 8
ADD-TWICE returned 8
8
?
```



Overview

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Memory Management

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DefPascal



Low-level System Interface

Overview

This Chapter describes Allegro CL's most direct, complete, efficient and dangerous level of access to the Macintosh ROM. Because Allegro CL provides higher-level access to the most commonly used parts of the Macintosh ROM, many users will not need to use these low-level features. The higher-level tools are easier to use and safer. If used improperly, the low-level calls can easily make the system crash. They are provided so programmers can use traps which aren't included in the high-level interface, can customize calls to particular traps, and can optimize critical sections of code.

These descriptions assume some familiarity with *Inside Macintosh*.

Sharing Data Between Allegro CL and the Macintosh Operating System

Allegro CL manipulates two distinct sets of data: Macintosh data such as windows, patterns, and regions; and Lisp data such as lists, symbols, and objects. Macintosh and Lisp data are stored in different places and in different formats. Macintosh data is stored on the Application Heap, and Lisp data is stored on the Lisp Heap. These two heaps operate independently. *Every datum belongs on one heap or the other.*

Some Lisp data contain pointers to Macintosh data, but Macintosh data should *never* point to Lisp data. For example, a window object (a Lisp datum) contains a pointer to a Macintosh window record (on the Macintosh heap). Users should never store a Lisp datum on the Macintosh heap (such as putting the window object into the refCon slot of a window record). This is because Lisp data is movable, and pointers to Lisp data on the Macintosh Heap cannot be updated when data is moved. After a garbage collection, any pointers to Lisp data on the Macintosh heap could easily point to the wrong place and would probably cause an immediate or delayed crash.

In general, Macintosh data is only needed for communication with Macintosh ROM calls. Before Allegro CL can pass data to the ROM, the data must be coerced to a form that the ROM can use. This data cannot be stored on the Lisp Heap, but instead must be stored on the Application Heap or on the stack.

Lisp Data Representation

Every Lisp datum is represented in 32 bits as either an immediate or a pointer to the Lisp heap. Immediate data are completely represented in 32 bits and may be stored directly in a variable, cons cell, etc. There are currently only five types of data that are represented as immediates: fixnums, characters, Macintosh pointers, and aliases for the commonly used symbols `t` and `nil`. All other Lisp data is represented by pointers to the actual data.

Every Lisp datum has an associated type that can be quickly determined from the datum. The type of non-immediate data can be determined by looking at the address of the pointer; the type of immediate data is encoded in the datum itself. In brief:

- If bit 31 is set, the datum is a fixnum.
- If the datum is all zeros, it is `nil`.
- If the datum has only the low five bits set, it is `t`.
- If the three high bytes of the datum are all zero except for bit 8, it is a character.

If a datum points to the Lisp heap, then its type is determined by the location in the Lisp heap. Otherwise it is a Macintosh pointer (which must point to real memory).

For fixnums, the low 31 bits are interpreted as a two's complement integer. When 32-bit numeric values are required by the ROM, fixnums need to be sign-extended to the full 32 bits. This operation is called *unboxing*. The reverse operation of converting from 32-bit numeric values to 31-bit fixnums is called *boxing*.

The 31-bit limitation on fixnums can (in rare instances) lead to some trouble when the ROM requires a full-precision 32-bit value. It is usually possible to work around the 31-bit limitation of fixnums by passing two successive 16-bit values (i.e. by using the low 16 bits of two fixnums). Allegro CL also provides functions which move data between a fixnum-or-bignum and a 32-bit long word in memory. However, these functions are not as efficient as other data-sharing functions.

Calling Macintosh Traps from Allegro CL

There are two types of Macintosh traps: those which accept arguments and return values on the stack, and those which accept arguments and return values through registers. The type of a trap can be determined by reading the description of the trap in *Inside Macintosh*. If registers are mentioned, it is a register trap; if registers are not mentioned it is a stack trap. In general, the operating system traps are register-based and the toolbox traps are stack-based, but there are exceptions. Calls to these two types of traps have different formats, as outlined below.

Within a single trap call, some arguments are passed as immediate values and some are passed by reference (i.e. a pointer to the value is passed). In general, data four bytes long or less is passed by value, and data longer than four bytes is passed by reference. Check *Inside Macintosh* for the calling sequences of particular traps. Arguments which are passed by reference may be modified by the trap (these are Pascal *var* parameters).

For each trap `TrapName`, Allegro CL defines a constant `_TrapName` (equal to the trap number) and a macro `_TrapName` which expands into the trap call and is recognized by the compiler. The use of these macros is described in the following sections. In addition, the macros `stack-trap` and `register-trap` are described. These macros can be used for calling any traps, including those which are not predefined by Allegro CL.

Note:

No Lisp data should be passed to Macintosh traps (or any foreign function). Only unboxed immediates or pointers to the Mac Heap should be received by traps. If Lisp data is used, the function will not receive the correct data, but will instead receive a pointer to a data structure in the Lisp Heap or a boxed value that will probably be incorrect. If memory is allocated by the foreign function, a garbage-collection may be triggered which will cause the Lisp data to move without updating the pointer. In other words, the data will be invalid, and it will probably crash the system immediately or even worse, crash later.

Neither the Macintosh operating system, nor the Allegro CL low-level trap interface perform significant type-checking on arguments to traps. Therefore, care should be taken when passing arguments to traps.

Stack Traps

The general format of a stack trap call is:

`_Foo {type-keyword argument}* [return-value-keyword]` [Macro]

where `_Foo` is the name of the trap.

The *arguments* are evaluated, coerced according to *type-keyword*, and passed as the arguments to the trap. As noted above, the *arguments* should evaluate to fixnums (integers in the range $\pm 2^{31}$) or to pointers to data on the Macintosh Heap or the stack.

The *type-keywords* signify the type coercion to be performed on the corresponding *argument*. Possible *type-keywords* are `:word`, `:long`, and `:ptr`. The keywords operate on the subsequent *argument* according to the following table.

<code>:word</code>	<i>argument</i> is truncated to 16 bits and passed as a 16-bit word.
<code>:long</code>	<i>argument</i> is sign extended from 31 to 32 bits (unboxed) and passed as a 32-bit long word.
<code>:ptr</code>	<i>argument</i> is passed unmodified as a 32-bit pointer.

return-value-keyword indicates the type of value which the trap returns. If *return-value-keyword* is not supplied, `:novalue` is assumed. The following keywords are recognized:

<code>:word</code>	a 16-bit result is read from the stack, sign-extended and returned as a fixnum.
<code>:long</code>	a 32-bit result is read from the stack, truncated to 31 bits (boxed), and returned as a fixnum.
<code>:ptr</code>	a 32-bit result is returned from the stack unmodified as a pointer.
<code>:novalue</code>	the Macintosh trap does not return a value. The Lisp call will return <code>nil</code> .

Example:

```
(let ((oval-width 12)
      (oval-height 8))
  (%stack-block ((my-rect 8))
    (%put-word my-rect 12 0) ;top=12
    (%put-word my-rect 40 2) ;left=40
    (%put-word my-rect 32 4) ;bottom=32
    (%put-word my-rect 80 6) ;right=80
    (_FrameRoundRect:ptr my-rect
      :word oval-width
      :word oval-height)))
```

This form will call the trap `FrameRoundRect` with three arguments, a pointer and two words. `nil` will be returned.

```
(_GetResource :word #x5223      ;ASCII "R#"
              :word #x5354      ;ASCII "ST"
              :word n
              :ptr)
```

This gets STR# resource number *n* (see *Inside Macintosh* for a complete description of `_GetResource`). Note that the components of the resource type are pushed in reverse order so that they will be in the correct order on the stack. If the resource is found, it will be loaded into memory and a pointer to it will be returned; if it is not found, `nil` will be returned.

Register Traps

The general format of a register trap call is:

```
_Foo [:check-error] {register-keyword argument}* [return-register-keyword] [Macro]
```

where `_Foo` is the name of the trap.

If the symbol `:check-error` appears as the first argument to a register trap, then Allegro CL will signal an error if the trap returns with a negative value in register `d0`. Before using `:check-error`, make sure that the trap in question uses this error-signalling protocol.

The *register-keywords* specify the register which will hold the subsequent *arguments*. The *return-register-keyword* specifies which register will hold the value returned by the trap (if any). Recognized register keywords are `:a0` thru `:a6` and `:d0` thru `:d7`.

The *arguments* are evaluated in left to right order and placed in registers according to the *register-keywords*. Arguments to be placed in data registers should be fixnums; these will be sign-extended from 31 to 32 bits (unboxed). Arguments placed in address registers are not coerced in any way, and should usually be handles or pointers to non-Lisp memory.

Example:

```
(_Delay :A0 (%int-to-ptr 60))
```

The value 60 must be explicitly coerced from an integer to a pointer (thereby modifying the high bit) because the trap call will not perform this coercion.

The *return-register-keyword* specifies which register contains the value to be returned from the trap. If *return-register-keyword* is not supplied, then `nil` is returned. Values returned from a data register will be truncated to 31 bits and returned as a fixnum. Values returned from an address register are returned unmodified and will usually be a handle or pointer to non-Lisp memory. There is no facility for returning multiple values from register traps.

Example:

```
(setq my-pointer (_newptr :check-error
                          :d0 2000
                          :a0))
```

upon completion `my-pointer` will hold a pointer to a 2000-byte block of memory on the current Macintosh Heap. If the memory cannot be allocated, a Lisp error will be signalled.

General Trap Calls

Two macros—`stack-trap` and `register-trap`—provide a generalized mechanism for calling Macintosh traps. These functions can be used for calling traps which are not defined by Allegro CL, for example, color Quickdraw traps contained in the Macintosh II.

stack-trap [:check-error] *trap-number* [Macro]
 {*type-keyword argument*}* [*return-value-keyword*]

register-trap [:check-error] *trap-number* [Macro]
 {*register-keyword argument*}* [*return-value-keyword*]

trap-number should evaluate to a 68000 A-trap instruction. These can be found in *Inside Macintosh*. If *trap-number* is specified as a compile-time constant expression, the trap call can be open-coded by the compiler.

The *type-keywords*, *return-value-keywords*, *register-keywords*, and *arguments* have the same meanings as for predefined trap-calls, as does the keyword `:check-error`.

Example:

```
;;; Setting bit 9 of certain Memory Manager traps causes
;;; allocated memory to be initialized to zero by the ROM.
;;; This feature saves us a little code and also exploits
;;; the fact that, for hardware reasons, code in ROM
;;; executes about 20% faster than code in RAM on many
;;; versions of the Macintosh.
```

```
(defconstant _NewPtr.CLEAR
  (logior _NewPtr (ash 1 9))
  "_NewPtr with bit 9 set")
```

```
(defmacro _NewPtr.CLEAR (&rest args)
  (if (eq (car args) :check-error)
      ;; if present, put it in the right place.
      `(ccl::register-trap :check-error
                           _NewPtr.CLEAR
                           ,@(cdr args))
      `(ccl::register-trap _NewPtr.CLEAR
                           ,@args)))
```

```
;;; test it :
```

```
(defun test-it ()
  (let ((p (_NewPtr.CLEAR :check-error :d0 20 :a0)))
    (unwind-protect
      (dotimes (i (_GetPtrSize :check-error :a0 p :d0) t)
        (unless (zerop (%get-byte p i))
          (error
            "_NewPtr.CLEAR didn't work as advertised.")))
      (_DisposPtr :check-error :a0 p))))
```

```
(test-it)
```

Memory Management

Allegro CL works cooperatively with the Macintosh Memory Manager. Thus you can use the traps `_NewPtr` and `_NewHandle` to allocate blocks of memory on the Application Heap. The Macintosh and Lisp heaps are dynamically resized to satisfy memory requests. This resizing will sometimes trigger a garbage collection.

You are responsible for releasing memory allocated on the Macintosh heap (this can be done with `_disposptr` and `_disposhandle`. It will not be garbage collected even if all pointers to the memory are lost. Also, care should be taken so that once memory is released, nothing in Lisp still refers to it. This could cause a crash if that memory location is later used for Lisp data and a garbage collection occurs.

`_NewPtr` and `_NewHandle` are automatically called by `make-record`, described in the chapter Pascal Records.

Stack Blocks

When you need a small amount of memory for *temporary* storage, it is often more convenient and more efficient to bypass the Macintosh Memory Manager. The `%stack-block` special form allows programs to allocate blocks of memory on the stack. Be very careful using `%stack-block`. When you exit the `%stack-block` form, all the memory allocated is reclaimed, so any remaining pointers into the stack block will be invalid. `%stack-block` should only be used for well-defined temporary storage, for example in setting up rectangles or I/O parameter blocks to be passed to traps, or as a temporary place to put *var* arguments.

`%stack-block` (*{(variable size)}+*) *{form}*⁺ [Special Form]¹
 for each *variable* and *size*, `%stack-block` allocates a block of storage *size* bytes long, and binds *variable* to a pointer to the block. If there is not enough room on the stack to allocate the requested memory, an error is signalled. The forms are executed in the resulting environment. The maximum total size for an individual stack block form is 32k bytes. Every *size* must be a positive fixnum, or a compile-time error will be signalled. `%stack-block` is semantically equivalent to doing a `_NewPtr`/`_DisposPtr` pair for each *variable*, but much more efficient.

The bindings and the storage created by `%stack-block` have lexical scope and dynamic extent. They do not have indefinite extent. They disappear when the `%stack-block` exits. The variables cannot be accessed outside of the `%stack-block` form and they cannot be declared as special variables. They cannot be closed over.

Example:

```
(let ((oval-width 12)
      (oval-height 8))
  (%stack-block ((my-rect 8))
    (%put-word my-rect 12 0) ;top=12
    (%put-word my-rect 40 2) ;left=40
    (%put-word my-rect 32 4) ;bottom=32
    (%put-word my-rect 80 6) ;right=80
    (_FrameRoundRect:ptr my-rect
      :word oval-width
      :word oval-height)))
```

An eight-byte block is allocated on the stack. The memory is filled with the coordinates of a rectangle. A pointer to the block—and two additional words—are then passed to the trap `_FrameRoundRect`.

Accessing Memory

Once memory for a structure has been allocated, programs need methods for directly reading from and writing to the memory. Allegro CL provides the following low-level functions for reading and writing to memory locations. (The functions `rref` and `rset` may be used. See the chapter Pascal Records for details.) Most calls to these functions are compiled inline for efficiency.

Each of the following functions takes an *offset* as an optional argument. No type-checking is performed on the *offset*. It is treated as a fixnum (i.e. an immediate datum), and sign-extended from 31 to 32 bits (unboxed).

%get-byte *pointer* &optional *offset* [Function]
gets the byte (8 bits) at *pointer* + *offset* and returns it as a fixnum.

%get-signed-byte *pointer* &optional *offset* [Function]
gets the byte (8 bits) at *pointer* + *offset*, sign-extends it, and returns it as a fixnum.

%get-word *pointer* &optional *offset* [Function]
gets the word (16 bits) at *pointer* + *offset* and returns it as a fixnum. *Note that on a 68000 (but not a 68020) a fatal error will occur when a word is accessed at an odd memory address.*

%get-signed-word *pointer* &optional *offset* [Function]
gets the word (16 bits) at *pointer* + *offset*, sign-extends it, and returns it as a fixnum. *Note that on a 68000 (but not a 68020) a fatal error will occur when a word is accessed at an odd memory address.*

%get-long *pointer* &optional *offset* [Function]
gets the long-word (32-bits) at *pointer* + *offset*, truncates it to 31 bits (by removing the high bit) and returns it as a fixnum. *Note that on a 68000 (but not a 68020) a fatal error will occur when a long-word is accessed at an odd memory address.*

%get-ptr *pointer* &optional *offset* [Function]
gets the long-word (32-bits) at *pointer* + *offset* and returns it unmodified. The data should be a valid pointer or the garbage collector will be confused by it and probably crash. *Note that on a 68000 (but not a 68020) a fatal error will occur when a long-word is accessed at an odd memory address.*

%get-safe-ptr *pointer* &optional *offset* [Function]
gets the long-word (32-bits) at *pointer* + *offset*, checks to see if it is a pointer to valid memory, and returns it if it is, otherwise returns `nil`. *Note that on a 68000 (but not a 68020) a fatal error will occur when a long-word is accessed at an odd memory address.*

%get-string *pointer* &optional *offset* [Function]
gets the Pascal string at *pointer* + *offset* and returns it as a Lisp string. (Pascal strings are formatted differently from Lisp strings. The Macintosh Toolbox uses Pascal strings.)

%get-ostype *pointer* &optional *offset* [Function]
 gets the four bytes at *pointer* + *offset* and returns it as a keyword of four characters.

%put-byte *pointer data* &optional *offset* [Function]
 stores the low eight bits of *data* at *pointer* + *offset*.

%put-word *pointer data* &optional *offset* [Function]
 stores the low 16 bits of *data* at *pointer* + *offset*. Note that on a 68000 (but not a 68020) a fatal error will occur when a word is stored into an odd memory address.

%put-long *pointer data* &optional *offset* [Function]
 sign-extends *data* from 31 to 32 bits and stores the result at *pointer* + *offset*. Note that on a 68000 (but not a 68020) a fatal error will occur when a long-word is stored into an odd memory address.

%put-full-long *pointer data* &optional *offset* [Function]
 stores the integer value of *data* at *pointer* + *offset*. *data* should be an integer (fixnum or bignum). This operation is less efficient than %put-long, but it allows full 32-bit accuracy. Note that on a 68000 (but not a 68020) a fatal error will occur when a long-word is stored into an odd memory address.

%put-ptr *pointer data* &optional *offset* [Function]
 stores *data* at *pointer* + *offset*. The full 32-bits of *data* will be written unmodified, so care should be taken to not put Lisp data into non-Lisp memory space and not put Macintosh data into Lisp memory space. Note that on a 68000 (but not a 68020) a fatal error will occur when a long-word is stored into an odd memory address.

%put-string *pointer string* &optional *offset* [Function]
 stores *string* as a Pascal string starting at *pointer* + *offset*. *string* should have a maximum length of 255.

%put-ostype *pointer string* &optional *offset* [Function]
string should have a length of four characters. %put-ostype stores *string* as four bytes at *pointer* + *offset*. Note that on a 68000 (but not a 68020) a fatal error will occur when an os-type is stored into an odd memory address.

Strings, Pointers, and Handles

The following utilities are provided for using strings, pointers, and handles.

with-pstrs ({(variable string)}+) {form}+ [Macro]

with-retuned-pstrs ({(variable string)}+) {form}+ [Macro]

Strings are passed from Allegro CL to the Macintosh operating system with such frequency that Allegro CL provides a macro, `with-pstrs`, to expedite the process. `with-pstrs` saves the trouble of allocating memory and filling it with individual characters every time a Macintosh accessible string is needed.

Memory for each *string* is allocated, the *string* is stored in this memory in the Pascal string format, and the corresponding *variable* is bound to a pointer to the memory. Each *string* can have a maximum length of 255 characters. The *forms* are evaluated in the resulting environment.

Traps which use the strings as *var* arguments for returning values should be called through the macro `with-returned-pstrs`. `with-returned-pstrs` allocates 256 bytes for each string (rather than trying to optimize the amount of memory allocated). This guarantees that the returned string will not overwrite other segments of memory.

`pointerp thing`

[Function]

returns `t` if *thing* is a pointer to non-Lisp memory, `nil` otherwise. A datum is considered a pointer if it is not a fixnum and it points anywhere besides the Lisp heap.

`zone-pointerp thing`

[Function]

returns `t` if *thing* is a pointer to a non-relocatable system or application HeapZone memory block, otherwise `nil`. The test is performed heuristically by first determining if *thing* points into a Macintosh HeapZone, and if so, seeing if the long word before the address pointed at by *thing* is equal to the HeapZone. A zone pointer is different from a generic pointer since it points to a memory block that was allocated using `_NewPtr`, and the various memory manager pointer traps such as `_DisposPtr` may be used on it. See the Memory Manager chapter in *Inside Macintosh* for more information on the structure of zone pointers.

`handlep thing`

[Function]

returns `t` if *thing* is a Macintosh handle, otherwise `nil`. This is determined heuristically by first checking if *thing* points into the system or application HeapZone, and if so, indirecting through *thing* to see if the long word prior to the address plus the Zone pointer is equal to *thing*. See the Memory Manager chapter in *Inside Macintosh* for more information on the structure of handles.

`with-dereferenced-handles` (`{{(variable handle)}+}`) `{form}+`

[Macro]

executes *forms* with each *variable* bound to the locked, dereferenced *handle*. Only previously unlocked handles are locked. Upon exit, only handles which were unlocked on entry are unlocked. (This prevents an annoying and difficult to find bug that occurs when programming the Macintosh with other languages). Unlocking of handles is unwind-protected, so the handles are guaranteed to be left in the same state before and after the `with-dereferenced-handles`, even if termination is abnormal.

`with-pointers` (`{{(variable pointer-or-handle)}+}`) `{form}+`

[Macro]

for each *pointer-or-handle* which is a pointer, binds the *variable* to the pointer; for each *pointer-or-handle* which is a handle, binds the *variable* to the locked, dereferenced handle, as with `with-dereferenced-handle`. `with-pointers` is useful if you are unsure whether *pointer-or-handle* will be a pointer or a handle. An error is signalled if *pointer-or-handle* is neither a pointer nor a handle.

`%inc-pointer pointer number`

[Function]

increments (or decrements) *pointer* by adding it to *number*, and returns a new pointer. *pointer* should be a Mac pointer. *number* should be a fixnum.

`%ptr-to-int pointer`

[Function]

returns a fixnum coerced from *pointer*, that is, the numerical address *pointer* points to. This involves setting the high-bit.

`%int-to-ptr fixnum`

[Function]

returns a pointer coerced from *fixnum*, that is, a pointer to the numerical address *fixnum*. This involves unboxing *fixnum*, i.e., setting bit-31 to the same value as bit-30.

Pascal *var* arguments

Pascal *var* arguments are passed by reference, rather than by value; i.e., you pass the function a pointer to a datum, rather than the datum itself. The called function may then side-effect the datum and in this way communicate information to the caller. Implementing *var* arguments in Allegro CL is very easy. Just allocate memory of the appropriate size for the datum (either on the stack or on the Macintosh heap, depending on how long you want to use the datum) and pass a pointer to the memory as the *var* argument.

DefPascal

The `defpascal` macro allows programs to create Lisp procedures which can be called by the Macintosh toolbox. `Defpascal` has the general form

```
defpascal name ((argument type))* (:result return-type)
```

[Macro]

[doc-string] *{form}**

```
defpascal name ((argument :reg))
```

[Macro]

[doc-string] *{form}**

The syntax is similar to `defun`, except that the lambda list contains pairs rather than arguments, and ends with a type specifier for the value returned by the procedure. Each pair is the name of the argument followed by the argument's type. &optional, &keyword, &rest, and &aux arguments are not permitted because they are not supported by the Pascal calling sequence.

In the first format, arguments may be of type `:word`, `:long`, `:ptr`. `:word`'s and `:long`'s will be passed to the procedure as fixnums, and `:ptr`'s will be passed to the procedure as pointers. *return-type* may be `:word`, `:long`, `:ptr` or `:void`. `:void` is used when the procedure does not return a value. (Omitting *return-type* is equivalent to a *return-type* of `:void`.)

In the second format, only a single *argument* is given. This should be a pointer to a Pascal record of type `regbuf`. When the function is called, the values of the machine registers are copied into the record. The values of the record can be set and accessed with `rref` and `rset` (see the chapter Pascal Records for details). The value returned from the function is the pointer to the record.

name will be set to a pointer to the procedure. This pointer may be passed to traps.

The following procedure could be passed to `_TrackControl` and used to track scroll bars:

```
(defpascal my-track-proc ((my-control PPTR) (partCode PWORD))
  (_SetCtlValue :ptr my-control :word
    (+ (_GetCtlValue :ptr my-control :word)
      (case partCode
        (20 -1) ;scroll back one line
        (21 1) ;scroll forward on line
        (22 (- *page-height*)) ;scroll back on page
        (23 *page-height*))))) ;scroll forward one page
```


It could be used as follows:

```
(if (logbitp 8
    (_TrackControl :ptr the-control :long mouse-point
    :ptr my-track-proc :word))
    (update-window))
```



Overview
The Structure of Records
Record Functions



Pascal Records

Overview

The functions and macros described below allow Coral Lisp programs to manipulate data using Pascal record formats. This is useful because the Macintosh Operating System usually stores data as Pascal records. Data structures created at run-time (such as windows and text-edit records), as well as Macintosh resources may be conveniently accessed and altered using these functions.

There are some caveats to sharing data between CCL and the Macintosh operating system. These are described in the first three sections of the chapter Low Level System Interface. You should be familiar with the information from those sections before reading the rest of this chapter.

Records may be thought of in two ways, how they are stored and used, and how they are passed around by Lisp. As stored and used, a record is a contiguous, highly formatted block of memory of a specific size, on the stack or Macintosh heap. As passed around, a record is a simple pointer into memory, with no formatting or length information. To use a record (which Lisp sees as a mac-pointer), a program must provide a record-type, telling the system how the data pointed at should be interpreted. It is up to your program to remember the types of all the records you create. This system allows you to map over a single block of memory in several different ways, as if it were several different types of record. It also allows you to take pointers returned by Macintosh traps and use them as records.

In the discussion below, the word *record* can mean either a block of memory, or a pointer into memory, depending upon the context. For example, when you allocate a new record with `make-record`, a block of memory is allocated on the heap, and a pointer to the block is returned. Below we would simply say a record is allocated and returned.

The Structure of Records

A *record* is a contiguous block of memory on the Macintosh heap. A record has an associated set of *fields*, that refer to different portions of the memory block. A *record definition* is a template that defines the fields for a specific type of record. Each field has a name, a type, and a byte offset into the record. Field names are used to symbolically access portions of a record and field types are used to determine the size of each field and how the information in the field should be encoded/decoded (for example, a field may itself be a record and therefore contain subfields).

The same portion of a record may be accessed in different ways by using *variant fields*. Variant fields allow an area of a record to be mapped to different sets of fields. For example, variant fields could be used to access one part of a record as a single long word or as four bytes. Variant fields (like records in general) are useful mnemonic aids and shortcuts. The size of a variant field is equal to the largest total size of one of the sets of fields in the variant portion of a record.

New record types are defined with `defrecord`. `record-type-p` can be used to determine if something is a record type. `record-length` and `record-storage`, `record-default`, and `record-fields` return information about a record type. `describe-record-field` returns information about a specific field in a type of record. Records may be created with `make-record`. Records allocated by `make-record` will remain until explicitly de-allocated using `dispose-record`. Records may be temporarily allocated (on the stack) with `rlet`. They can be copied using `copy-record`. Fields within records are accessed with `rref` and set with `rset`. `set-record` allows setting multiple fields in a record using keywords to specify fields. `record-string` may be used to get a printed representation of a record.

Record Functions

defrecord *name-and-storage* [*doc-string*] {*field-description*}+ [Macro]

defrecord is used to define new record types. *name-and-storage* should be either a symbol that will be used to name the type of record, or a list whose *car* is the symbol used to name the type of record and whose *cadr* is one of the keywords `:pointer`, `:handle`, or `:either` which specifies the default type of storage used for the record type. `:pointer` means that unless otherwise specified, records of that type will be assumed to be pointers, `:handle` means that records of that type are assumed to be Macintosh handles and `:either` means no assumptions are made; the record is examined at run time to determine whether it is a pointer or a handle (this is flexible but inefficient). If no storage type is specified, `:pointer` is assumed.

Records stored as handles are less likely to cause fragmentation of the Macintosh heap, but they cannot be allocated using `rlet`. In addition, the Macintosh ROM is very strict about whether it gets records passed to it by handle or by pointer. The default storage type for a record can be overridden for many record instructions (such as `rref` and `rset`) by specifying the storage type with the `:storage` keyword. *Be very careful when overriding the default record storage. A crash is very likely if a handle is used as a pointer or vice versa.*

In addition to defining a record type, **defrecord** creates a record to be used as a default value whenever that record type is used as a field in another record type. This default record uses the default values of all of the types that it is composed of.

A standard *field-description* has the form:

(field-name type &optional default)

Field-name is the name which will be used to access the field in the record. *type* is the type of data which will be held in the field. It is used to determine the field's length. *type* must be one of the pre-defined types (see table below), a previously defined record type, or a list whose *car* is the symbol `string` and whose *cadr* is a fixnum from 1 to 255, that is used to specify the space to be allocated for the string.

The pre-defined field types, lengths, and defaults are :

<u>type</u>	<u>length</u>	<u>default</u>
boolean	1 bytes	nil
byte	1 byte	0
character	1 byte	#\null
handle	4 bytes	nil
integer	2 bytes	0
longint	4 bytes	0
ostype	4 bytes	"????"
point	4 bytes	#@ (0 0)
pointer	4 bytes	nil

Fields that are two or more bytes will always begin at word boundaries (i.e. at even memory locations). This means that fields that are one byte long will sometimes be padded out to two bytes, so that the next field can begin at an even address.

The following standard Macintosh record types are pre-defined by Allegro CL. Their definitions can be found in the file `Library:records.lisp` or through the `record-types` option of the inspector.

```

bitmap
bits16
cursor
dialog
dialog-item
event
fontinfo
grafport
pattern
penstate
rect
regbuf
sfreply
window

```

Example:

```

(defrecord PenState (pnLoc point)
                   (pnSize point)
                   (pnMode integer)
                   (pnPat pattern))

```

This call creates a new record type called `PenState` with four fields.

If a field-description includes a *default*, the corresponding field will be initialized to *default* when a new record is created, otherwise the default from the table above will be used.

A field description may contain variant fields, in which case it will have the form

```

(variant ({field-description1}+)
         ({field-description2}+)
         ...
         ({field-descriptionN}+))

```

The part of the record described by the variant may be accessed through *N* sets of fields. The size of the variant field is equal to the size of the largest set of fields.

Example:

```

(defrecord Rect
  (variant ((top Integer 0) (left Integer 0))
           ((topleft point)))
  (variant ((bottom integer 0) (right integer 0))
           ((bottomright point))))

```

A `rect` record may be accessed either as two points or as four coordinates. All the fields of new records will have a default initial value of zero. When a record is created, only the default values of the first of any set of variants are used.

The following functions take a record-type as an argument. They do not take an actual record, but only a type, or template, which has been created with `defrecord`.

record-type-p *record-type* [Function]
returns `t` if *record-type* is a defined type of record, `nil` otherwise.

record-length *record-type* [Function]
returns the length, in bytes, of the record type specified by *record-type*. Signals an error if there is no record type *record-type*.

record-storage *record-type* [Function]
returns the keyword that specifies the default storage for records of type *record-type*. This will be one of `:pointer`, `:handle`, or `:either`. Signals an error if there is no record type *record-type*.

record-default *record-type* [Function]
returns the record of type *record-type* that is used as a default whenever a record is created that includes fields that have type *record-type*. The fields of the default record may be changed. Signals an error if there is no record type *record-type*.

record-fields *record-type* [Function]
returns a list of the names of all the fields of *record-type* including the names of variant fields. Signals an error if there is no record type *record-type*.

field-info *record-type* *field-name* [Function]
returns three values that describe the field of *record-type* named by *field-name*. The values are the byte offset of the field within the record, the field-type, and the default value of the field. Signals an error if there is no record type *record-type* or no field within *record-type* with name *field-name*.

record-info *record-type* &optional (*errorp* `nil`) [Function]
returns a list of descriptions of all the fields of *record-type* including variant fields. Each field descriptor is a list of four values: the field name, type, offset and default value. If there is no record type *record-type* and *errorp* is non-`nil` an error is signalled; if *errorp* is `nil`, `nil` is returned.

make-record *record-type* &key `:storage` {*field-name contents*}* [Function]
Allocates space on the Macintosh heap for a record of type *record-type* and returns a pointer or a handle to it. If `:storage` is not specified, it will be a pointer if the default storage for *record-type* is `:pointer`, otherwise it will be a handle. *Be very careful when overriding the default record storage. A crash is very likely if a handle is used as a pointer or vice versa.*

The fields of the record may be initialized by using the *fieldnames* as keywords. Any fields not initialized by keywords will be initialized to their default values for the record type. The memory used by the new record will not be automatically garbage-collected; it must be disposed of with `dispose-record`.

Some records, such as windows, must be created and initialized by specific toolbox routines. Such records should not be created with `make-record` but with the appropriate toolbox traps. Their fields can, of course, still be accessed with `rref` and `rset`.

set-record *record record-type &key {field-name value}** [Function]

Sets multiple fields of *record* at one time. Each *field-name* should be a keyword that names the field of *record-type* that will be set to *value* in *record*. The storage type of *record* is determined at the time of the call, so any storage type may be used for any record type. *record* is returned.

copy-record *source-record record-type &optional dest-record* [Function]
copies all of the fields of *source-record* which should be of type *record-type* into *dest-record*. If *dest-record* is not supplied, a new one will be allocated that has the same storage type as *source-record*. Returns *dest-record*.

dispose-record *record* [Function]
disposes of the given *record*. If *record* contains pointers to other records, these other records will not be automatically disposed by `dispose-record` since other pointers to those records may exist. `dispose-record` only has an effect if *record* is a pointer or a handle to a Macintosh Memory Manager block. `nil` is returned.

print-record *record record-type &optional print-level* [Function]
prints the values of the fields of *record* with type *record-type*. This pays attention to the values of `*print-length*` and `*print-level*`. *print-level* is the current print nesting, it defaults to zero and is normally used only internally. No values are returned.

get-record-field *record record-type field-name* [Function]
returns the value of the *field-name* field of *record* which should be of type *record-type*. The macro `rref` should normally be used to get the values since it is more efficient. `get-record-field` is provided so that there is a functional way to get the values of fields.

set-record-field *record record-type field-name value* [Function]
sets the value of the *field-name* field of *record* which should be of type *record-type* to *value* and returns `nil`. The macro `rset` should normally be used to set the values of fields since it is more efficient. `set-record-field` is provided so that there is a functional way to change the values of fields.

rref *record accessor &key :storage* [Macro]
is used for accessing the fields of a record. *record* is a pointer or handle to a record. *accessor* tells `rref` what *record* and definition to apply and what field to access, and `:storage` tells `rref` what kind of storage to assume for the record. It should be `:pointer`, `:handle`, or `:either`. `:storage` is not usually specified, being taken instead from the *record-type* of *accessor*.

accessor has the form:

record-type{*field*}⁺

where the *record-type* must be a previously defined record type, and *field* must be a field in a record of type *record-type* (with extensions if *record-type*'s first field is a record, see below). If *field* is also a record type, its fields may be accessed by appending an additional period and field

name. If that field is a record type, the process can continue. There can be any number of *fields* as long as all but the last is a record type.

In cases where the first field of *record-type* is also a record, then that field's fields may be referred to as if they were direct fields of *record-type*. For example, a Quickdraw grafport is the first field of a window record, so the grafport's portrect could be referred to as `window.portrect` as an abbreviation for `window.grafport.portrect`.

If `:storage` is not supplied, then the default storage type for *record-type* is used. If it is supplied it should be `:pointer`, `:handle`, or `:either`. *Be very careful when overriding the default record storage. An immediate or delayed crash is very likely if a handle is used as a pointer or vice versa.*

If the final *field* of *accessor* is not a record, then the actual field value is returned. If the final *field* of *accessor* is itself a record, then a pointer to that record is returned. An error is signalled at macro-expansion time if an attempt is made to get a pointer to a record within a handle, since the memory block pointed to by the handle may move. If that is desired, use a `with-dereferenced-handle` form around the call and specify `:storage` to be `:pointer`. Warning: such a pointer to a record within a handle will be valid only for the duration of the `with-dereferenced-handle`.

`rref` is very efficient. It macro-expands into a simple call to a low-level memory accessing function (unless `:storage` is `:either`) which is in turn compiled inline. For the curious, try experimenting with how `rref` expands to see how it works.

Examples:

```
(rref my-rect rect.top)
(rref wptr window.portrect.bottomright)
(rref tePtr terec.viewrect.left :storage :pointer)
(rref my-control control.contrlvalue)
```

rset *record accessor value* &key :storage [Macro]
is used to change the values of the fields of a record. *record* is a pointer or handle to a record, *accessor* has the same format as the accessor for `rref`, and *value* is the new value to store into the field. If the final *field* of *accessor* is a record, *value* must also be a record (either a handle or a pointer) that is copied into the appropriate field of *record*.

If `:storage` is not supplied, then the default storage type for *record-type* is used. If it is supplied it should be `:pointer`, `:handle`, or `:either`. *Be very careful when overriding the default record storage. An immediate or delayed crash is very likely if a handle is used as a pointer or vice versa.*

`rset` is very efficient. It macro-expands into a simple call to a low-level memory accessing function (unless `:storage` is `:either`) which is in turn compiled inline. For the curious, try experimenting with how `rset` expands to see how it works.

Examples:

```
(rset wptr window.portrect.topleft #(100 200))
(rset my-rect rect.left -10)
(rset tePtr terec.viewrect.top 50 :storage :pointer)
(rset my-control control.contrlvalue 200)
```

rlet $\{(\{var\ record\text{-}type\ \{field\text{-}keyword\ value\}^*\})^+\} \{form\}^+$ [Macro]

is used to efficiently create temporary records. **rlet** has the same general form as **let**. For every *var* a new binding is created. Space is allocated on the stack for a *record-type* record, the record is initialized according to the *field-keywords* and *values* as in *make-record*. A pointer to the new record is stored in the corresponding *var*. The *forms* are evaluated in the resulting environment, and the value of the final form is returned.

Note that **rlet** differs from *make-record* in that fields not explicitly initialized by a *field-keyword/value* pair will contain garbage instead of a default value. This is so that **rlet** will be as efficient as possible in cases where you do not care what is in the fields, such as when a record is to be filled in by a subsequent function call.

rlet cannot create records that are accessed through handles. Also, the records are stored on the stack and are therefore ephemeral. When the evaluation of *forms* is done, all the records vanish irretrievably, so make sure you do not have any dangling pointers when an **rlet** terminates.



Appendix A: Implementation Notes

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Appendix A Implementation Notes

Overview

This chapter describes the particulars of Allegro CL's Common Lisp implementation. It includes information on cases which are ambiguous in Common Lisp and technical information on memory management, the compiler, and other aspects of the Allegro CL system.

The information in this chapter is complemented by the information in the chapter Low-level System Interface.

Reader Macro Characters

In addition to supporting the standard Common Lisp reader macro characters, Allegro CL adds definitions for the following characters, which are undefined by Common Lisp.

#@..... transforms the subsequent list of two fixnums, into a point
#p..... causes the following string to be read as a mac-pathname

Numbers

- Fixnums are stored as immediate data using a two's complement representation. Fixnums are 31 bits long (the thirty-second bit is used as a type marker). `eq1` fixnums are `eq` (although portable code should not rely on this fact).
- There is only one float type, corresponding to IEEE double floats. Each float is 64 bits (8 bytes), consisting of a sign bit, an 11-bit binary exponent (allowing exponents in the range -1022:1023 inclusive), and a 52-bit significand. The significand precision is 53 bits. If the Macintosh contains the MC68881 floating point processor, Allegro CL uses the processor for all floating point computations. Otherwise, Apple's SANE package is used. If Allegro CL is using the MC68881, the symbol `:MC68881` will be present on the `*features*` list.

Characters

Characters are represented as immediate data. The character code is the 8-bit extended ascii value. There are no bits or font information—the `char-code` and the `char-int` of a character are the same. `eq1` characters are `eq` (although portable code should not rely on this fact). Strings may contain any character (i.e. any character is a `string-char`).

The characters with ascii codes of 0 through 31 inclusive may use the reader macros `#\^@` through `#\^_`. More generally, `#\^c`, for any character `c`, is equivalent to `(code-char (logxor 64 (char-code #\c)))`. In addition `#\nnn`, where `nnn` are two or three octal digits, is equivalent to `(code-char #onnn)`.

The variable `CCL::*name-char-alist*` contains names for special characters. It is used by the `char-name` and `name-char` functions. In addition to supporting the standard ascii character set, Allegro CL supports the Macintosh optional character set.

Arrays

The following distinct array element types are supported:

```

bit .....1 bit per element
character .....8 bits per element
(signed-byte 8) .....8 bits per element
(signed-byte 16) ...16 bits per element
T .....One node (32 bits) per element

```

In addition, Allegro CL supports the special non-CL array element type `CCL::short`, which is similar (signed-byte 16) except that setting an array element to a fixnum which is not in the (signed-byte 16) range truncates the value to 16 bits rather than causing an error. This is useful in certain system programming applications.

Only simple vectors are supported. All arrays of rank other than 1 are implemented as displaced arrays. In addition to the memory required to store the elements, a simple vector has 8 bytes of overhead (9 bytes in the case of bit vectors). A complex (displaced) array has about $32 + (4 * \text{rank})$ bytes of overhead. The rank of an array must be less than `#x2000`.

The theoretical limits on the sizes of arrays are as follows:

```

bit .....#x7FFFFFF1
character .....#x1000000
(signed-byte 8) .....#x1000000
(signed-byte 16) ...#x800000
T .....#x400000

```

All these limits represent arrays requiring approximately 16 megabytes of contiguous memory.

There is no a priori limit on the size of individual dimensions of an array aside from that imposed by the array total size limit.

Packages

The only external symbols of the `LISP` package are the 775 symbols of Common Lisp. The `CCL` package uses the `LISP` package. Its exported symbols consist of extensions to Common Lisp provided by Allegro CL. The `CCL` package shadows none of the Common Lisp symbols. The `USER` package uses both the `CCL` and the `LISP` packages.

Modules:

There are three ways you can tell the `require` function how to look for a module.

If the second argument to `require` is given, it should be a pathname or a list of pathnames which make up the module.

If the second argument to `require` is not provided, `require` first looks in the variable `*module-file-alist*`, which is bound to an alist. In this alist, the `car` of each element should be a module name, and the `cdr` of each element should be a pathname or list of pathnames making up the module. `require` will load all the files listed. Initially, `*module-file-alist*` is empty.

Example:

```
(push '(my-system . ("my-sys;definitions.fasl"
                    "my-sys;actions.fasl"))
      *module-file-alist*)
```

If the module is not registered in `*module-file-alist*`, `require` looks for a file with the same name as the module name, in the locations specified by the variable `*module-search-path*`. `*module-search-path*` should be bound to a list of pathnames, each specifying the directory and possibly a file type (the name component is ignored, and is replaced by the name of the module). If no file type is given, both “lisp” and “fasl” are looked for, and the more recent file is used.

Example:

```
(push "misc;" *module-search-path*)
```

will cause `(require 'tools)` to look for the file “misc;tools.fasl” or “misc;tools.lisp”.

```
(setq *module-search-path*
      (list* "misc;.fasl"
             *module-search-path*))
```

will cause `(require 'tools)` to look for “misc;tools.fasl” before searching for other versions of the tools file.

The initial value of `*module-search-path*` is `'("home;" "ccl;" "library;")`.

Memory Management

Allegro CL can access up to 8-megabytes of RAM (the current maximum supported by the Macintosh operating system). Configuration for different memory sizes occurs automatically at launch time.

The Macintosh divides memory into three areas: the system heap (used by the Macintosh operating system), the application heap (used to store program data), and the stack. Running under the Switcher, there may be several application heaps, but only one is active at a given time. Allegro CL adds two additional memory areas: a Lisp heap, and a control stack. For efficiency and flexibility, Lisp data is stored on the Lisp heap rather than on the application heap. The Lisp heap and application heap are dynamically resized in response to requests for memory. See the chapter Low-level System Interface for further details.

Allegro CL uses a BiBOP (Big Bag Of Pages) memory and type management system. Pages are 4 k-bytes each.

Function Swapping

A large number (over 2600) of the compiled functions in the Allegro CL kernel participate in a “load-on-call” memory management system. These functions are not loaded into memory until they are first called. When garbage collection occurs, any of these functions which are not active (i.e. not awaiting return values on the stack), are purged. If called again, they will have to be

reloaded. Depending on disk speed, there may be a slight pause when functions are loaded into memory.

The total size of all swappable functions is somewhat greater than 600K bytes.

The load-on-call system is biased towards memory conservation, speed sometimes being sacrificed. Users with sufficient memory who wish to optimize speed may use the following functions to affect the swapping mechanism.

Functions written by the user do not participate in the load-on-call system.

purge-functions &optional *boolean* [Function]
globally enables or disables purging of swappable functions. If *boolean* is non-*nil*, purging will be enabled. If *boolean* is *nil*, purging will be disabled. If *boolean* is not specified, the function has no side-effect.

`purge-functions` returns *t* if purging is enabled, otherwise *nil*.

`purge-functions` allows the user to disable function-purging before executing programs in which purging and re-loading is undesirable. In general, purging should be disabled if Allegro CL has access to more than 1 megabyte of RAM.

In environments with restricted memory, this feature should be used with caution: there is no way of changing your mind in the middle of a garbage collection. If functions cannot be purged, an out-of-memory error may occur.

preload-all-functions [Function]
loads all swappable functions into memory. Functions will still be purged during garbage collection, unless the appropriate call to `purge-functions` has been made.

`preload-all-functions` is primarily intended for use in conjunction with `purge-functions`. The following code could be placed in an init file to completely remove swapping.

```
(progn
  (preload-all-functions)
  (purge-functions NIL))
```

This is recommended for configurations with greater than 1.5 megabytes of RAM.

Garbage Collection

Allegro CL uses a mark/compact/forward garbage-collector. Garbage collection occurs automatically, as memory is needed. This can happen when the Macintosh operating system or Allegro CL need memory. Garbage collection can be invoked manually through the function `gc`.

Evaluator

Allegro CL offers two evaluation options: a standard evaluator, and a compiling evaluator. The standard evaluator conforms to Common Lisp standards and supports `evalhook` and `applyhook`. The compiling evaluator compiles non-trivial expressions and then runs them. For

looping or self-recursive constructs the compiling evaluator is much faster. However, the compiling evaluator does not support `*evalhook*` and `*applyhook*`. When the variable `*fast-eval*` is non-`nil` the compiling evaluator is used. In the default environment, `*fast-eval*` is `nil`.

When `*compile-definitions*` is non-`nil`, the standard evaluator will attempt to compile definitions, thereby creating compiled, rather than evaluated, functions. This attempt will fail if there are lexical bindings in the evaluation environment. For example,

```
(eval '(defun foo (n) (+ n n)))
```

will produce a compiled function if `*compile-definitions*` is non-`nil`. However,

```
(eval '(let ((x 5)) (defun foo (n) (+ n n))))
```

will not produce a compiled definition, regardless of the value of `*compile-definitions*`. (It will, however, produce a compiled definition if the compiling evaluator is used).

In the default mode, `*compile-definitions*` is `t`.

Compiler

Unless otherwise directed, the compiler attempts to produce compact, correct, safe, and reasonably fast code. With very few exceptions, system functions do run-time type checking of their arguments and signal errors when the number or types of arguments are incorrect (the notable exceptions are the trap interface functions and the low-level memory access primitives). Compiled functions normally check for stack overflow conditions and arrange to do periodic event processing. The overhead associated with maintaining this safe run-time environment is intended to be very low.

The vast majority of calls to built-in kernel functions—and all calls to user functions—are compiled out-of-line. The remaining set, which consists primarily of common, computationally inexpensive Lisp primitives such as `cons`, `eq`, and `cdr`, are implicitly declared to be `inline` and typically compile into calls to hand-coded subprimitives in the Lisp kernel. In addition, the accessor functions defined by `defstruct` are, by default, proclaimed to be `inline` and typically compile to code which does appropriate type and bounds checking with minimal function-call overhead. Appropriate `notinline` declarations can be used to override this behavior if, for example, you wish to trace calls to `defstruct` functions.

Lexical closure objects produced by the compiler are always full (upward) funargs.

Run-time processing of `&key` arguments never involves consing (unless, of course, an `&rest` argument is involved).

Error Messages

Error messages produced by the compiler are intended to be self-explanatory. Whenever possible they contain the name of the function being compiled. One source of confusion arises from the fact that many side-effect-free expressions with self-evaluating arguments are evaluated at compile-time. When this occurs, errors may be signalled by the evaluation of the expression, rather than by the compiler itself.

Example:

```
(defun silly (x y)
  (- x (+ y (+ 2 3 'z))))
```

The compiler recognizes that 2, 3, and 'z are all constants, and so it attempts to evaluate the expression (so that it can replace the expression with its result). Compiling `silly` will cause an error to be signalled by + at compile-time, because the symbol `z` is not numeric. It will not mention that the error occurred while compiling `silly`.

Constants

The compiler folds equal constant expressions. As a consequence, `defconstant` does not consider it to be an error to re-define a constant symbol as long as the new value is equal to the old. See p.78 of *Common Lisp: the language* for a discussion of the implications of constant folding.

Tail-recursion

By default, the compiler attempts to produce code which uses minimal stack space. To this end it is properly tail-recursive. Function calls which return the values returned by the called function are compiled in such a way as to re-use the calling function's stack frame. For example, if `foo` calls `bar` and `foo` returns the value returned by `bar`, `foo`'s stackframe will be re-used when `bar` is called. This means that the function call history displayed in a stack backtrace is not necessarily complete: the functions listed are only those which would be *returned to* if the computation resumed (i.e. only those functions awaiting return values). The compiler's license to collapse stack frames is governed by the compile-time value of the global variable `*nx-tailcalls*`; When non-nil (the default), stack space is conserved at the expense of debugging convenience.

Example:

```
(eval-when (compile eval)
  (setq *nx-tailcalls* t))

(defun foo (n)
  (if (= n 0)
      (break "Foo: n finally reached 0.")
      (foo (1- n))))
;; calls to BREAK are not compiled
;; tail-recursively; see below.

(foo 20)
```

When executed, this program will call itself 20 times and then enter a break loop. Examining the backtrace will show one instance (the most recent) of `foo` on the stack. If one sets `*nx-tailcalls*` to nil and then recompiles the definition of `foo`, the backtrace will show 20 additional instances of `foo` and the consumption of a few dozen additional bytes of stack space.

As a special case, the compiler never compiles calls to `error`, `cerror`, `warn`, or `break` tail-recursively. This means that the stack frame of the calling function is always available if a break loop is entered.

Compiler Declarations

special declarations are treated in accordance with the language specification.

ignore declarations are processed and used to generate/suppress compile warnings during file compilation.

f`type` and function declarations, and declarations of the form (TYPE <type> ...) are ignored by the current version of the compiler.

Declarations of the form (<type> ...) are processed and the results are used to facilitate code optimization in some cases (see below).

The primary interpretation given to `inline` and `notinline` declarations is to control the compiler's treatment of `defstruct` accessor functions and primitive operations. In addition, `inline` declarations which refer to a given function advise that, within the body of that function, self-referential calls can be made as simple branch or call instructions. In the absence of such `inline` declarations, self-referential function calls are compiled exactly like all other function calls. This default behavior is consistent with the semantics of Object Lisp, allows function tracing, and is "correct" in pathological cases in which a function redefines itself. However, it involves slightly higher overhead than the case in which an `inline` declaration is used.

`optimize` declarations are given the following treatment:

The quality `compilation-speed` is effectively ignored; setting it to 3 disables a fairly quick branch-shortening pass in the code generator and results in slightly larger, slightly slower object code.

The other recognized qualities—`safety`, `space`, and `speed`—are used to select various optimization strategies. Each of the global variables described below is bound to a predicate function which, given arguments representing the current values of the `safety`, `space`, and `speed` qualities, returns `t` if the indicated optimization is to be performed. The user is free to redefine these predicates according to their own requirements.

nx-trust-declarations [Variable]

Specifies whether variable type declarations and type specifier arguments to the `the` special form should be trusted. The default predicate returns `t` when `speed` is greater than `safety`.

nx-fixnums-remain-fixnums [Variable]

Specifies whether arithmetic operations involving only arguments known or declared as `fixnums` will not cause `fixnum` overflow or underflow. The default predicate returns `t` when `speed` is 3 and `safety` is 0 or 1.

nx-open-code-in-line [Variable]

Specifies whether certain arithmetic operations are to be performed as out-of-line subprimitive calls or as in-line instruction sequences. The in-line sequences are usually much larger and slightly faster. The default predicate returns `t` when `speed` is 2 or more units greater than `space`.

nx-inline-car-cdr

[Variable]

Specifies whether calls to `car` and `cdr` should perform run-time type checking on arguments whose type is unknown. Omission of this type-check can lead to system failure. The default predicate returns T when `speed` is 3 and `safety` is 0 or 1.

In addition, declaring `speed` 3 and `safety` 0 inhibits the usual safety checks which are performed on function entry. Functions may omit number-of-arguments checking and stack-overflow checking and may skip periodic event processing. Needless to say, this combination of optimization settings should only be used in small sections of well-debugged code where execution speed is of great importance.

When `safety` is declared to be 0, `defstruct` accessor functions not declared `notinline` are open-coded as memory access operations with no type-checking.

Lastly, declaring `space` to be more important than `safety` results in the suppression of the event-processing usually performed on backward branches. This results in iterative loops being somewhat smaller and faster but may make them uninterruptible.

The compiler also recognizes the declaration specifiers of the form

```
(object-variable var1 var2 ... varN)
```

The sole effect of `object-variable` declarations is to suppress compiler warnings about free references to any of the `vars` specified. The `objvar` macro wraps an `object-variable` declaration around its argument and is the preferred way of communicating `object-variable` declarations. Global `object-variable` declarations have the danger of suppressing free-variable warnings which should not be suppressed.

File Compiler

`compile-file` has been extended to accept the following additional keyword arguments:

- :verbose** When non-`nil`, causes a message to be printed as each file is compiled.
- :print** When non-`nil`, causes a digested version of each top-level form to be printed as it is compiled.
- :load** When non-`nil`, causes the result of a successful compilation to be loaded into the current environment.
- :features** should be a symbol or a list of symbols. These symbols are pushed onto the reader's `*features*` variable for the duration of the compilation.
- :warnings** When non-`nil` (the default), causes warnings about undeclared special variables and unused lexical variables to be printed after compilation.

Appendix B: System Parameters

- Overview
- Screen Information
- Window Configuration
- Allegro CL Menus
- Environment Parameters
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- Compiler
- Miscellaneous



Appendix B

System Parameters

Overview

Allegro CL provides a range of global variables which describe and affect the system configuration. These global variables are described in this chapter. The standard Common Lisp globals are not discussed here.

screen information

screen-width [Variable]

screen-height [Variable]

the number of pixels of width and height of the current screen. On a Macintosh Plus or Macintosh SE, width will be 512 and height will be 342. On a Macintosh II with multiple screens, the values will refer to the main screen.

pixels-per-inch-x [Variable]

pixels-per-inch-y [Variable]

the number of pixels per inch in the horizontal and vertical directions. On a Macintosh Plus or Macintosh SE, both numbers will be 72. On a Macintosh II with multiple screens, the values will refer to the main screen.

menubar-bottom [Variable]

the vertical coordinate of the first quickdraw point below the menubar. On most Macintoshes, this will be 38. The number is provided so that programs do not accidentally place windows behind the menubar.

Window configuration

fred-window-position [variable]

fred-window-size [variable]

listener-window-position [variable]

listener-window-size [variable]

These variables hold the default size and position for many of the windows that come up under Allegro CL. The values are given as points (see the chapter Macintosh Basics), and changed by the user.

fred-window-position and ***fred-window-size*** determine the size and position of newly created fred-windows.

When the listener is created, its size and position are determined by

listener-window-position and ***listener-window-size***. For these variables to have an effect, they must be set before the listener is created (i.e. from an initialization file, such as `init.lisp`).

top-listener [Variable]

bound to the top-most listener.

Allegro CL Menus

apple-menu [Variable]
file-menu [Variable]
edit-menu [Variable]
eval-menu [Variable]
tools-menu [Variable]

These variables are bound to the menus which appear when you first boot Allegro CL. The menus are normal menu-objects, and may be modified by Lisp code. Menu-items can be renamed, added, and deleted.

undo-menu-item [Variable]
 This variable is bound to the **Undo** menu-item. The title of this item is sometimes changed to reflect the specifics of an undo operation (for example, after a cut, it may say **Undo Cut** rather than simply **Undo**).

Environment Parameters

The following global variables control user-selectable environment options. These can be conveniently set in the init file, or at any other time. They are also accessible through the **Environment...** menu-item.

compile-definitions [Defaults t] [Variable]
 If t, all function definitions will be compiled, even if the defun was evaluated.

record-source-file [Defaults t] [Variable]
 If t, causes the compiler and evaluator to associate a definition with the name of the file containing the definition. Used for the Warn on Redefine and Edit Definition mechanisms.

save-doc-strings [Defaults nil] [Variable]
 If non-nil, documentation strings are retained; if nil they are thrown away (which saves space).

save-definitions [Default t] [Variable]
 If non-nil, the definitions of compiled functions will be saved. These definitions can then be used by the stepper. If nil, the definitions are not saved (and therefore do not take up room).

load-verbose [Defaults nil] [Variable]
 If non-nil, whenever a file is loaded, the name of the file is printed to the listener.

verbose-eval-selection [Defaults nil] [Variable]
 This variable is used when a selection from a Fred window is evaluated. If it is t, the result of each evaluated expression is printed in the listener. Otherwise only the result of the last evaluated expression is printed.

warn-if-redefine [Default t] [Variable]
 When lisp source files are loaded, the name of the source file is put on the property list of the names of defun and defmacro calls. If you load a source file that contains a definition for a name previously defined in a different file, and *warn-if-redefine?* is non-nil, then a warning message will be printed in the Listener.

break-on-warnings [Default `nil`] [Variable]

If non-`nil`, warnings will cause the Allegro CL system to enter a break loop, and a stack backtrace will be shown. Note that Allegro CL is properly tail-recursive, so some functions may not be visible in the stack-backtrace.

break-on-errors [Default `t`] [Variable]

If non-`nil`, errors will cause the Allegro CL system to enter a break loop.

backtrace-on-break [Default `nil`] [Variable]

If non-`nil`, entering a break loop through an error will cause the backtrace dialog to be displayed. At any point in a break when the backtrace is not shown, it may be brought up by selecting the **Backtrace** menu-item from the **Tools** menu.

fast-eval [Default `nil`] [Variable]

If non-`nil`, Allegro CL will evaluate expressions by first compiling them, and then running the compiled result. This can be faster for complex expressions, but `*apply-hook*` and `*eval-hook*` will not function.

emacs-mode [Default `nil`] [Variable]

If non-`nil`, the clover key is used for control, and clover-shift is used for command. If `nil` the clover key is used for command, and clover-shift is used for control. See the chapter Getting Started for details.

Modules

See appendix Common Lisp Implementation for details on the use of the following variables.

module-file-alist [Default `()`] [Variable]

an alist. The `car` of each element should be the name of a module. The `cdr` of each element should be a pathname or list of pathnames making up the module. This variable is used by `require`.

module-search-path [Default `("Library")`] [Variable]

a list of pathnames. These pathnames are used by `require` to locate modules.

Compiler

nx-tailcalls [Default `t`] [Variable]

when non-`nil`, the compiler will re-use stack-frames on tail-recursive function calls. This conserves stack space but is a little bit slower and can make debugging more confusing (because function calls disappear from the stack-backtrace). See the appendix Implementation Notes for details.

nx-trust-declarations	[Variable]
nx-fixnums-remain-fixnums	[Variable]
nx-open-code-in-line	[Variable]
nx-inline-car-cdr	[Variable]

these variables contain predicate functions used in conjunction with speed, safety, and space declarations. The predicates determine whether certain compiler transforms and optimizations and transforms take place. They are described in more detail in the appendix Implementation Notes.

Miscellaneous

d	[Variable]
------------	------------

During debugging with the backtrace dialog, ***d*** is bound to the currently selected value from the currently selected frame. This variable may be used in expressions during debugging sessions, much as *****, ******, and ******* are used during normal Lisp interactions.

next-screen-context-lines [Default 2]	[Variable]
--	------------

should always be a fixnum. This is the number of lines that are retained from screen to screen when the user scrolls through editor buffers using the **control-v** and **meta-v** commands.

killed-strings	[Variable]
-------------------------	------------

a list of the killed strings. This variable is used by Fred the editor.

white-pattern	[Variable]
black-pattern	[Variable]
gray-pattern	[Variable]
light-gray-pattern	[Variable]
dark-gray-pattern	[Variable]

These variables hold patterns which may be used in conjunction with Quickdraw calls.

font-list	[Variable]
--------------------	------------

a list of all the font-names (as strings) available for use by Allegro CL.

Appendix C: Quickdraw Graphics

- Overview
- Windows, Grafports, and Portrects
- Points and Rectangles
- General Window State
- Cursor Primitives
- Pen and Line-drawing Routines
- Drawing Text
- Calculations with Rectangles
- Graphics Operations on Rectangles
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Appendix C

Quickdraw Graphics

Overview

This chapter outlines a set of interface functions between Allegro CL and Quickdraw, the Macintosh graphics package. The code which implements these functions is included as an example file. Before calling any of the functions described in this chapter, the user must load the Quickdraw file, which can be found in the Library directory. Some familiarity with the Quickdraw chapter of *Inside Macintosh* is assumed.

The interface routines support all of the functionality found in Quickdraw for Macintoshes with 64K ROMS. For newer Quickdraw features, traps may be called directly, as outlined in the chapter Low Level System Interface.

Some Quickdraw functions may only be performed within window objects (i.e. by asking the window to do them). These are the functions that depend on a grafport and are labeled as *window functions* in brackets along the right column. All other functions may be performed globally.

The arguments to the Allegro CL Quickdraw functions generally parallel the arguments to the Pascal Quickdraw function given in *Inside Macintosh*. In several cases we have extended the Pascal functionality by taking advantage of Common Lisp's optional arguments. In some cases we have changed the order of arguments to make the mapping of the optional arguments more effective. In some cases *var* arguments have been eliminated, and instead a value is returned.

Windows, Grafports, and Portrects

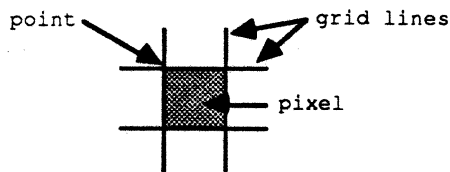
All drawing on the Macintosh takes place inside grafports. Grafports are usually associated with windows. In low level Macintosh drawing, there are several levels of initialization in setting up windows and grafports for drawings. Once they have been created, you must keep track of the current grafport when you do any drawing. This process is simplified for the graphics routines given in this chapter. When you create a window, an initialized grafport is automatically created. Drawing commands are defined as object functions for windows; when you ask a window to perform one of the commands, grafports are set and restored as needed.

Drawing inside windows is automatically cropped to the inside of the window, and to the portions of the window that are visible (i.e. not covered up by other windows). Drawing is also affected by the clip-region (described below), and the portrect. The portrect is an arbitrary rectangle designating the outermost bounds in which drawing can occur. It supplies a frame of reference for the window. The default portrect is infinitely large; it can be set with low-level calls (though you usually won't need to worry about the portrect at all).

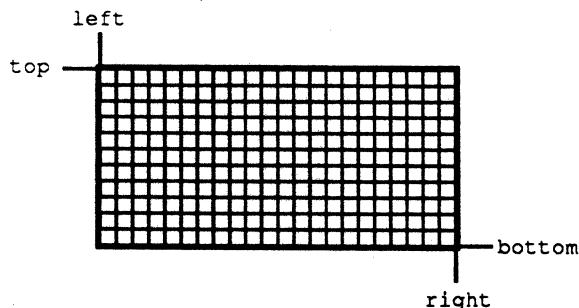
Points and Rectangles

In Quickdraw points are specified by two coordinates, the horizontal coordinate (called *h*) and the vertical coordinate (called *v*). *h* increases to the right and *v* increases down. The upper left hand corner of a window is usually the point 0,0 but it may have any coordinates. This may be changed by using the `set-region` function.

Points are stored in encoded fixnums. A general description of the Allegro CL point data format can be found in the chapter Macintosh Basics. Points lie at the intersection of two grid lines on the QuickDraw plane. Note: points and pixels are not equivalent. The point associated with a given pixel is at the upper-left corner of the pixel.



The Macintosh stores rectangles as eight-byte records. (Records are blocks of non-Lisp data stored on the Macintosh heap; see the chapter Pascal Records for details.) Rectangle records can be thought of as two points (top-left and bottom-right), or four edges (left, top, right, and bottom). Allocating memory for rectangle records can be inefficient, so Allegro CL provides several ways of doing this. `make-record` is used to allocate memory for long-lived rectangles, and `rlet` is used to allocate records for short-lived rectangles (see the chapter Pascal Records for details). For many of the Allegro CL Quickdraw functions that take rectangles, rectangle records do not need to be allocated at all; the rectangles can be specified by four coordinates, two points, or a rectangle record. In general, if a rectangle is used only once, it is all right to pass it as two points or four coordinates. However, if the rectangle is used several times, it is more efficient to create and pass an actual rectangle record.



In cases where alternate forms of a point or a rectangle are accepted as arguments, the flexible argument appears last. This is to avoid ambiguity as to which argument is which, and explains why the order of arguments is sometimes different from the order given in *Inside Macintosh*.

General Window State

origin

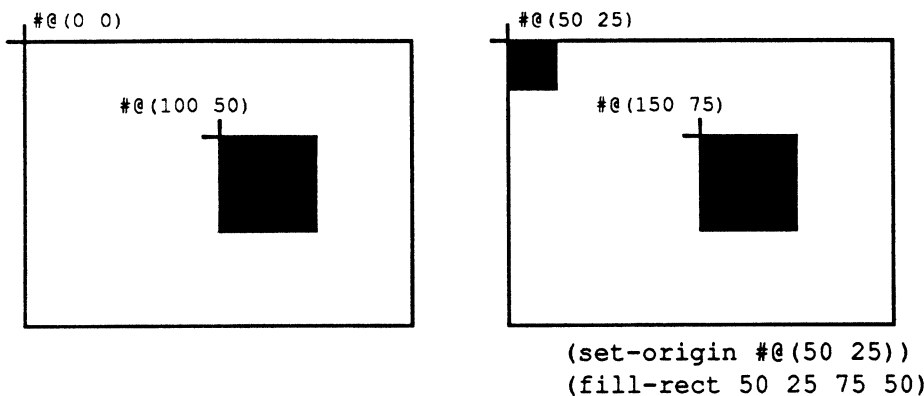
[Window Function]

set-origin *h* &optional (*v* nil)

[Window Function]

origin returns the coordinates of the top-left point in the window's content region. This is usually `#@ (0 0)`, but may be different if it is set by user-written code.

set-origin sets the origin to the point specified by *h* and *v*. If only *h* is given, it is taken to be an encoded point. The contents of the window are not moved; only future drawing is effected.



clip-region &optional *save-region*

[Window Function]

set-clip-region *new-region*

[Window Function]

A clip-region allows drawing in a window to be constrained to an arbitrary region. Drawing will only occur within the clip-region. The default clip-region is arbitrarily large, so no clipping takes place.

clip-region returns the window's current clip-region. If *save-region* is supplied, it is used to hold the returned region, otherwise the clip-region is returned in a newly allocated region. Note: regions must be explicitly disposed of; they are not automatically garbage collected.

set-clip-region sets the window's clip-region to *new-region*. *new-region* is returned. See the section on Regions, below, for functions which allocate and manipulate regions.

clip-rect *rectangle*

[Window Function]

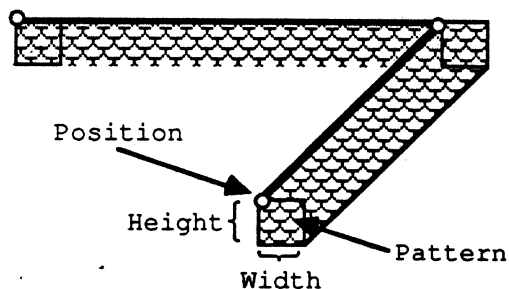
clip-rect *top-left-point* *bottom-right-point*

clip-rect *left* *top* *right* *bottom*

sets the window's clip region to be a rectangular region equivalent to *rectangle*. nil is returned.

Pen and Line-drawing Routines

Every window has its own pen. The state of the pen determines how drawing occurs in the window. For example, if the pen is hidden, no drawing commands will actually have an effect on the screen. In addition to being hidden or shown, a pen has a size, position in the window, and pattern used for drawing.



Pen attributes

pen-show

[Window Function]

pen-hide

[Window Function]

pen-shown-p

[Window Function]

pen-show shows the pen.

pen-hide hides the pen. If the pen is hidden, no drawing will occur.

pen-shown-p returns `t` if the pen is shown, `nil` if the pen is hidden.

pen-position

[Window Function]

returns a point corresponding to the pen position in local coordinates.

pen-size

[Window Function]

set-pen-size *point*

pen-size returns the current pen-size as a point (expressing a width and height).

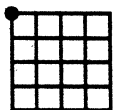
set-pen-size sets the pen-size to *point*.

QuickDraw PenSizes:

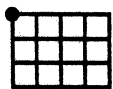
- - indicates pen location of the pen



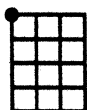
#@ (1 1)



#@ (4 4)



@# (4 3)



#@ (3 4)



#@ (3 3)

pen-mode

[Window Function]

set-pen-mode *new-mode*

[Window Function]

pen-modes effect the way drawing occurs in the window. They provide a logical mapping between the current state of pixels in the window, and the state of the pixels being drawn.

pen-mode returns a keyword indicating the window's current pen-mode.

set-pen-mode sets the window's current pen-mode. *new-mode* should be one of the following keywords: :patCopy, :patOr, :patXor, :patBic, :notPatCopy, :notPatOr, :notPatXor, :notPatBic.

source	destination	transfer mode	result
		:patCopy	
		:patOr	
		:patXor	
		:patBic	
		:notPatCopy	
		:notPatOr	
		:notPatXor	
		:notPatBic	

pen-pattern &optional *save-pattern*

[Window Function]

set-pen-pattern *new-pattern*

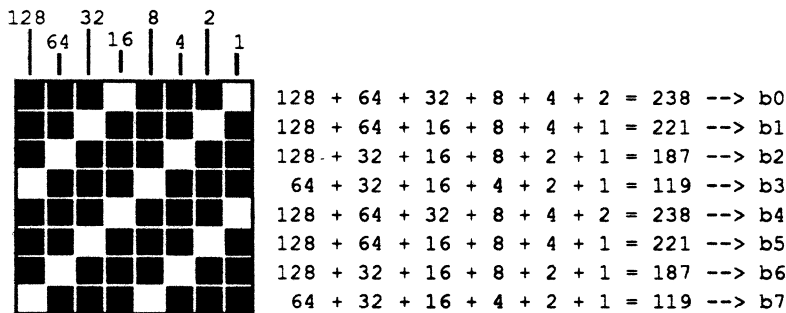
[Window Function]

pen-pattern returns the window's pen pattern. If *save-pattern* is given, it should be a pattern record; the pattern will be returned in this record. If *save-pattern* is not given, a new pattern record will be allocated for holding the returned pattern. Pattern records (like all records) will continue to take up space on the Macintosh heap until they are explicitly disposed of.

set-pen-pattern sets the window's pen-pattern. *new-pattern* should be a pattern record.

A pattern is stored as a 64-bit block of memory. The definition of a pattern record allows patterns to be accessed as 8 bytes or 4 words.

```
(defrecord pattern
  (variant ( (b0 byte) (b1 byte) (b2 byte) (b3 byte)
             (b4 byte) (b5 byte) (b6 byte) (b7 byte))
    ( (w0 integer) (w1 integer)
      (w2 integer) (w3 integer))))
```



There are five patterns stored as constants by Allegro CL: **white-pattern**, **black-pattern**, **gray-pattern**, **light-gray-pattern**, and **dark-gray-pattern**.

pen-state &optional *save-pen-state*

[Window Function]

set-pen-state *new-pen-state*

[Window Function]

pen-state returns the current pen-state, a record containing the pen's location, size, mode (as an integer), and pattern. If *save-pen-state* is given, it should be a pointer to a pen-state record; the returned state will be stored in this record. If *save-pen-state* is not given, the pen-state will be returned in a newly allocated record. Pen-state records (like all records) will continue to take up space on the Macintosh heap until they are explicitly disposed of.

set-pen-state sets the window's pen-state. *new-pen-state* should be a pen-state record.

Pen-state records represent the pen-mode as an integer. This integer will equal the position of the corresponding pen-mode keyword in the list **pen-modes**. To translate an integer into a keyword, make the call `(elt *pen-state* mode-integer)`. To translate a keyword into an integer, make the call `(position mode-keyword *pen-state*)`.

The definition of a penstate record is:

```
(defrecord PenState
  (pnLoc point)
  (pnSize point)
  (pnMode integer)
  (pnPat pattern))
```

pen-normal [Window Function]
sets the pen's size, pattern, and mode to normal. The pen-size is set to `#(1 1)`, pen-mode to `:patCopy`, and pen-pattern to `*black-pattern*`. The pen location is not changed.

move-to *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Window Function]
moves the pen to the point specified by *h* and *v*. If *v* is nil, *h* is interpreted as an encoded point. No drawing occurs. The point moved to is returned.

move *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Window Function]
moves the pen *h* points to the right and *v* points down. If *v* is nil, *h* is interpreted as an encoded point and its two coordinates are used. No drawing occurs. The encoded form of *h* and *v* is returned.

line-to *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Window Function]
draws a line from the pen's current position to *h* and *v*. If *v* is nil, *h* is interpreted as an encoded point.

line *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Window Function]
draws a line to a point *h* points to the right and *v* points down from the current pen position. If only *h* is given, it is interpreted as a point, and its two coordinates are used.

Drawing Text

Text is drawn in windows by using a window as an output stream. Text is drawn starting at the current pen position using the window's current font, size, style and mode. The initial pen position determines the placement of the lower left corner of the first character drawn, and the pen is moved to the right the width of each character after it is drawn. Special characters such as return (i.e. from `terpri` and `fresh-line`) and backspace have no effect. Note that when a window is created, its pen-position is `#(0 0)`. This means that any text drawn into it will be above the visible portion of the window until the pen-position is lowered.

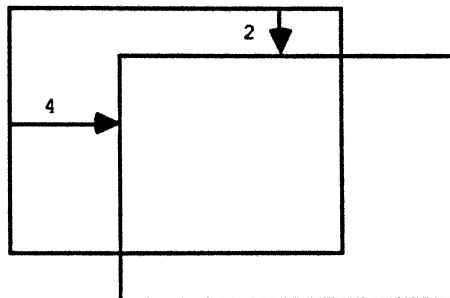
stream-tyo *char* [Window Function]
This function draws *char* at the current pen position, in the current font using the current text transfer mode, and moves the pen to the right the width of the character. Since windows are streams, all stream output functions (such as `prin1`) can be performed to them. `stream-tyo` is not normally called directly but is called by stream output functions.

Calculations with Rectangles

These functions do not draw, they simply perform calculations. They do not depend on a grafport, and so they are defined globally, rather than as object functions.

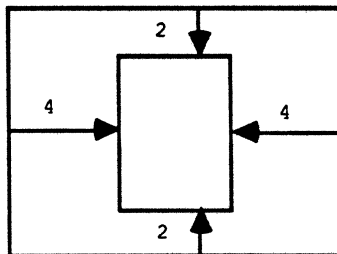
offset-rect *rectangle h* &optional (*v nil*) [Function]
 moves *rectangle h* to the right and *v* down. If only *h* is given, it is interpreted as an encoded point. *rectangle* is destructively modified and returned.

```
(offset-rect rect 4 2)
```

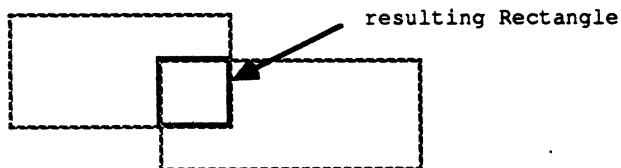


inset-rect *rectangle h* &optional (*v nil*) [Function]
 insets *rectangle* by *h* and *v*. If only *h* is supplied it is interpreted as an encoded point. *rectangle* is destructively modified and returned.

```
(inset-rect rect 4 2)
```



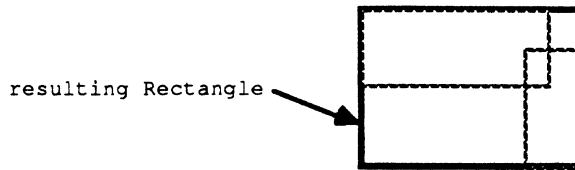
intersect-rect *rect1 rect2 dest-rect* [Function]
 stores the rectangle that is the intersection of *rect1* and *rect2* into *dest-rect* and returns *dest-rect*. *rect1* or *rect2* may be used as *dest-rect*.



union-rect *rect1 rect2 dest-rect*

[Function]

stores the smallest rectangle that encloses both *rect1* and *rect2* into *dest-rect* and returns *dest-rect*. *rect1* or *rect2* may also be used as *dest-rect*.



point-in-rect-p *rectangle h &optional (v nil)*

[Function]

returns *t* if the point specified by *h* and *v* is inside of *rectangle*, otherwise *nil*. If only *h* is given, it is interpreted as a point and its coordinates are used.

points-to-rect *point1 point2 dest-rect*

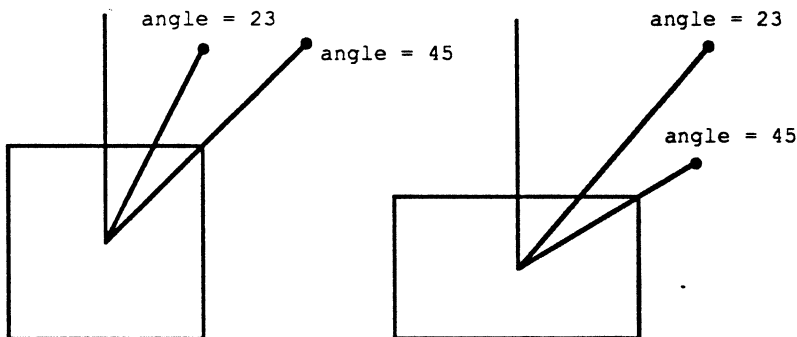
[Function]

stores the smallest rectangle that encloses both *point1* and *point2* into *dest-rect* and returns *dest-rect*. *point1* and *point2* will be the top-left and bottom-right corners of the returned rectangle.

point-to-angle *rectangle h &optional (v nil)*

[Function]

returns an "angle number" calculated from *rectangle* and the point specified by *h* and *v* (see *Inside Macintosh* for details). If only *h* is given, it is interpreted as an encoded point.



equal-rect *rect1 rect2*

[Function]

returns *t* if *rect1* and *rect2* are equal, *nil* otherwise.

empty-rect-p *rectangle*

[Function]

empty-rect-p *top-left-point bottom-right-point*

empty-rect-p *left top right bottom*

returns *t* if *rectangle* is empty (contains no points), *nil* otherwise. A rectangle is empty if its bottom is equal to or above its top, or if its left side is equal to or to the right of its right side.

Graphics Operations on Rectangles

frame-rect *rectangle*

[Window Function]

frame-rect *top-left-point bottom-right-point*

frame-rect *left top right bottom*

draws a line just inside the boundaries of *rectangle* using the current pen.



paint-rect *rectangle*

[Window Function]

paint-rect *top-left-point bottom-right-point*

paint-rect *left top right bottom*

fills *rectangle* with the current pen pattern and mode.

erase-rect *rectangle*

[Window Function]

erase-rect *top-left-point bottom-right-point*

erase-rect *left top right bottom*

fills *rectangle* with the current background pattern using patCopy mode.

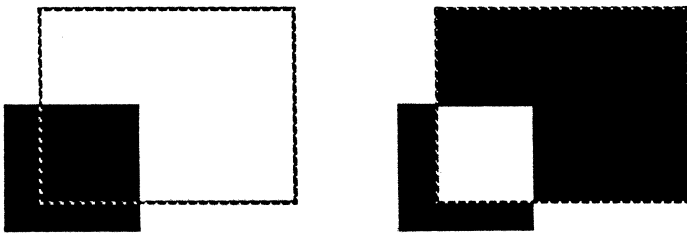
invert-rect *rectangle*

[Window Function]

invert-rect *top-left-point bottom-right-point*

invert-rect *left top right bottom*

inverts the pixels inside of *rectangle*.



fill-rect *pattern rectangle*

[Window Function]

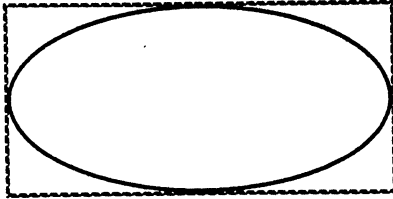
fill-rect *pattern top-left-point bottom-right-point*

fill-rect *pattern left top right bottom*

fills *rectangle* with *pattern* using patCopy mode.

Graphics Operations on Ovals

Ovals are drawn inside of rectangles.



frame-oval *rectangle*

[Window Function]

frame-oval *top-left-point bottom-right-point*

frame-oval *left top right bottom*

draws a line just inside the boundaries of the oval specified by *rectangle* using the current pen.

paint-oval *rectangle*

[Window Function]

paint-oval *top-left-point bottom-right-point*

paint-oval *left top right bottom*

fills the oval specified by *rectangle* with the current pen pattern and mode.

erase-oval *rectangle*

[Window Function]

erase-oval *top-left-point bottom-right-point*

erase-oval *left top right bottom*

fills the oval specified by *rectangle* with the current background pattern using patCopy mode.

invert-oval *rectangle*

[Window Function]

invert-oval *top-left-point bottom-right-point*

invert-oval *left top right bottom*

inverts the pixels enclosed by the oval specified by *rectangle*.

fill-oval *pattern rectangle*

[Window Function]

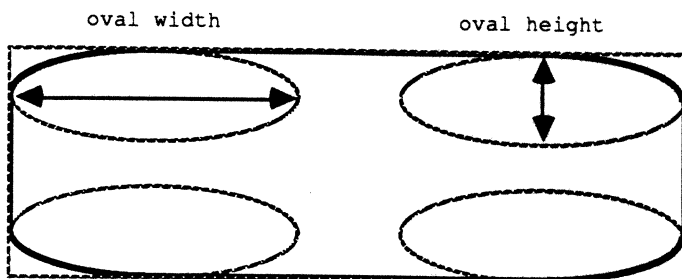
fill-oval *pattern top-left-point bottom-right-point*

fill-oval *pattern left top right bottom*

fills the oval specified by *rectangle* with *pattern* using patCopy mode.

Graphics Operations on RoundRects

A roundrect is a rectangle whose corners are rounded. The shapes of the corners are determined by ovals associated with the roundrects.



frame-round-rect *oval-width oval-height rectangle* [Window Function]
frame-round-rect *oval-width oval-height top-left-point bottom-right-point*
frame-round-rect *oval-width oval-height left top right bottom*
 draws a line just inside the boundaries of the roundrect specified by *rectangle*, *oval-width* and *oval-height* using the current pen.

paint-round-rect *oval-width oval-height rectangle* [Window Function]
paint-round-rect *oval-width oval-height top-left-point bottom-right-point*
paint-round-rect *oval-width oval-height left top right bottom*
 fills the roundrect specified by *rectangle*, *oval-width* and *oval-height* with the current pen pattern and mode.

erase-round-rect *oval-width oval-height rectangle* [Window Function]
erase-round-rect *oval-width oval-height top-left-point bottom-right-point*
erase-round-rect *oval-width oval-height left top right bottom*
 fills the roundrect specified by *rectangle*, *oval-width* and *oval-height* with the current background pattern using patCopy mode.

invert-round-rect *oval-width oval-height rectangle* [Window Function]
invert-round-rect *oval-width oval-height top-left-point bottom-right-point*
invert-round-rect *oval-width oval-height left top right bottom*
 inverts the pixels enclosed by the roundrect specified by *rectangle*, *oval-width* and *oval-height*.

fill-round-rect *pattern oval-width oval-height rectangle* [Window Function]
fill-round-rect *pattern oval-width oval-height top-left-point bottom-right-point*
fill-round-rect *pattern oval-width oval-height left top right bottom*
 fills the roundrect specified by *rectangle*, *oval-width* and *oval-height* with *pattern* using patCopy mode.

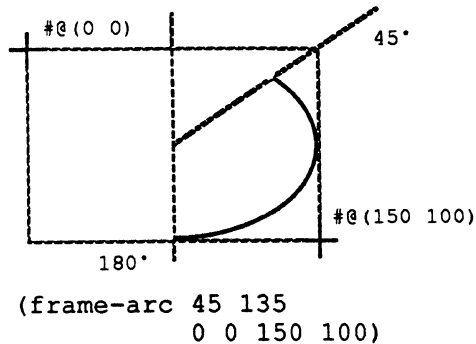
Graphics Operations on Arcs

frame-arc *start-angle arc-angle rectangle*

[Window Function]

frame-arc *start-angle arc-angle top-left-point bottom-right-point*

frame-arc *start-angle arc-angle left top right bottom*



draws a line just inside the arc specified by *rectangle*, *start-angle* and *arc-angle* using the current pen.

paint-arc *start-angle arc-angle rectangle*

[Window Function]

paint-arc *start-angle arc-angle top-left-point bottom-right-point*

paint-arc *start-angle arc-angle left top right bottom*

fills the arc specified by *rectangle*, *start-angle* and *arc-angle* with the current pen pattern and mode.

erase-arc *start-angle arc-angle rectangle*

[Window Function]

erase-arc *start-angle arc-angle top-left-point bottom-right-point*

erase-arc *start-angle arc-angle left top right bottom*

fills the arc specified by *rectangle*, *start-angle* and *arc-angle* with the current background pattern using patCopy mode.

invert-arc *start-angle arc-angle rectangle*

[Window Function]

invert-arc *start-angle arc-angle top-left-point bottom-right-point*

invert-arc *start-angle arc-angle left top right bottom*

inverts the pixels enclosed by the arc specified by *rectangle*, *start-angle* and *arc-angle*.

fill-arc *pattern start-angle arc-angle rectangle*

[Window Function]

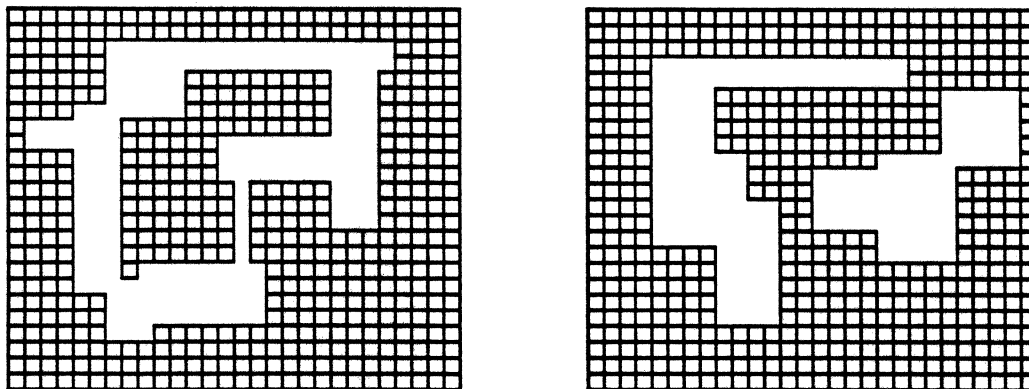
fill-arc *pattern start-angle arc-angle top-left-point bottom-right-point*

fill-arc *pattern start-angle arc-angle left top right bottom*

fills the arc specified by *rectangle*, *start-angle* and *arc-angle* with *pattern* using patCopy mode.

Regions

A region divides the graphics plane of points into two sets of points: those inside the region and those outside the region. Regions can be any arbitrary shape.



The storage for regions is not automatically garbage-collected; region storage must be manually reclaimed with the function `dispose-region`. Within this limitation, the use of regions has been greatly simplified from the specification given in *Inside Macintosh*. Specifically, much of the initialization of regions is performed automatically.

new-region

allocates a new empty region and returns it.

[Window Function]

dispose-region *region*

reclaims storage space used by *region* and returns nil.

[Window Function]

copy-region *region* &optional *dest-region*

if *dest-region* is supplied, changes it to be equivalent to *region* and returns it. If *dest-region* is not supplied, creates a new region equivalent to *region* and returns it. Note that if a new region is created, it must be explicitly disposed of to reclaim its storage space.

[Window Function]

set-empty-region *region*

destructively modifies *region* to be an empty region and returns it.

[Window Function]

set-rect-region *region* *rectangle*

set-rect-region *region* *top-left-point* *bottom-right-point*

set-rect-region *region* *left* *top* *right* *bottom*

sets *region* to be a rectangular region equivalent to *rectangle* and returns it.

[Window Function]

open-region

hides the pen and begins recording a region. Subsequent drawing commands to the window will add to the region. The recording will be terminated when `close-region` is called. It is an error to call `open-region` a second time without first calling `close-region`. Returns nil.

[Window Function]

close-region &optional *dest-region* [Window Function]
 shows the pen and returns a region that is the accumulation of drawing commands in the window since the last open-region for the window. If *dest-region* is specified, it will hold the returned value. Otherwise a new region will be created. It is an error to do a close-region before an open-region has been done. Note that if a new region is created, it must be explicitly disposed of to reclaim its storage space.

Calculations with Regions

offset-region *region h* &optional (*v nil*) [Function]
 destructively offsets *region* by *h* to the right and *v* down and returns it. If only *h* is given, it is interpreted as an encoded point and its coordinates are used.

inset-region *region h* &optional (*v nil*) [Function]
 destructively insets *region* by *h* horizontally and *v* vertically and returns it. If only *h* is given, it is interpreted as an encoded point and its coordinates are used.

intersect-region *region1 region2* &optional *dest-region* [Function]
 returns a region that is the intersection of *region1* and *region2*. The result is returned in *dest-region* if supplied, or else in a newly created region. Note that if a new region is created, it must be explicitly disposed of to reclaim its storage space.

union-region *region1 region2* &optional *dest-region* [Function]
 returns a region that is the union of *region1* and *region2*. The result is returned in *dest-region* if supplied, or else in a newly created region. Note that if a new region is created, it must be explicitly disposed of to reclaim its storage space.

difference-region *region1 region2* &optional *dest-region* [Function]
 returns a region that is the difference of *region1* and *region2*. The result is returned in *dest-region* if supplied, or else in a newly created region. Note that if a new region is created, it must be explicitly disposed of to reclaim its storage space.

xor-region *region1 region2* &optional *dest-region* [Function]
 returns a region that consists of all the points that are in *region1* or *region2* but not both. The result is returned in *dest-region* if given, or else in a newly created region. Note that if a new region is created, it must be explicitly disposed of to reclaim its storage space.

point-in-region-p *region h* &optional (*v nil*) [Function]
 returns *t* if the point specified by *h* and *v* is contained in *region*, otherwise *nil*. If only *h* is given, it is interpreted as an encoded point.

rect-in-region-p *region rectangle* [Function]
rect-in-region-p *region top-left-point bottom-right-point*
rect-in-region-p *region left top right bottom*
 returns *t* if the intersection of *rectangle* and *region* contains at least one point, otherwise *nil*

equal-region-p *region1 region2* [Function]
 returns *t* if *region1* and *region2* are identical in size, shape and position, *nil* otherwise.

empty-region-p *region*

[Function]

returns *t* if *region* contains no points, *nil* otherwise.**Graphics Operations on Regions****frame-region** *region*

[Window Function]

draws a line just inside the boundaries of *region* using the current pen.**paint-region** *region*

[Window Function]

fills *region* with the current pen pattern and mode.**erase-region** *region*

[Window Function]

fills *region* with the current background pattern using *patCopy* mode.**invert-region** *region*

[Window Function]

inverts the pixels enclosed by *region*.**fill-region** *pattern region*

[Window Function]

fills *region* with *pattern* using *patCopy* mode.**Bitmaps**

Bitmaps are rectangular arrays of pixels which are either black or white.

make-bitmap *rectangle*

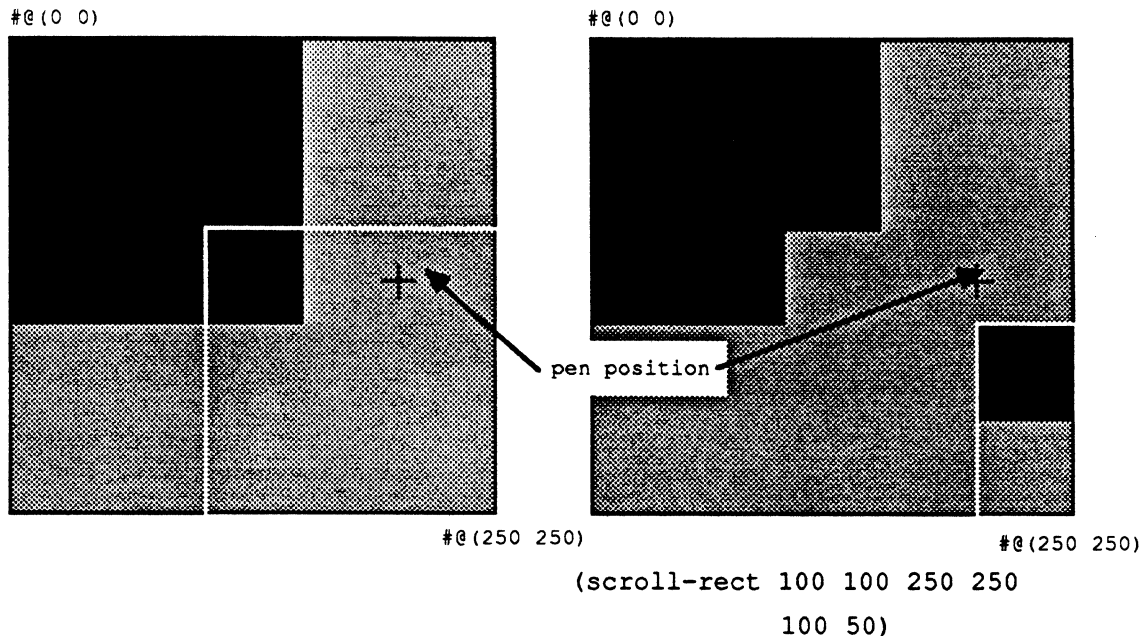
[Function]

make-bitmap *top-left-point bottom-right-point***make-bitmap** *left top right bottom*returns a new bitmap the size of *rectangle*. This bitmap is not displayed anywhere, but can be used for calculations and storage.**copy-bits** *bitmap1 bitmap2 rect1 rect2 &optional pen-mode region*

[Function]

copies and scales the bits inside *rect1* of *bitmap1* to the bits inside *rect2* of *bitmap2* using the the transfer mode *pen-mode*. If *region* is given, the transferred bitmap is clipped to *region*. and *pen-mode* defaults to *:srcCopy*.

scroll-rect *rectangle h* &optional (*v nil*) [Window Function]
 shifts the bits inside *rectangle h* pixels to the right and *v* pixels down within rectangle, erases the uncovered region and adds it to the window's update region. If only *h* is given, it is interpreted as an encoded point and its coordinates are used.



Pictures

A picture is a recording of a sequence of QuickDraw commands which may be played back at a later time, into the same window or into a different window. The Allegro CL picture commands are slightly different from the QuickDraw ones, since Allegro CL takes care of some of the memory management automatically. There are also some additional capabilities for manipulating pictures not found in QuickDraw.

start-picture &optional *rectangle* [Window Function]
start-picture &optional *top-left-point bottom-right-point*
start-picture &optional *left top right bottom*
 hides the pen and starts recording Quickdraw commands in a picture with frame *rectangle*, if supplied, otherwise with the window's portrect as a frame. You must terminate a start-picture with a get-picture before another start-picture can be done. Returns nil.

get-picture [Window Function]
 shows the pen and returns a new picture that consists of all the Quickdraw commands since the last start-picture. It is an error to do a get-picture before a start-picture has been done for a window. Note that pictures must be explicitly disposed of using kill-picture to reclaim their storage space.

draw-picture *picture* &optional *rectangle-or-point* [Window Function]
 draws *picture* in the window. If *rectangle-or-point* is not given, the picture is drawn in its original size and position. If *rectangle-or-point* is a point, *picture* is drawn in its original size, but

with its upper left corner at the local coordinate given by *rectangle-or-point*. If *rectangle-or-point* is a rectangle, *picture* is drawn scaled into the rectangle. Note that if the portrect was used as a frame when the picture was made, and if the portrect was arbitrarily large (the default set up by Allegro CL), then scaling will produce no drawing (since the drawing frame is so much smaller than the creation frame). *draw-picture* returns *picture*.

kill-picture *picture*

[Window Function]

reclaims the storage space used by *picture* and returns nil.

Polygons

The Allegro CL polygon commands are different from the QuickDraw ones, since Allegro CL handles some of the memory management automatically.

start-polygon

[Window Function]

hides the pen and starts making a polygon. Subsequent *line* and *line-to* commands are added to a new polygon. Within a single window, you must terminate a *start-polygon* with a *get-polygon* before another *start-polygon* can be done.

get-polygon

[Window Function]

shows the pen and returns a polygon that consists of all the *line* and *line-to* commands since the last *start-polygon*. It is an error to do a *get-polygon* before a *start-polygon* has been done for a window. Note that polygons must be explicitly disposed of using *kill-polygon* to reclaim their storage space.

kill-polygon *polygon*

[Window Function]

reclaims storage space used by *polygon* and returns nil.

offset-polygon *polygon* *h* &optional (*v* nil)

[Function]

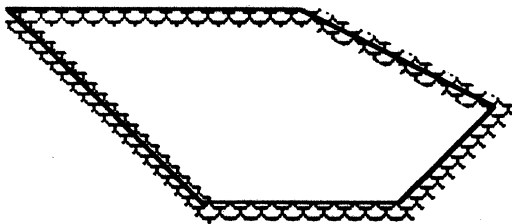
offsets *polygon* by *h* to the right and *v* down. This function can be performed outside of windows because it does not involve drawing. If only *h* is given, it is interpreted as an encoded point.

Graphics Operations on polygons

frame-polygon *polygon*

[Window Function]

draws a line just inside the boundaries of *polygon* using the current pen.



paint-polygon *polygon*

[Window Function]

fills *polygon* with the current pen pattern and mode.

erase-polygon *polygon*

[Window Function]

fills *polygon* with the current background pattern using patCopy mode.

invert-polygon *polygon*
 inverts the pixels enclosed by *polygon*.

[Window Function]

fill-polygon *pattern polygon*
 Fills *polygon* with *pattern* using patCopy mode.

[Window Function]

Miscellaneous Procedures

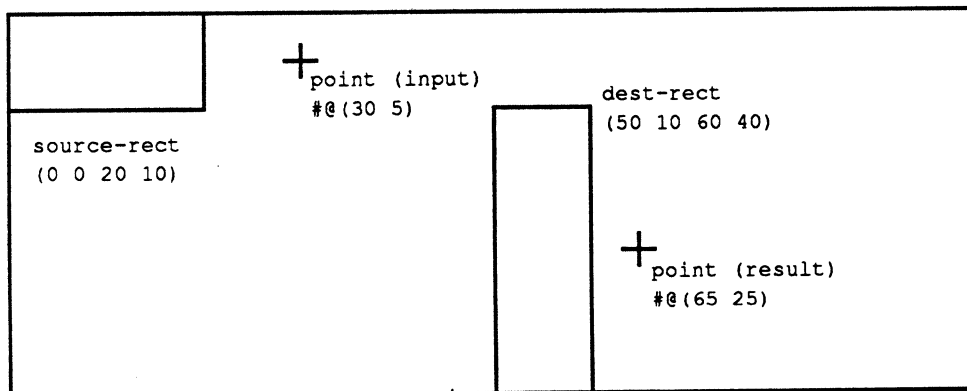
local-to-global *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Window Function]
 returns a global point that corresponds to the window's local point specified by *h* and *v*. If only *h* is given, it is taken to be an encoded point.

global-to-local *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Window Function]
 returns a point in the window's coordinate system that corresponds to the global point specified by *h* and *v*. If only *h* is given, it is interpreted as an encoded point.

get-pixel *h* &optional (*v* nil) [Window Function]
 returns *t* if the pixel specified by *h* and *v* is black and within the window's VisRgn, nil otherwise. If only *h* is given, it is interpreted as an encoded point.

scale-point *rect1 rect2 h* &optional (*v* nil) [Function]
 returns a points whose *h* and *v* values are the scaled *h* and *v* values of the point specified by *h* and *v*. If only *h* is give, it is interpreted as an encoded point. The scaling corresponds to the ratios of *rect1*'s width and height to *rect2*'s width and height.

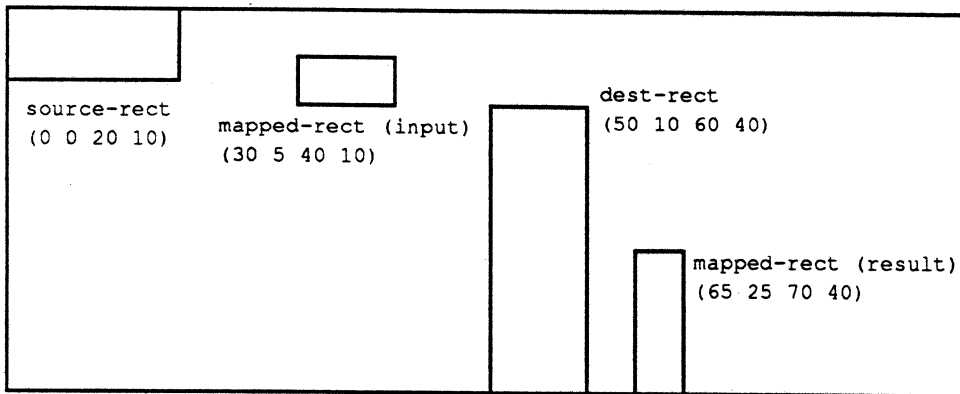
map-point *source-rect dest-rect h* &optional (*v* nil) [Function]
 returns a point that corresponds to *dest-rect* in the way that the point specified by *h* and *v* corresponds to *source-rect*. If only *h* is give, it is interpreted as an encoded point.



map-rect *source-rect dest-rect mapped-rect*

[Function]

returns a rectangle that corresponds to *dest-rect* in the same way that *mapped-rect* corresponds to *source-rect*. *mapped-rect* is destructively modified to hold the return value. This function is performed by calling map-point on the corner points of mapped-rect.



map-region *source-rect dest-rect region*

[Function]

returns a region that corresponds to *dest-rect* in the same way that *region* corresponds to *source-rect*. *region* is destructively modified to hold the return value. This function is effectively performed by calling map-point on all the points in the region.

map-polygon *source-rect dest-rect polygon*

[Function]

returns a polygon that corresponds to *dest-rect* in the same way that *polygon* corresponds to *source-rect*. *polygon* is destructively modified to hold the return value. This function is effectively performed by calling map-point on all the points which define the polygon.

Appendix D: Selected Bibliography

Overview
Common Lisp References
Lisp Tutorials
Artificial Intelligence
Macintosh



Appendix D

Selected Bibliography

Overview

This appendix list books that you may find useful while programming in Allegro CL for the Macintosh.

Common Lisp References

Steele, Guy *Common Lisp: the Language*

Digital Press, Manard, MA, 1984

465 pages. The standard reference manual and language specification for Common Lisp. A must.

Simpson, Rosemary *Common Lisp the Index*

Coral Software Corp, Cambridge, MA, 1987

74 pages. An extensive cross-referenced index to Guy Steele's *Common Lisp: the Language*.

Lisp Tutorials

Abelson, Harold & Gerald Sussman *Structure and Interpretation of Computer Programs*

MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, 1985

542 pages. Originally developed for the introductory programming course at MIT. Stresses large scale issues of program design and implementation. Good chapter on writing an evaluator. Uses Scheme (rather than Common Lisp) for all examples.

Brooks, Rodney *Programming in Common Lisp*

John Wiley & Sons, New York, NY. 1985

303 pages. Contains tutorial and problems (answers included).

Friedman, Daniel and Matthias Fellestien *The Little Lisper, trade edition*

MIT Press, Cambridge, MA. 1987

186 pages. Introductory text. Exercises in Lisp that have made complex concepts transparent to many. Does not use the Common Lisp but sticks to a very few set of lisp functions and includes compatibility notes. Strong on recursion.

Tatar, Deborah *A Programmer's Guide to Common Lisp*

Digital Press, Maynard, MA. 1987

327 pages. The last chapter contains the code and English explanation of a toy expert system.

Touretzky, David *Lisp: A Gentle Introduction to Symbolic Computing*

Harper & Row, 1984

384 pages. Uses the most common features of Common Lisp in the examples. Gentle, as the title suggests.

Winston, Patrick and Bertold Horn *Lisp* [2nd edition]

Addison Wesley, Reading, MA. 1984

Lots of AI code examples. The 2nd edition uses Common Lisp.

Wilensky, Robert *Common LispCraft*
Norton & Co. New York, NY. 1986

The last two chapters describe a pattern matcher and an associative data base.

Artificial Intelligence

Buchanan, Bruce & Edward Shortliffe *Rule-Based Expert Systems*
Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA. 1985

Describes the Mycin experiments of the Stanford Heuristic Programming Project. A classic.

Charniak, Eugene , Christopher Resbeck, Drew McDermott *Artificial Intelligence Programming*
Lawrence Erlbaum Assoc. Hillsdale, NJ. 1980

The original version came out in 1980 and used UCI Lisp in the examples. An upcoming 2nd edition uses Common Lisp.

Harmon, Paul & David King *Expert Systems*

John Wiley & Sons, NY, NY. 1987

283 pages. Lots of graphics.

Shapiro, Stuart *Encyclopedia of Artificial Intelligence*

John Wiley & Sons New York, NY. 1987

Large collection of articles on diverse topics in AI. Good as a glossary.

Macintosh

Apple Computer, *Macintosh User Guide*

Apple Computer, 1987

The 200 page manual that comes with every Macintosh. Explains the basics of using the machine.

Apple Computer, *Inside Macintosh* volumes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

Addison Wesley, Reading, MA. 1985-87

Technical reference for system-level Macintosh programming. Difficult but sometimes necessary. Excellent as reference.

Apple Computer, Macintosh Technical Notes

Apple Computer, ongoing

Technical notes describing system-level details, caveats, bugs, and work-arounds. Available through Apple Programmer's and Developer's Association, 290 SW 43rd Street, Renton, WA 98055. (206) 251-6548.

Chernicoff, Stephen *Macintosh Revealed* volumes 1, 2

Hayden Book Co., Hasbrouck Heights, NJ. 1986

Introduction to Macintosh-style event driven programming, with windows, menus, etc. Good introduction, but many concepts may not be applicable to programming in Allegro CL.

Knaster, Scott *How to Write Macintosh Software*

Hayden Book Co., Hasbrouck Heights, NJ 1986

510 pages. Advanced topics in Macintosh programming, including the handling of some tricky situations.

Glossary



Glossary

ancestor	An object from which another object inherits, directly or indirectly. If foo inherits from bar, then bar is an ancestor of foo. In addition, if bar inherits from quux, then quux is an ancestor of both bar and foo. See also child, descendent, parent. Pages 3-3 to 3-9.
buffer	A Fred data type that holds a sequence of characters, as does a string. Buffers are optimized for efficient manipulation of text, including insertion and deletion. Buffers are displayed in Fred windows. Pages 1-1, 9-1
caret	See insertion point. See also cursor.
cell	A component of a table dialog. Page 7-11
class	An object from which other objects are created. Conceptually, it represents a category, such as dog, whereas an instance represents a specific example of a category, such as Lassie. Page 3-9.
command key	The key used for invoking menu-items through keyboard equivalents. In Macintosh editing mode, clover. In Emacs editing mode, shift clover. Page 2-3.
command table	A table of Fred keystrokes and pointers to the functions they invoke. Page 9-10.
comtab	See command table
control key	The key used to invoke Fred commands. In Macintosh editing mode, shift-clover. In Emacs editing mode, clover. Page 2-3.
cursor	The screen image corresponding to the mouse. As the mouse moves, the cursor moves on the screen. This is distinguished from the caret or insertion point that indicates the position in text where typed characters will appear. Pages 2-2, 8-6.

datum, Lisp	A Lisp data object such as a list, array, number, character, string, etc. The words datum and data, rather than the traditional 'object', are used to avoid possible confusion with the word object in object-oriented programming.
descendent	An object which inherits, directly or indirectly from another object. If foo inherits from bar, then foo is an descendent of bar. In addition, if bar inherits from quux, then foo is as a descendent of both bar and quux. Pages 3-3 to 3-9.
device	The component of a pathname that specifies the physical storage device, such as a hard disk. On the Macintosh this is the first part of the directory specification. Equivalent to a Macintosh volume. Page 10-1.
dialog	A window containing dialog items, i.e., controls, which allows formatted interaction between a program and a user. Page 7-1.
dialog, modal	A type of dialog that requires a response from the user before the user can perform any other action. Page 7-1.
dialog, modeless	A type of dialog that can remain on the screen while the user performs other actions. Page 7-1.
dialog-item	An element of a dialog that may cause an action when clicked by the mouse. When dialog-items are disabled they are shown in a grayed out format and do not respond to mouse clicks. Types of dialog-items include: button, check box, radio button, static text, editable text, and table. Page 7-1.
directory	The component of the pathname that specifies the file directory. A Macintosh folder. Directory specifications end in a colon, for example "letters:", or a semi-colon in the case of logical directories, for example "ccl;". See also logical pathnames. Page 10-2.
Emacs mode	The operating mode of Allegro in which the clover key is used as a control key and shift-clover is the command key. Page 1-2.
Emacs-style editor	An editor whose command set is extensible by the user and which is extremely rich in keyboard commands. Emacs editors follow a set of conventions for the mapping between keystrokes and functionality. FRED is an Emacs-style editor. Page 1-1.

event	An occurrence outside of normal program flow, usually generated by the user. Examples include keystrokes, mouse clicks, and floppy disk inserts. Pages 1-2, 8-1.
event-handler	A piece of code that responds to and processes events. Page 8-1.
file name	The component of a pathname that specifies the name of the file. For example: "init". Page 10-2.
file type	The component of a pathname that specifies the type of file. For example: "fasl". Page 10-2.
font-spec	Specifies some or all of the characteristics of a font, including name, size, type, transfer mode. For example: ("monaco" 12 :BOLD) Pages 4-1, 4-2.
Fred	The Emacs-style editor in Allegro. Pages 2-1, 9-1.
frame	The local environment of an object, containing its variable and function bindings. The complete environment of an object consists of all the frames of all its ancestors and the global, or top-level Allegro environment. Frame is also used to denote stack-frame, a different data structure that contains the information for an active function (primarily lexical values). Page 3-5.
host	The component of the pathname that specifies an operating system. For example: "coral-macs!". The host component of a pathname is currently ignored by Allegro CL. Page 10-1.
inheritance	A mechanism whereby objects are linked in a heterarchy such that lower level objects can use procedures and variables defined in higher level objects. Pages 3-1, 3-3 to 3-9.
inheritance, multiple	An inheritance mechanism in which an object may have multiple parents. The resulting structure can therefore be a heterarchy, which is more complex than a simple tree; it cannot be a general net since links flow only in one direction. Page 3-7.
insertion point	The location between two characters where text may be entered into a window. See also cursor. Pages 1-1, 2-2.

inspector	A tool that permits easy interactive examination of data structures. Page 11-2.
instance	An object, particularly when it is being referenced in relation to its class. For example, "win-1 is an instance of the class *window*". Page 3-9.
instance variables	Variables which maintain the state of an instance, usually defined when the instance is created. Page 3-9.
kill-ring	A buffer in which killed strings are saved. It is integrated with the Macintosh keyboard and may be thought of as a multi-level clipboard. The top item in the kill ring is the equivalent to the Macintosh clipboard. The full kill-ring is accessible through a dialog. It is stored as a list of strings bound to the variable *killed-strings*. Pages 1-2, 9-2.
Listener	A special window designed for interacting with Lisp. Allegro CL's listener includes such features as the blinking of parentheses to highlight matching pairs, and the use of different type styles to differentiate between what the user types in and Allegro CL's response. Page 1-1.
logical pathname	An alias for a physical (or regular) pathname. Facilitates writing portable code with embedded file names. Page 10-8.
Macintosh mode	The operating mode of Allegro in which the clover key is used as a command key and shift-clover is the control key. Page 1-2.
mark	A pointer into a position in a buffer. Page 9-1.
menu	On the Macintosh, the term menu denotes a pull-down menu i.e. a list of items from which the user can choose to initiate an action. Page 5-1
menu-item	An element of a menu that when selected by mouse or keyboard equivalent causes an action to occur. When menu-items are disabled they are shown in a grayed out format and do not respond to user selection. Page 5-1
menubar	A list of the titles of several menus. The standard Macintosh interface displays the menubar as a horizontal bar at the top of the screen. Clicking in the menubar displays the menus. Page 5-1

meta key	A modifier key used for invoking Fred commands. The option key is used as the meta key. In the Fred documentation, "meta" is shown as M- in the commands which use it. For example, the delete word command, is shown as M-d, where M is the meta key and d is the "d" key. Page 2-3.
mode line	The first non-blank line in a text file, used for giving the Lisp system information on the file. In Allegro CL, only the package specification is recognized. For example: <pre>;;; -*- package: <package-name> -*-</pre> Page 2-1.
modifier keys	Keyboard keys that do not register as keystrokes but which modify the value of other keys. Examples include shift and clover. Page 1-2.
object	A data type that may contain data and/or procedures for handling that data. Objects also inherit data and procedures from other objects. Page 3-1.
object license	The integer that uniquely identifies an object to Allegro CL. License numbers are regenerated each time Allegro CL is loaded, and as such may change from session to session. Page 2-19.
parent	The immediate ancestor of an object. Page 3-3.
pathname	A method of specifying a particular file or directory. The Common Lisp standard pathname has six components: host, device, directory, filename, type, and version number. In Allegro CL the host, device and version number are ignored. Page 10-1.
pointer	A datum which is an address into memory. Page 12-8.
search path	The sequence of directories to be searched when the file system is looking for the physical pathname of a partially specified file. Page 10-7.
stack-backtrace	A debugging tool that examines the stack, showing stack-frames and their contents. Page 11-2.
stepper	A debugging tool that evaluates code one expression at a time, displaying all intermediate values. Page 11-2.
undo mechanism	The ability to reverse an operation, or series of operations, restoring the former state. Page 6-5.

version

The component of a pathname that specifies which version of a particular file. Not used in Allegro CL. Page 10-2.

wildcard characters

Characters that match to multiple other characters. For example, pathnames may contain a "*" to refer to a set of files. Page 10-7.

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