



PREMIERE ISSUE

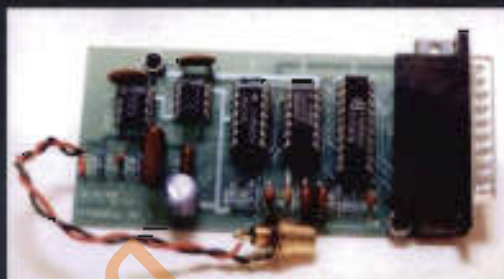
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```
printf("Hello");
```

```
print "Hello"
```

```
JSR printMsg
```

```
say "Hello"
```

```
writeln("Hello")
```

Whatever language you speak, AC's TECH provides a platform for both gaining insight and sharing information on its most innovative implementation for the Amiga. Why not see if your latest programming endeavor can help a fellow Amiga user expand upon his or her vocabulary? To be considered for publication in AC's TECH, submit your technically oriented article (both hard copy & disk) to:

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STARTUP-SEQUENCE

Greetings!

Welcome to the Premier Issue of *AC'S TECH For the Commodore Amiga*. *AC'S TECH* is the first all-technical, disk-based magazine designed for Amiga programmers and hardware-types (or wanna-be's). In these pages (and on this disk!) you'll find some of the most interesting and informative technical stories ever made available to the Amiga population.

As I said, this magazine was designed for you—the technical Amiga user. You won't find any game reviews in *AC'S TECH*. No show reports. Just technical, applications-intensive information.

AC'S TECH also includes a disk packed with information, source code, executables, and other technical goodies (we really had no choice—we simply couldn't publish the accompanying multiple 50-page listings!). There is so much information on the disk that we had to archive many of the directories. There's lots to play with!

Whether you build the 256-gray-scale digitizer, or explore the possibilities of I/O with ARext, or work with any of the other superb stories in this issue of *AC'S TECH*, you're sure to be amazed!

Now, down to business!

To 2.0, or not to 2.0

I've heard some mumbling on the various networks concerning developers' apprehension to design their applications to take advantage of the features of AmigaDOS release 2, their argument being that they can't want to require AmigaDOS release 2 if it really isn't available to every Amiga (for the most part, release 2 is seen on Amiga 3000s). This is a valid point, in that most developers in the Amiga community are small, have limited developmental resources, and need to design their products to be compatible with the greatest number of Amigas in use.

However, there is a catch-22 brewing in the distance. Someday, AmigaDOS release 2 will be available for most Amigas. It will, for many consumers, require a hardware upgrade. These consumers are going to need a good reason to upgrade to AmigaDOS release 2—specifically, software that takes advantage of the new standard requesters, the virtual screen capabilities of the new ECS chips, and all the goodies that come with the AmigaDOS release 2 and the new Enhanced Chip Set. While all this is going on, the other computer manufacturers are trying to woo the consumer (our Amiga owner) into purchasing their sleeker new units, quickly gaining ground on the Amiga. Hmmm...wasn't release 2 intended to add stride to the Amiga? And it's the software that will show off release 2. It's all in the software! Gee...what a concept.

Software comes from developers. Software will make or break the Amiga. Developers have to take the first step. Sure, it will mean investing in both time and money, but if they want the Amiga to advance, they really don't have much of a choice. It's an investment in the future. After all, if the Amiga doesn't expand, neither will their businesses, or this magazine, or...

Stand and deliver

I'm making a big fuss about developing for AmigaDOS release 2; however, you won't find any stories in this issue that cover release 2 specifics. Why? The information in *AC'S TECH* is not basic information. *AC'S TECH* is not a programmer's reference. Rather, it is a forum for new techniques and innovations for programming and hardware devotees. Right now there really isn't any innovation in the AmigaDOS release 2 arena. We are still learning the basics of programming for AmigaDOS release 2. However, that small learning curve is quickly past.

I am calling upon the readers who have transcended that learning curve. I want to hear from the people who are programming with AmigaDOS release 2. What are you doing? What are the good points and bad points? What about tips and techniques? Are you using GadTools? What about programming with Inquis? We're looking for applications. Let us know!

Send your letters to:

Ernest P. Viveiros, Jr.
AC'S TECH/Project Release 2
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I promise to read every letter. After all, it's the Amiga's future we're dealing with here.

Of course, we are eager to cover any type of true Amiga innovation—be it AmigaDOS 2.0 manipulation, a wicked hardware hack or a new algorithm to generate objects in 3-dimensional space. Our scope is Amiga technical innovation in general, and we intend to cover it precisely and completely.



Ernest P. Viveiros, Jr.
Editor



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Macro68 is a powerful new assembler for the entire line of Amiga personal computers.

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Macro68 boasts macro power unparalleled in products of this class. There are many new and innovative assembler directives. For instance, a special structure offset directive assures maximum compatibility with the Amiga's interface conventions. A user-accessible file provides the ability to customize directives and run-time messages from the assembler. An AREXX(tm) Interface provides "real-time" communication with the editor of your choice. A number of directives enable **Macro68** to communicate with AmigaDos(tm).

Possibly the most unique feature of **Macro68** is the use of a shared-library, which allows resident preassembled include files for incredibly fast assemblies.

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ReSource'030 supports the new Motorola M68000 Family assembly language syntax, and is a perfect companion to **Macro68**.

If you're new to **ReSource**, here are a few facts:

ReSource is an intelligent interactive disassembler for the Amiga programmer. **ReSource** will enable you to explore the Amiga. Find out how your favorite program works. Examine your own compiled code.

ReSource will load/save any file, read disk tracks, or disassemble directly from memory. Symbols are created automatically, and virtually all Amiga symbol bases are supported. Additionally, you may create your own symbol bases.

"If you're serious about disassembling code, look no further!"

The original **ReSource** continues to be available for owners of 68000 based machines. Both versions of **ReSource** require at least 1 meg of ram. Suggested retail prices: Original **ReSource**, US\$95, **ReSource'030**, US\$150

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Advanced Disassembling Magic Macros with ReSource

by Jeff Lavin

Introduction

This article is not intended to be a primer on disassembly. We assume that you know how to disassemble programs, and have a need to do so. What I hope to do here is show some of the more interesting and useful things that may be done with ReSource. Some of these examples will use the macro facilities built into ReSource. Macros are a very powerful concept. Just as macros may be used to make your life easier and cut down on typing in a macro assembler, it is possible to think of ReSource as a macro disassembler. Macros similar to the ones shown may be constructed for most repetitive uses. Macros are capable of testing values, and branching based on the outcome.

Fun with Gadgets

Since the Amiga's operating system and library calls depend heavily on structures, it is rare to find a program that does not contain several or perhaps hundreds of structures.

After disassembling a program, you may find the following in a data bank:

```
00000000  CL      $Nil_Gad1
00000004  CL      07500000
00000008  CL      00000000
0000000C  CL      ?
00000010  CL      $Nil_Gad2
00000014  CL      00000000
00000018  CL      ?
0000001C  CL      ?
00000020  CL      00000000
00000024  CL      ?
00000028  CL      ?
0000002C  CL      ?
00000030  CL      ?
00000034  CL      ?
00000038  CL      ?
0000003C  CL      ?
00000040  CL      ?
```

A macro called "Gadget" (see Listing one) is invoked at this point, using "LOCAL MACROS/execute/Gadget". It is important to note several things about this macro:

- (1) It works on any (not extended) gadget.
- (2) All the data type conversions and other operations are done with one keystroke, invoking the Gadget macro.
- (3) When the macro gets finished with one gadget, it automatically moves to the next gadget in the chain. This saves a lot of work when disassembling programs with 50 gadgets. Forward referencing automatically stops when a null pointer is reached.



The result is the very readable gadget structure below.

```
GR_684  C1  Ex1_Used
        C2  157, 158, 159, 160
        C3  00000000
        C4  000000000000000000000000
        C5  (REG32(0x0, 0x00000000))
        C6  GR_5003
        C7  0
        C8  GR_32A21
        C9  0
        C0  0
        C1  0
        C2  0
        C3  1
```

Creating Image Data

In this example, we have a program that uses various gadgets and images. There is one image that we would like to modify and use in another program. You could use a Ghp utility to save the image as a brush, and then use another utility to convert the brush to source code, but it is very easy to get ReSource to do all the conversions in one step.

Here is the data that we found by tracing backwards from gg_GadgetRenderer > ig_ImageData:

```
Image00  D1  1FEEFC000
         D0  1 00000000
         D1  1FEEFC000
         D2  1FEEFC000
         D3  1FEEFC000
         D4  1FEEFC000
         D5  1FEEFC000
         D6  1FEEFC000
         D7  1FEEFC000
         D8  1FEEFC000
         D9  1FEEFC000
         DA  1FEEFC000
         DB  1FEEFC000
```

The next thing we want is the width of the image. In this case `ig_Width` is equal to 16, so we set the data type to words, this being the lowest multiple of 16 greater than `ig_Width`. Repeated use of the functions:

```
DEFINE_BYTE words; case/bytes;
DEFINE_BYTE words; case/bytes; int * 1
```

gives us these nine arrays to use in our code immediately.

```
by_image D4  1111111111111111
         D5  0000000000000000
         D6  00000000 0000 00
         D7  1000001110000100
         D8  0000011111000000
         D9  0000 111111000000
         DA  0000 11 110100
         DB  0000 11 111100
         DC  0000011111000100
         DD  0000011111000100
         DE  0000011111000100
         DF  0000 0000 00000000
         D0  01 11 11 11
```

```
D1  1000000000000000
D2  0 0000 111110000
D3  1000000111000000
D4  1000000111000000
D5  1111111111110000
D6  10000 111 0000
D7  0000011111100000
D8  0000000111000000
D9  000000 1000 0000
DA  0000000100001000
DB  1000000000000000
```

If the width is between 17 and 32, we would set the data type to longs. Generally, find out if the width is a multiple of words or longwords, and set the data type appropriately. For really wide images, use your editor to combine lines, using commas as separators.

Effective Address Conversion

Suppose you are disassembling a program. Normally, the first thing you do is find out if a base register is being used for global variables and data structures. Address register 34 or A5 is generally used for this purpose. If a base register is being used, you tell ReSource where it is pointing; that is, establish the relative-base. ReSource then converts base offsets for you, from the form:

```
image1  4848484000, (1664, A5)
```

to the more readable:

```
image1  4848484000, (b021844-D1)
```

where the symbol "D1" is the relative base and is automatically produced by ReSource, if not supplied by you. Please note that nothing has really changed here. The values `326A` and `1b1021844-D1` in this program are identical. The obvious difference at this point is that the code is much easier to read.

Even more important is the fact that what was previously defined as a simple offset is now defined as `<label> <offset>`. Down the road, when you attempt to reassemble this file, `<b1021844-D1>` will be identical to `326A` only if the data area between both labels isn't changed; that is, if the labels are still the same distance from each other. Changing the relative position of either label makes the `326A` offset incorrect, and results in a bad executable, but `<b1021844-D1>` will assemble to the correct offset for this data item.

Back to our program. When you disassemble this particular program, the first thing you find is:

```
image1  (IMAGE_RESOURCE_NAME_OFFSET), C1
image1  48548000
image1  (ResourceBase), 06
for 1, (IMAGE_RESOURCE_NAME_OFFSET)
repeat 1 01, 05
for 1 01
begin 100000 02
```

It quickly becomes obvious in rereading the code that A5 is being used as the base register, but how do you convert all the offsets? It would be so much simpler if an absolute address was being used as the relative-base. This type of situation

What exactly is the ReSource Disassembler?

ReSource is an interactive disassembler for Amiga computers. There are several versions of ReSource available; all require Amiga DOS V1.2 or later and at least 1 meg of RAM. The original ReSource runs on any Amiga and produces conventional 68000 syntax assembly output. ReSource'030 runs only on machines equipped with a 68030 CPU, and generates Motorola new syntax code. ReSource'068 also produces new syntax code, but will run on any Amiga. All examples herein were produced using ReSource'030.

If you would like more information, please contact:

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comes up fairly often, not only with allocated memory, but also with programs that use the stack for storage.

In this case, we load the file into ReSource again, but this time as a binary file, rather than as an executable, so that ReSource doesn't strip the hunk information. The first thing we need to do is use "DISPLAY/Set data type/long" to make the entire file display as longwords. After defining some hunk types, it now looks like this:

```
00  $UNK_undefined
01  :
02  1          Number of hunks in this file
03  :
04  0
05  $BSS4      Number of segments of binary
              (this is wrong for this file)
06  BSS_undef
07  $BSS4      Number of segments
              (this is wrong for this hunk)
08  $PAGEZERO
```

What we are going to do is create some extra room at the end of the file for our base-relative variables. We know from the code that the allocated memory is cleared, so we don't have to worry about static data structures being referenced. We also know that the program is asking for 4548 bytes of memory. This is equal to 8132 longwords, so we need to change the value at offset \$14 to (\$374 = 8132) or 8306 longwords. If the size of the allocated memory is not evenly divisible by 4, just round up.

Select "SPECIAL FUNCTIONS/Zap" and when the requester comes up, we enter "L\$306". The "L" tells ReSource to change a longword rather than a word or byte. Then select "SAVE/Save binary image/all" and save the file under a different name:

Now load the modified file, this time as an executable. When we move to the end of the file we see:

```
00000000 00000000  (same size of the program) 00000000
```

which is exactly what we wanted! After placing this line at the cursor position, select:

```
SPECIAL FUNCTIONS/Specify base register/all  (change base
                                                register)
SPECIAL FUNCTIONS/Loadset  (change)  END/FILE address
```

and at the top of the file (remember, there was only 1 hunk!), now see:

```
00  $BSS4      (offset from start of program to
              PAGE ZERO)
```

This is our new relative-base. Memory is still allocated and (we fervently hope) freed, but when this file is reassembled, the "DX" (Define Extra) area at the end of the program will include all variables. Selecting "PROJECT/Dissassemble" indeed shows that all our base-relative offsets have been converted. We now have a much easier time figuring out how this program works.

Most of the time this hack works perfectly. After all, Lattice and Manx have been doing it for years! Sometimes, however, you will convert a program and it won't run. Although the AmigaDOS file system is beyond the scope of this article, there are several "gotchas". The main thing to remember is not to add "DXs" to an empty hunk. If you find an empty hunk at the end of the file, just before the "DXs", either add a dummy line of data, or delete that SECTION statement, and add the "DXs" to the end of the previous hunk.

Here are a few thoughts on "DXs". This 'data type' results in much smaller load files. The size of the file on disk does not include the "DXs". The main difference between a "DX" and a BSS hunk is that the "DX" may be cleared by your program, not by the loader. This is easy enough to accomplish with the following code, which presumes D0/A0:

```
lea  D0,A0          (our relative base)
lea  D0,$BSS_undef (start of the "DXs")
moveb #($BSS_undef+1),D0 (size of the "DXs" in bytes)
moveb #0,D0
moveb #0,D0+1
moveb #0,D0+2
```

Although they have been available to Lattice and Manx C users for years, "DXs" have only been available to assembly language programmers for a short time, and only on a few assemblers. DigSoft's Macro68 is one assembler that supports this feature.

Coping with Library Stubs

Anyone who has ever attempted to disassemble a program written in C, in the era before pragmas and inline code, has come up against library stubs. A library stub is a horrible little piece of code that takes up space and converts C arguments (passed on the stack), into system arguments (passed

in registers). Here's one now:

```
00013932  move.l 1b0013932-00, a0, a6
         move.l 15, a0, a1
         move.l 18, a0, a0
         jmp 1-8258, a6
```

There are frequently anywhere from 50 to hundreds of these stanzas in a program; some of them are not even referenced! ReSource makes it very easy to convert the library offset to human-readable form. After you find out what's in the library base register (A6), select the appropriate library symbol base:

```
00013932  move.l 1 System-00, a0, a6
         move.l 15, a0, a1
         move.l 18, a0, a0
         jmp 1 _LVOOpenLibrary, a6
```

But there remains that un-readable label! It is easy to type labels by hand when there are just a few, but after pages of them, it gets old fast! The macro "Create LibCall Names" (see listing two) solves this problem easily.

Basically, the macro starts by searching for either of these stanzas:

```
jmp 1 _LVO
jmp 1 _LVO
```

When one is found—for example, "jmp _LVOOpenLibrary"—ReSource gets the symbol, which in this case is "_LVOOpenLibrary", and puts it in the accumulator, which is the main string-manipulating buffer in ReSource. The "_LVO" at the beginning is clipped off, and a "_" is added to the front. Now we have "_OpenLibrary", which works nicely as a label. ReSource then moves back to the previous label, "1b0013932", and creates a new label for us. Now, our library stub looks like this:

```
OpenLibrary move.l 1 System-00, a0, a6
         move.l 15, a0, a1
         move.l 18, a0, a0
         jmp 1 _LVOOpenLibrary, a6
```

ReSource then searches for the next label, and the macro ends. We can process hundreds of these nasty library stubs quickly, simply by using the "Repeat last command" key—typically, bound to the spacebar.

Reconstructing MFM Data

Losing data through failure of magnetic media must surely be one of the most frustrating experiences. Although many people use hard drives now, most still need floppy disks for backup purposes, and when your hard drive "goes down", the last thing you need to find out is that your backup discs have a read error.

Many floppy disk read errors are actually the result of only one bit being wrong. As a simple example, imagine one of seven million guess hits; it follows that if the bad bit can be identified and fixed, most or all of the data can be recovered. Using the philosophy that the problem is really only in a specific area on the disk, we will attempt to analyze that area, and then to recover as much data as we can.

First, use the "PROJECT/Read tracks" function in ReSource to find the unreachable track. Next, we need a separate program capable of reading raw MFM data, not the system data that senior editors read. It must also be capable of reporting the address of its track buffer. There are available several disk utilities, or monitors, that meet these criteria.

Use that utility to read the raw track. While the raw data is still in the utility's buffer, switch to ReSource, and select "PROJECT/Disable memory". When the requester comes up, enter the address of the disk utility's track buffer, and use the "SAVE/Save binary image/All" function to make this into a normal binary file. After loading this file into ReSource by using "PROJECT/Open binary file", you may exit the utility, and start examining the raw track data in ReSource.

What we will be attempting to do next is to recover as many good sectors from the track as possible, by converting each sector from MFM to hex individually. While at the start of the file, select the "DISPLAY/Set data type/Words" function. To find the start of the first sector, look for the hex word "\$4489". Scroll to just past this word. If the next word is also "\$4489", scroll past it also. Set the data type to longwords, using "DISPLAY/Set data type/longwords". Use the "Convert MFM encoding" macro, and if the sector header is okay, it should now have some full line comments on the current line:

```
: format type = 27
: track number = 1
: sector number = 1
: sectors to TRF = 1
:
: 00000000
: 00000000
: 00000000
: 00000000
```



The format byte should always be 0x1, whenever reading Armp disks. The track number should be the same as the one that you originally read. The sector number must be 0-10 inclusive, and "Sectors to GAT?" must be equal to seven minus the sector number. If any of these conditions fail, warnings are that either you haven't found the true start of a sector, or the sector header information itself is damaged.

The "Calculate MFM xsums" macro works out the header checksum, and the data block checksum, as they are defined in the header block itself:

```

; Format type = 0x1
; Track number = 1
; Sector number = 1
; Sectors to GAT = 2
      d1 0552AA574
      r 1552AA64A
      d1 0A1AA1AAA
      d1 11001A55A
      d1 042AA544A
      = 0AAAAAAA
      d1 00111A55A
      d1 00011A55A
      = 0AAAAAAA
      d1 00111A55A
; Header block checksum = 010000101
      = 0AAAAAAA
      d1 0AA00052E
; Data block checksum = 010115941
      = 02AAAAAAA
      d1 002A0554E
      d1 02011A55A

```

The full-line comment (above) giving the data block checksum is followed by the two longwords making up the checksum. Immediately following this is 1024 bytes of MFM data. Scroll to the start of the MFM data, and use the "Copy MFM sector to HEX" macro to convert each longword of MFM into hex. To convert a complete sector, this must be done 128 times. The macro "Convert MFM" 128 times" will do this. Note that the macro line, "GLOBAL MACROS," execute(174)" refers to the macro number of "Copy MFM sector to HEX", and may be different, on your system. After converting to hex, the sector still looks something like this:

```

; Format type = 0x1
; Track number = 1
; Sector number = 10
; Sectors to GAT = 2
      d1 0002AA52E
      d1 00120A57A
      d1 00A05555A
      d1 02000000A
      d1 0AAAAAAA
      d1 00111A55A
      d1 0AA00000A
      d1 0AAAAAAA
      d1 0AAAAAAA
      d1 0AAAAAAA
; Header block checksum = 000115901
      d1 0AAAAAAA
      d1 1AAAAA52E
; Data block checksum = 010011141
      d1 02000000A
      d1 00000000A

```

```

d1 02000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 02000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000
d1 00000000A : 00000000

```

Depending on what is actually wrong with the tracks, you will normally be able to salvage 10 of the eleven sectors, and possibly some of the bad sector as well. Salvaging data is very difficult to completely automate, but when you really need to salvage as much data as possible, these macros may make the job much easier for you. The hex data is displayed in the end-of-line comments above.

Because there may be many things wrong with the data, and our space is limited, we will not discuss various methods of repairing sector headers, disk tracks, or rewriting the reconstructed data out to disk. There are programs available to do this sort of thing with less work and less opportunity for human error. Our purpose here is to illustrate, in a general way, how the macro capabilities of ReSource may be used for complex tasks.

That's All Folks!

Because it is a macro disassembler, the things that may be done with ReSource are limited only by your imagination. I hope I have shown a representative sample of some of the things it is possible to do with ReSource.

About the Author

Jeff Lavin and his wife Grace own *The Puzzle Factory*, which publishes the ReSource disassembler, and Macro68 assembler. Jeff was introduced to assembly language during the homebrew-computing days on his SYM-1, and has been programming in assembly ever since. You may contact Jeff through The Puzzle Factory, or write to him c/o AC's TECH.

The following macros may be entered into ReSource, after which you may want to save them, by selecting "LOCAL MACROS/Save all macros".

Listing One
The GADGET macro

```
GADGET/Set single/Full-line comment
DISPLAY/Set data type/symbol
CURSOR/Relative/Next line * 1
DISPLAY/Set data type/words
CURSOR/Relative/Next line * 1
DISPLAY/Set data type/bytes
CURSOR/Relative/Previous line * 4
DISPLAY 2/0/1/triple operand override/Set
DISPLAY/Set Numeric base/Decimal
CURSOR/Relative/Next line * 1
DISPLAY/Set data type/words
SYMBOLS 2/E-G/Gadget flags
CURSOR/Relative/Next line * 1
SYMBOLS 2/E-G/Gadget definition
CURSOR/Relative/Next line * 1
SYMBOLS 2/E-G/Gadget types
CURSOR/Relative/Next line * 1
DISPLAY/Set data type/bytes
CURSOR/Relative/Next line * 1
DISPLAY/Set data type/words
DISPLAY/Set Numeric base/Decimal
CURSOR/Relative/Next line * 1
DISPLAY/Set data type/symbol
CURSOR/Relative/Next line * 1
LABELS/Set single/Full-line comment
CURSOR/Relative/Previous line * 51
CURSOR/Relative/Next line * 1

;Insert a blank line above gadget.
;Set to next gadget.
;Move to next line.
;Always use all WORDS.
;Move past next 4 words and change
;data type.
;Move back to submainline.
;Force coefficients all on 1 line
;and display them as decimal.
;Move to next line.
;Always use all WORDS.
;Equali gadget flags.
;Move to next line.
;Square gadget definition.
;Move to next line.
;Equali gadget types.
;Move to next line.
;Always use all WORDS.
;Skip down 7 lines.
;Set gg GADGET to WORD.
;and display it in decimal.
;Move to next line.
;Set gg UserDATA to LONG.
;Move to next line.
;Insert a blank line.
;Move back to top of gadget.
;Set as reference to gg NextGadget.
```

Listing Two
The CREATE LIBCAL
NAMES macro

```
CREATE/Normal search/Set search string "jump[oa]table:_LWC"
CREATE/Pattern search/Find next occurrence
SCANNES/Call/Symbol
SCANNES/Call functions/Call name "_LWC"
CREATE/Normal functions/Forward * *
CURSOR/Relative/Forward label
CALLS/Call label
CURSOR/Relative/Next label

;Either "jar _LWC" or "jar _LWC".
;Put symbol in the name stob.
;Call out the "LWC".
;Add "" to the front.
;Find this stub's label.
;Insert our new label
;Make it as possible stub.
```

Listing Three
Convert VFM
encoding macro

```

;Hexide accumulator 999999 FFH
;Hexide default size = longword
;Get longword at cursor position
;AND with reserved bits
;Don't show more if above
;required zero
;Move up one line
;Calculate cursor cursor position
;within line
;Go to next line
;Whenever in an accumulator, add
;to itself!
;Don't abort when id above
;required zero
;Store result in buffer "A"
;Go to next line
;Get longword at cursor position
;AND out reserved bits
;Usually set with contents of
;buffer "B"
;Go back one line
;Copy accumulator to buffer "A"
;Clip last six characters from
;accumulator
;Add required text
;Create comment, using accumulator
;Copy buffer "B" to accumulator
;Strip unwanted characters
;Strip unwanted characters
;Put dot at sign end
;Require buffer displayed in
;decimal
;Add 1 to accumulator
;Don't abort if above required
;zero
;When... unknown number in
;decimal
;Don't abort if above required
;zero
;Add required text
;Create comment, using accumulator
;Copy buffer "B" to accumulator
;We want two sets with time
;Don't want 1st
;End display sign back
;Convert hex to decimal
;Display hex to decimal
;Convert hex to decimal
;Add required text
;Create comment, using accumulator
;Copy buffer "B" to accumulator
;Require 1GB time time
;Put dot at sign end
;Display hex to decimal
;Display hex to decimal
;Convert hex to decimal
;Add required text
;Create comment, using accumulator
;We need to original line -1
;Print on required line
;Hexide accumulator 999999 FFH
;Hexide default size = longword
;Get longword at cursor position
;AND out reserved bits
;Don't show more if above
;required zero
;Move up one line
;Calculate cursor cursor position
;within line
;Go to next line
;Whenever in an accumulator, add
;to itself!
;Don't abort when id above
;required zero
;Store result in buffer "A"
;Go to next line
;Get longword at cursor position
;AND out reserved bits
;Usually set with contents of
;buffer "B"
;Go back one line
;Copy accumulator to buffer "A"
;Clip last six characters from
;accumulator
;Add required text
;Create comment, using accumulator
;Copy buffer "B" to accumulator
;Strip unwanted characters
;Strip unwanted characters
;Put dot at sign end
;Require buffer displayed in
;decimal
;Add 1 to accumulator
;Don't abort if above required
;zero
;When... unknown number in
;decimal
;Don't abort if above required
;zero
;Add required text
;Create comment, using accumulator
;Copy buffer "B" to accumulator
;We want two sets with time
;Don't want 1st
;End display sign back
;Convert hex to decimal
;Display hex to decimal
;Convert hex to decimal
;Add required text
;Create comment, using accumulator
;We need to original line -1
;Print on required line

```

Listing Four
Calculate MFM
using MASM

```

CURSOR/relative/Next line + 1
PTRINCS/relative/Next
STRINGS/operation/size/longword
SOURCE/Get/Current longword
PTRINCS/relative/function/logical AND %00000000
LOCAL MACROS/Directives/End conditional

SOURCE/swap with buffer, / A
STRINGS/Make functions/Add $16,$17

%ORI MACROS/Directives/End conditional

STRINGS/Make functions/Logical OR $1B,$1C

STRINGS/Make functions/Increment "Header checksum" +
PTRINCS/relative/Previous line + 1
LABEL/Make string/Full-line comment $1B,$1E
CURSOR/relative/Next line + 2
STRINGS/Get/Current longword
STRINGS/Make functions/Logical AND %00000000
LOCAL MACROS/Directives/End conditional

STRINGS/Make functions/Add $1B,$1E

LOCAL MACROS/Directives/End conditional

SOURCE/swap with buffer, / A
CURSOR/relative/Next line + 1
PTRINCS/Get/Current longword
SOURCE/Make functions/Logical AND %00000000
STRINGS/Make functions/Logical OR $1B,$1C

LABEL/relative/Previous line + 1
STRINGS/Make functions/Increment "Data block checksum" +
PTRINCS/relative/Previous line + 2
PTRINCS/relative/Previous line + 3

```

```

;Next line + 1
;Get calculated to hex
;Get appropriate size to longword
;Use a longword long accumulator
;AND out unwanted bits
;Don't abort if above returned zero
;Save result in buffer "A"
;Move to next line
;Get longword long accumulator
;AND out unwanted bits
;Don't abort zero if above returned zero
;Save result in buffer "B"
;Whatever is in accumulator, add to
;itself!
;Don't abort zero if above returned
;zero
;Logically OR with contents of
;buffer "A"
;AND logical test
;Move up the line
;If zero content, using address from
;above, use the lines
;Get longword at cursor position
;AND out unwanted bits
;Don't abort zero if above returned
;zero
;Whatever is in accumulator, add to
;itself.
;Don't abort zero if above returned
;zero
;Save result in buffer "B"
;Move down one line
;Get longword at cursor position
;AND out unwanted bits
;Logically OR with contents of
;buffer "B"
;Move up one line
;Add one to the next
;Create comment, as an accumulator
;Move down 8 lines

```

Listing Five
Convert MFM sector to
HEX macro

```

%REORG/Copy/Clip #2
PTRINCS/Get/Current offset
PTRINCS/Make functions/Add %0000
CURSOR/absolute/Specify offset $1B,$1E
STRINGS/Get/Current longword
PTRINCS/relative/function/logical AND %00000000
LOCAL MACROS/Directives/End conditional

SOURCE/swap with buffer, / A
CURSOR/End/Clip #2
PTRINCS/Get/Current longword
PTRINCS/Make functions/Logical AND %00000000
LOCAL MACROS/Directives/End conditional

STRINGS/Make functions/Add $1B,$1E

LOCAL MACROS/Directives/End conditional

STRINGS/Make functions/Increment "B" $1B,$1C

%ORI MACROS/Directives/End conditional

LABEL/Create string/Full-line comment $1B,$1E
CURSOR/relative/Next line + 1

```

```

;increment this pointer!
;Move down 8
;Add sector size to current pointer
;B+8 then!
;Get longword at cursor position
;AND out unwanted bits
;Don't abort zero if above returned
;zero
;Save result in buffer "B"
;Use back to original pointer
;Get longword at cursor position
;AND out unwanted bits
;Don't abort zero if above returned
;zero
;Whatever is in accumulator, add to
;itself.
;Don't abort zero if above returned
;zero
;Logically OR with contents of
;buffer "B"
;Don't abort zero if above returns
;zero
;Create end-of-line comment
;Move down one line

```

Listing Six
Convert MFM 128 times
macro

```
STARTS/Ends with: G "128"  
LOCAL MACROS/See macro label/*  
CONST VALUES/constant: 1#14)  
GOTO/Stop with number: / 4  
STARTS/Make functions/branches...  
STOPS/Stop with buffer: / 5  
LOCAL MACROS/Function name: label/*
```

```
/Number of times to repeat  
/Mark this position in macro  
/Macro function to be labelled  
/Repeat number of 1. buffer "0"  
/Subtract 1 (unless number is decimal)  
/Repeat accumulator with number "N"  
/Repeat until zero
```



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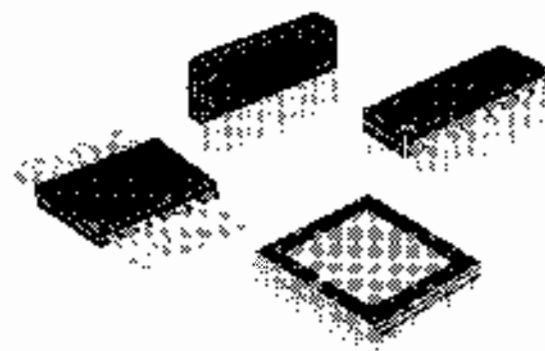
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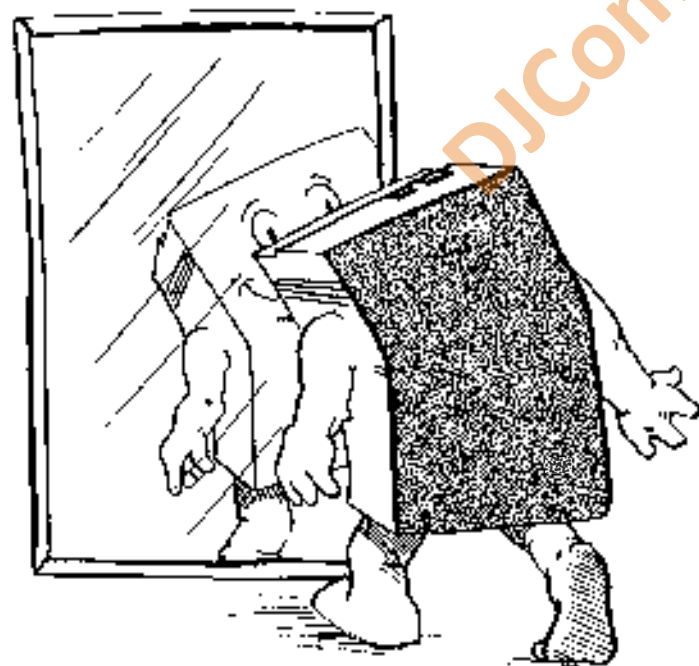
The Use of Recursive Programming Techniques in Conjunction With DOS and EDIT for Hard Disk Backup

by Mark D. Pordie, PhD

The objectives of this article are:

- (1) To demonstrate the use of recursive programming techniques;*
- (2) To also demonstrate the use of files as "templates" for EDIT commands; and*
- (3) To present an example hard disk utility developed using only DOS commands and the EDIT line editor.*

This utility was developed for a particular Amiga configuration, and as such, is useful only as a demonstration of the concepts discussed here, unless it is customized to work with other configurations.



Introduction

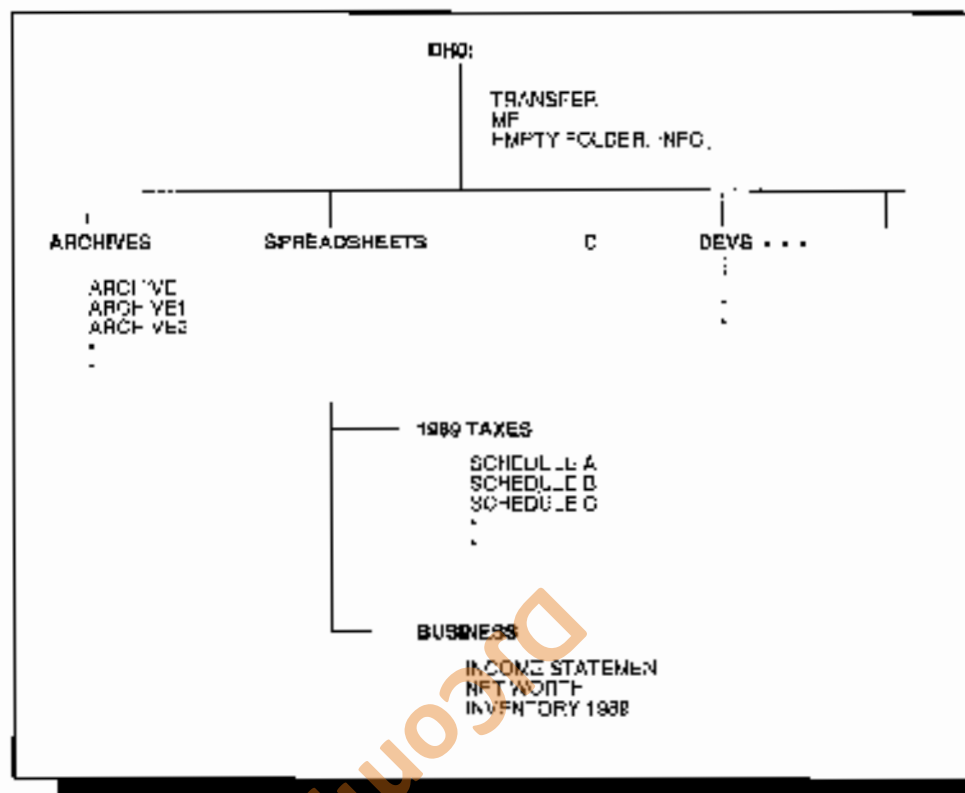
The development of this hard disk backup utility came about one day as I attempted to justify keeping the line editor EDIT on my hard disk, in addition to Ed and TextEd which are my workhorse editors. Further, I had been trying for several months to find a utility that would allow me to back up my primary hard disk (DHO) to my secondary hard disk (JHO)—an IBM hard disk connected through the A2088 Bridgeboard on my Amiga 2000. Now, I realize that I could copy all files from DHO to JHO every time that I wanted to do an incremental backup, but this is an unacceptably lengthy process. I could also buy a C compiler (or other language software) and write a backup program, but I didn't want to spend the money. Finally, I could use good old AmigaBASIC, but I just don't like it that much (so much for user preferences).

So, I decided to investigate developing the hard disk backup utility using DOS, thinking that would provide an easy, straightforward solution. I'm not sure how easy it was, but by doing it, I learned a lot of useful details about DOS, EDIT, and recursive programming techniques. The purpose of this article is to pass some of that information along to other Amiga users, and hopefully provide a simple hard disk backup utility that people can use until such time as they can afford a good commercial backup program.

Hard Disk Backup Using DOS Functions

As you know, AmigaDOS has no built-in backup function such as first found in MS-DOS. There are several commercial

Figure 1
Example
Directory/
Subdirectory
Structure



backup programs available, but I wanted to build one myself, using only DOS functions. I did not want the files compressed, in fact, I wanted the same file and directory structure on the backup disk so that I could immediately operate directly from that disk if my primary disk failed. The COPY and PROTECT commands can be used to first copy a file and then set the "archive" bit for that file. However, there is no direct way to have the COPY command copy only those files that do not have their archive bit set (i.e., those files that have changed since they were last archived).

AmigaDOS does provide a way to get a list of files and the status of their archive bits through the LIST command. The LFORMAT option of the LIST command even lets the user tailor the output to a degree. However, there is no method to have the LIST command list only those files with archive bit not set.

One solution to this problem is to use the LIST command to redirect the output to a file, then to edit that file with the line editor EDIT to develop a list of those files with archive bit not set. Finally, this list of files can be further edited to insert "COPY" before each filename to create a script file for copying those files that have changed since the last backup. Executing this script file copies the changed files, and then the files only need to have their archive bit set to indicate that they have now been backed up. Unfortunately, there is no easy way to accomplish this (again unlike MS-DOS, which allows the copy and archive bit setting to take place together, using the XCOPY command). However, we can repeat a part of our process above, substituting "PROTECT +a" for the word "COPY" in the last file edit.

A Special Feature of Edit, the Line Editor

At this point in the development process, a problem arose: "How do I edit the file listings output from the LIST command?" The same editing commands have to be used every time the backup utility program is run, but I definitely wanted the editing to be automatic. The surest way there are other ways to automate such a process using ALIAS, C, or Modula-2, but not having any of these tools (like many Amiga owners, I'm sure), I turned to EDIT.

As mentioned above, one day I was doing housekeeping on my hard disk, trying my hardest to find a reason to keep EDIT on the disk. I use Ed and Emacs regularly, and one more line editor seemed unnecessary. But I kept EDIT on my hard disk, due mainly to its unique capability to edit one file using another file of EDIT commands. Later, I used it in developing this utility.

Recursion

The basic program structure was now established. The LIST command could be used to list just the files in a directory, using the FILES option, and then these files could be backed up. The LIST command could then be repeated to list only subdirectories in this particular directory, using the DIRS option. At this point, the entire process of listing files, backing them up, then listing the subdirectories in the directory needed to be repeated for each of the subdirectories in the first (sub)directory encountered (see Figure 1). This process would go on and on until the bottom of the directory tree was reached. The program must return to the top of the tree and then repeat the process.

over and over, until all directories have been backed up. This type of program lends itself to a technique known as recursion.

Recursion is the process whereby, in the execution of a program, that program calls itself repeatedly until execution is complete. In the case of a backup utility, the program need only back up one directory, then go into each of its subdirectories and call itself. When it calls itself in the first subdirectory, that subdirectory becomes the directory that the newly-called program acts upon. The original calling program waits until the called program has completed its backup of the first subdirectory before it proceeds to backing up the second subdirectory, by calling itself again. The power of recursion, though, lies in the fact that as part of the process of backing up the first subdirectory, the newly-called program may have to call itself to back up a subdirectory of that subdirectory. This nesting of calling and called programs is limited only by the capabilities of the machine that the program is running on, and such things as stack size.

This process of recursion makes our job of developing a backup utility that much easier. We only need to develop a simple program that will back up one directory and then call itself to back up its subdirectories. That program must:

- (1) list the files that are to be archived;
- (2) copy those files;
- (3) set the archive bit of the files;
- (4) list the subdirectories, and
- (5) go into each subdirectory and call itself.

That is the entire process. The recursion ensures that all files in all subdirectories are backed up, no matter how complicated the directory structure. The process is started, and each piece of the process stops when it is completed. The very first calling program automatically stops executing when all called programs have completed execution. The calling and called programs are simply different invocations of the same program. All of these invocations are kept track of by the operating system.

That's all there is to recursion. It has an almost magical way of performing a complicated task with a very simple program. It just breaks down a complicated task into smaller, less complicated tasks, each of which is accomplished by the same simple program.

Details of the Hard Disk Backup Utility

The backup utility is started by a script file appropriately called BACKUP. The listing for BACKUP is shown in Figure 2. It first clears the screen, then uses PROTECT to set the archive bit for any file that is not to be backed up (in my case, an MS-DOS backup file). Next, it displays a message that the backup is beginning. Then, the recursive program ARCHIVE is called. This is the program that actually performs the backup; it will be discussed in detail below. It resides in the ARCHIVES directory along with all of the support files required for its operation. When the ARCHIVE program has finished execution (i.e., the backup is complete), that message is displayed, temporary working files are deleted, and the directory is changed to the desired current directory (in my case, D:\).

The listing for the ARCHIVE program is shown in Figure 3. Each line of the program will be explained separately below.

- (1) .KEY path, slash

As you can see, the parameters <path> and <slash> are passed to the program via .KEY. The <path> and <slash> parameters are appended to the phrases "DH" and "FH", and are passed down through the recursive calling of the program. BACKUP passes the initial values of <path> as 0 and <slash> as /. Later, those parameters are used to give the phrases "D:\0" and "F:\0", the desired source drive and destination drive, respectively. This somewhat unorthodox setting of these parameters is required to support the rest of the program calls. For example, in later calls of the program, <path> could be set to 0:\spreadsheets and <slash> could be set to /. This allows the filename TAXES to be appended to the phrases to give "D:\0:\spreadsheets\TAXES" and "F:\0:\spreadsheets\TAXES" for source filename and destination filename, respectively. This will be demonstrated as more of the program details are explained below.

- (2) .DEF slash /

Except for the first invocation of the program when <slash> is set to /, all other occurrences of <slash> are desired to be the slash symbol used to set up directories. By declaring the default value of <slash> to be / we do not need to pass it to future calls to ARCHIVE.

FIGURE 2
STARTUP FILE FOR HARD DISK BACKUP UTILITY

```

DIS
ECHO "ARCHIVING YOUR DOS BACKUP" &
ECHO * *
ECHO *   BEGINNING BACKUP *
ECHO * *
SETTIME D:\ARCHIVES\ARCHIVE 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
ECHO * *
ECHO *   BACKUP COMPLETE *
ECHO * *
DEL %TEMP%\*.*
DEL %ARCHIVES%
DEL %ARCHIVES%\*.*
DEL %ARCHIVES%\*.*
CD D:\

```


(3) PAUSE 30

The relacode must be set to at least 30 to allow execution of the program to continue if an error occurs in the FDT commands or the PROTECT. This can occur when FDT tries to find a match in the file listing (described below) and one is not found, which in this program just means that all files in a particular directory have not changed since the last backup. And, when used for some older software such as Graphical, the PROTECT fails and an error is generated. These programs never have their archive bit set, and subsequently are backed up every time you execute the backup program. This causes no harm, and in both of these cases it is desirable to have the program continue executing because these errors have no effect on the proper operation of the program.

(4) CD "DH<path><slash>"

This command changes execution to the new directory that is to be backed up. The quote marks around the phrase allow filenames and directory names with a space to be used (reflects MS-DOS conventions). As discussed above, <path> continues adding more levels of the path as each instance of ARCHIVE is called. For example:

```
1st call: CD "c:\a"
2nd call: CD "c:\a\spreadsheet/"
3rd call: CD "c:\a\spreadsheet\1988\
          program"
```

This concept applies throughout the program recursion wherever <path> and <slash> occur.

(5) IF <slash> EQ /

The next piece of code creates the target directory, if it doesn't exist. However, we don't want to do that during the very first call to ARCHIVE where <slash> is equal to / and we are backing up files in D:\0. Therefore, we use the IF statement to execute the next piece of code only if <slash> is equal to / (not equal to /).

(6) IF NOT EXIST "JH<path>"

We want to create the target directory if it does not exist.

(7) ECHO "MAKING DIRECTORY JH<path>"

Lets the user know that the target directory is being made.

(8) MD "JH<path>"

Makes the target directory.

(9) EXIT

End of the piece of code that makes the new target directory if it doesn't exist.

(10) ENDIF

ends the piece of code below the check for <slash> equal to /.

(11) LIST > RAM;ARCHIVE% NOHEAD FILES

All files in the current directory are listed. The file listing is accomplished through the LIST command using only the NOHEAD and FILES option. The NOHEAD option deletes the header information normally found in the listing using the LIST

FIGURE 4
SUPPORT FILES FOR HARD DISK BACKUP UTILITY

```
ARCHIVE1
CODE=000001

ARCHIVE2
CODE=000002

ARCHIVE3
CODE=000003
DIR=C:\DOS\SYSTEM\ARCHIVE\1988\12\12\spreadsheet\1988\
program

ARCHIVE4
DIR=C:\DOS\SYSTEM\ARCHIVE\1988\12\12\

ARCHIVE5
CODE=000005
DIR=C:\DOS\SYSTEM\ARCHIVE\1988\12\12\spreadsheet\1988\
program

ARCHIVE6
CODE=000006
DIR=C:\DOS\SYSTEM\ARCHIVE\1988\12\12\spreadsheet\1988\
program

ARCHIVE7
CODE=000007
DIR=C:\DOS\SYSTEM\ARCHIVE\1988\12\12\spreadsheet\1988\
program
```

command, and the FILES system lists only files, no directories. The output of the LIST command is redirected into a file called ARCHLIST (in RAM for speed).

FIGURE 5 EXAMPLE OUTPUT LISTING FROM STEP (11)

```

TRANSPER      11  Wed 24-Mar-89 10:23:07
DIR:ARCHIVE1  874  Wed 24-Mar-89 12:16:35
SystemInfo    2372 Wed 17-Sep-89 20:04:21
EmptyFolderInfo  779  Wed 17-Sep-89 20:05:18
RAM:ARCHIVE1  259  Wed 17-Sep-89 19:15:07
DIR:ARCHIVE2  3685 Wed 10-Sep-89 15:02:19
PC-20         26  Wed 16-Oct-88 18:11:40
BackupCache   56125 Wed 10-Sep-89 1:44:15
InstallInfo   1156 Wed 10-Sep-89 1:26:43
ExpansionInfo  106  Wed 10-Sep-89 1:14:47
DiskInfo      109  Wed 10-Sep-89 1:01:54
Temp         271  Wed Today 17:58:41
DIR:FILES:Temp  104  Wed 10-Sep-89 15:05:42
SystemInfo    104  Wed 10-Sep-89 15:05:43
SystemCacheInfo  104  Wed 10-Sep-89 15:05:58
EmptyFolderInfo  104  Wed 10-Sep-89 15:06:19
DIR:FILES:CacheInfo  104  Wed 10-Sep-89 15:11:09
EmptyFolderInfo  2916 Wed 17-Sep-89 20:05:13
EmptyFolderInfo  1210 Wed 16-Sep-89 15:48:51

```

FIGURE 6 OUTPUT LISTING FROM STEP (12)

```

TRANSPER      23  Wed 24-Mar-89 10:23:07
DIR:ARCHIVE1  3685 Wed 10-Sep-89 15:02:19
DIR:ARCHIVE2  272  Wed Today 17:58:41
EmptyFolderInfo  2916 Wed 17-Sep-89 20:05:13

```

(13) EDIT > NIL: RAM:ARCHLIST WITH DIR:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVE2 TO RAM:ARCHLIST

This command is very similar to the one above. It edits the edited filelist generated above by using ARCHIVE2 (Figure 4). The objective of this EDIT command is to close up the "garbage" left in our filelist to result in a simple list of files.

The command "DIR:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVE2:"

```

0 starts at the top of the file
DEP deletes every line when it reaches
/ / the string in the line
: ends the DE edit command
D deletes the text up to the "garbage"
: writes the 2 deleted lines out again
: accepts the DE and D sequence.

```

This continues until the end of the file is reached. The resulting edited filelist is shown in Figure 7 and contains just the list of files that we need to back up. This edited filelist is stored back in RAM:ARCHLIST.

FIGURE 7 OUTPUT LISTING FROM STEP (13)

```

TRANSPER
DIR:ARCHIVE1
DIR:ARCHIVE2
EmptyFolderInfo

```

(12) EDIT > NIL: RAM:ARCHLIST WITH DIR:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVE1 TO RAM:TEMP

This is where the first EDIT command is executed. The redirection to NIL keeps all EDIT messages from appearing on the screen (reduces screen clutter and unnecessary information). The filelist in ARCHLIST is edited using the command stored in ARCHIVE1, shown in Figure 4. An example ARCHLIST is shown in Figure 5. We want to delete any line in the filelist that has the protection bit "r" missing. We will key on the protection bits field and assume that all files that we want to back up are readable so that the protection bit "r" is set. Therefore, any filelist line with "r" in the protection bits field designates a file we want to back up, and all others we will assume are either already backed up ("r") or are unbackable ("a"). There is one glitch in this, in that a "r" in the filename itself will also be backed up, whether desired or not. This is a small price to pay for the simplicity, and for most users this will probably not be a problem.

The command "DIR:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVE1:"

```

0 starts at the top of the file
DEP deletes every line in ARCHLIST until
/r/ the string /r/ is found, leaves that line
: ends the DE edit command
D deletes text to the next line
: accepts the DE delete and next line sequence.

```

(14) IF NOT WARN

This statement causes the program to skip the next piece of code, which copies and sets the archive bits of the files to be backed up if a WARN returncode is returned by the previous command. If the first edited filelist contains no files (i.e., none of the files in the directory have changed since the last backup), RAM:TEMP will have no entries. When the previous EDIT command is called, an empty file TEMP will cause a WARN returncode.

(15) EDIT > NIL: RAM:ARCHTEMP WITH DIR:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVE5 TO RAM:TEMP

This command is similar to the others above. It edits the edited filelist generated above by using ARCHIVE5 (Figure 6). The objective of this EDIT command is to add the COPY command in front of each filename in our filelist to come up with a script file to perform the actual backup.

The command "D:\ED:ARCHIVES\ARCHIVE5.WT" DO
"D:\TEMP\ARCHTEMP" IS ARCHIVE5:

```

0       starts at the top of the file
1       search line and insert before the string
//      moving the beginning of the line
COPY   inserts the COPY command and the path
DIRpath inserts path
//      the beginning slash for path
//      end of phrase to insert at this point
2       move the // search and insert before backward
3       insert // at end of insert string
4       begin search from // and insert string
//      actually the end of the line
5       insert the // keyword and the slash
//      the // path phrase
//      the destination string for path
//      end of phrase to insert at this point
6       end the // search and insert after command
//      move line to the next line
7       return the file to a command

```

This continues until the end of the file is reached. The resulting edited COPY script file is shown in Figure 8. It contains just the list of COPY commands to copy the files that we need to back up from the source DIR<path><slash> and to the destination DIR<path><slash>, as we desire. This edited COPY script file is stored in RAM:ARCHTEMP because we still have to add .KEY with <path> and <slash> to the script file for it to work properly.

FIGURE 8
OUTPUT LISTING FROM STEP (15)

```

COPY DIR<path><slash>DIRTEMPEN" DO "DIRpath<slash>COPY"
COPY DIR<path><slash>DIR" DO "DIRpath<slash>COPY"
COPY DIR<path><slash>INFO" DO "DIRpath<slash>COPY"
COPY DIR<path><slash>Empty Folder\Info" DO
"DIRpath<slash>
```

(16) EDIT > NIL: RAM:TEMP WITH DIR:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVE4 TO RAM:ARCHCOPY

This command takes care of the last item identified above—it adds .KEY with the required parameters. It also edits the initial script file generated above by using ARCHIVE4 (Figure 9).

The command "D:\ED:ARCHIVES\ARCHIVE4.WT" DO
RECEIVE:

```

//      inserts at the top of the file
//      //      the contents of file ARCHIVEKEY
```

The contents of the ARCHIVEKEY file is .KEY and the parameters required for the script file, <path> and <slash>. The W command in ARCHIVE4 completes the editing, and is required when the E command uses a file for the inserted text. The resulting complete COPY script file is shown in Figure 9 and is stored in RAM:ARCHCOPY.

FIGURE 9
OUTPUT LISTING FROM STEP (16)

```

//      DIRpath<slash>DIRTEMPEN" DO "DIRpath<slash>COPY"
//      DIRpath<slash>DIR" DO "DIRpath<slash>COPY"
//      DIRpath<slash>INFO" DO "DIRpath<slash>COPY"
//      DIRpath<slash>Empty Folder\Info" DO "DIRpath<slash>COPY"

```

(17) EXEC "COPY STENS FROM DIR<path><slash>"

This command lets the user know which directory is being backed up. With a little more work, you could just as easily point out the name of each program being copied, but to reduce screen clutter I chose to only display the directory.

(18) EXECUTE RAM:ARCHCOPY "<path>" <slash>

This command executes the script file that we developed above to do the copying for this particular directory. Notice that the path variable (the complete path name for this directory) is passed to the script file with quotes to allow for spaces, and the slash variable is also passed.

(19) EDIT > NIL: RAM:ARCHLIST WITH DIR:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVE5 DO RAM:ARCHPROTECT

This command edits the edited filelist generated several steps above by using ARCHIVE5 (Figure 10). The objective of this EDIT command is to add the PROTECT command in front of each filename in our filelist to come up with a script file to set the archive bit for each of the files that we backed up.

The edited PROTECT script file is shown in Figure 10.

```

C       starts at the top of the file
D       search line and insert before the string
//      nothing (the beginning of the line)
PROJECT inserts the ARCHIVE command and the
//      explains how to allow spaces in file names
//      end of phrase to insert at this point
//      sets the D search with "AND" instead of "OR"
A       search for "and" instead of "or"
//      sets a search from the left until the
//      nothing (the end of the line)
//      inserts a new space for "and" and a space
//      at the end of the line and the archive bit
//      and all other to insert at this point
//      sets the B search and "OR" after "AND"
D       goes down to the next line
//      repeats the A and B sequence.

```

This continues until the end of the file is reached. The resulting edited PROTECT script file is shown in Figure 10. It contains just the list of PROJECT commands to set the archive bit for each of the files that we backed up. This edited COPY script file is stored in RAM:ARCHPROTECT.

FIGURE 10
OUTPUT LISTING FROM STEP (19)

```

COPY RAM:PROTECT =>
PROJECT *COPY =>
PROJECT *ARCHIVE =>
PROJECT *COPY Folder.info =>

```

(20) EXECUTE RAM:ARCHPROTECT

This command executes the script file that we developed above to set the archive bit of the backed up files using the PROTECT command. Notice that we do not have to pass either the path variable (the complete path name for this directory) or the slash variable to the script file. That is because we are setting the archive bit for files in our current directory, rather than performing actions across drives as above.

(21) END

This ends the section of the program that backs up the files in our current directory. Next, we will go into each of the subdirectories in the current directory and back them up separately.

(22) LIST > RAM:ARCHLIST NOHEAD DIRS

All subdirectories in the current directory are listed. The subdirectory listing is accomplished through the LIST command using only the NOHEAD and DIRS option. The NOHEAD option deletes the header information normally found in the listing

using the LIST command, and the DIRS option lists only directories, no files. The output of the LIST command is redirected into RAM:ARCHLIST. An example directory list is shown in Figure 11.

FIGURE 11
OUTPUT LISTING FROM STEP (22)

ARCHIVES	DIR	RAM:ARCHIVE	18:24:48
System	DIR	RAM:ARCHIVE	18:24:48
Utilities	DIR	RAM:ARCHIVE	19:25:02
Spreadsheet	DIR	RAM:ARCHIVE	19:25:02
Word Processing	DIR	RAM:ARCHIVE	19:25:02
?	DIR	RAM:ARCHIVE	20:24:08
Empty Folder	DIR	MOVED 12-Jan-89	19:25:02
Tools	DIR	MOVED Archive	19:25:04
ADP	DIR	MOVED 27-Feb-89	20:24:08
Library	DIR	MOVED 30-Mar-89	18:24:48
Database	DIR	MOVED 30-Mar-89	18:24:48
C	DIR	MOVED Monday	20:24:08
L	DIR	MOVED 30-Mar-89	18:24:48
Dem	DIR	MOVED Monday	19:25:02
?	DIR	MOVED Holiday	20:24:08
Temp	DIR	MOVED 18-Nov-89	22:23:08
Specialist	DIR	MOVED 17-May-89	20:24:08
Administrative	DIR	MOVED 11-Dec-89	18:24:48

(23) MOVE > NIL: RAM:ARCHLIST WITH
DIR:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVE2 TO RAM:TEMP

This is where the first MOVE command is executed for the list of subdirectories in the current directory. The command edits the directory list generated above by using ARCHIVE2 (Figure 9). This step is the same as step (13) above and simply deletes the "garbage" at the end of each line in the listing, as shown in Figure 12.

FIGURE 12
OUTPUT LISTING FROM STEP (23)

```

ARCHIVES
System
Utilities
Spreadsheet
Word Processing
?
Library
Tools
ADP
C
L
Dem
?
Temp
Specialist
Administrative

```

(24) IF ERROR

This statement causes the program to skip to the end of the program if an ERROR returncode is returned by the previous command. If the edited directory list contains no directores (i.e., there are no subdirectories in the current directory), RAM:ARCTLIST will have not executed. When the previous EDIT command is called, an empty file ARCTLIST will cause an ERROR returncode.

FIGURE 13
OUTPUT LISTING FROM STEP (27)

```
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>ARCTLIST"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>System"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Utilitier"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Spreadsheets"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Word Processing"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Empty Folder"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Forms"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>ARF"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Empty"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Error"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Expansion"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Accessories"
```

(25) SKIP END

This statement skips program execution to the END label at the end of the program - we are done picking up the current directory. All files have been backed up and there are no subdirectories to back up.

(26) ENDIF

This is the end of the IF statement for checking on subdirectories.

(27) EDIT > NIL: RAM:TEMP WITH DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVE6 TO RAM:ARCTLIST

This command edits the edited directory list generated above by using ARCHIVE6 (Figure 4). The objective of this EDIT command is to add a command in front of each directory name in our directory list to develop a script file to execute this very same ARCTIVE program we are describing. This is the recursive nature of the program discussed previously.

The command EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR *%path%<slash>ARCTLIST" in ARCHIVE6:

```
1 starts at the top of the file
2 search line and insert before the string
3 nothing into beginning of the line
EXECUTE inserts the EXECUTE command and the
DHD: ... filename to be executed
4 following code to allow space to go into
5 pathname of the current directory
6 delete / for separating directory and filename
7 and substitute the actual device
8 code the B search and insert before inserted
9 search line and insert enter
10 begin second line and wait until end
11 nothing into end of the line
12 inserts the ending quote for the filename
13 end of phrase to insert at this point
14 ends the A search and insert after insert
15 comes down to the next line
16 repeats the B and A sequence.
```

Notice that the delimiters we use with this EDIT command have changed from / to * to allow / characters to be used in the inserted phrase. This edit continues on each line of the file until the end of the file is reached. The resulting edited directory list is shown in Figure 13. It contains the list of EXECUTE commands to execute a script file named ARCHIVEDIR (shown in Figure 4) for each subdirectory in the current directory. This edited EXECUTE script file is stored in RAM:ARCTLIST because we still have to add KEY with %path% and %slash% to the script file for it to work properly.

FIGURE 14
OUTPUT LISTING FROM STEP (28)

```
KEY %path%<slash>
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>ARCHIVES"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>System"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Utilitier"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Spreadsheets"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Word Processing"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Empty Folder"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Forms"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>ARF"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Empty"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Error"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Error"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Expansion"
EXECUTE DHD:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR  *%path%<slash>Accessories"
```

```
(28) EXECUTE > NH:RAM:ARCHIVIST WITH  
DIR:ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR TO ARCHDIRS
```

This command takes care of the last item identified above—it adds .KEY with the required parameters, and is the same as step (16) above. The resulting complete EXECUTE script file is shown in Figure 14 and is stored in ARCHDIRS. Notice that this file is not stored in RAM, but in the current directory. Thus, as we go down through the subdirectories, making an ARCHDIRS for each one of them, we can keep them separate until we complete the backup.

```
(29) EXECUTE "DH<path><slash>ARCHIVEDIR"  
" <path>" <slash>
```

This command executes the script file that we developed above to back up each subdirectory in this particular directory. Notice that the path variable (the complete pathname for this directory) is passed to the script file with quotes to allow for spaces, and the slash variable is also passed. Looking at the file ARCHDIRS that we created (Figure 14), notice that for each directory, we execute another script file named ARCH.VEDIR (see Figure 4) in the ARCHIVES directory. While this seems like an unnecessarily complex nesting, it is required to keep the <path>, <slash> and <dir> parameters separate. Each EXECUTE command in the developed script file/directory list ARCHDIRS passes a parameter to ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR that serves as <dir>. That parameter consists of the original <path> and <slash> parameters appended to the subdirectory name with quotes around the entire parameter to allow for spaces in the pathname.

For example, suppose we are backing up a directory named "Spreadsheets" which has a subdirectory named "1989 Taxes". The <path> parameter is "DH0:Spreadsheets" the <slash> parameter is /. The parameter passed as <dir> would be "DH0:Spreadsheets/1989 Taxes". Now, this parameter is used as the new <path> parameter for the newly-called instance of ARCHIVES/ARCHIVE done by ARCHIVES/ARCHIVEDIR. The new <slash> parameter is specified by default in line (2) of ARCHIVE to be /, which is what we want. The process starts all over for this new directory, which is the technique of recursion.

```
(30) DEL "DH<path><slash>ARCHDIRS"
```

When the whole EXECUTE script in ARCHDIRS of the current directory is completed, all of the lower-level subdirectories in the current directory have been completely backed up. Therefore, we no longer need the working file ARCHDIRS stored in our current directory, and can delete it with this command.

```
(31) LAB END
```

This completes the backup of the current directory—all files in the directory were backed up in step (18) and each of the subdirectories were backed up in step (29), through the use of recursive calls to this same program.

Conclusion

This program is rather simple in concept, as it:

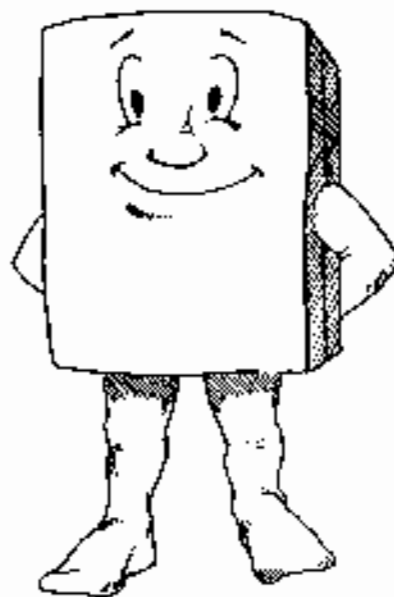
- (1) backs up all of the files in a directory,
- (2) calls the program again for each subdirectory to backup its own files,
- (3) calls the program again for each of its subdirectories to backup those subdirectory's files,
- (4) calls the program again, etc.

You get the picture: it's kind of like playing two mirrors facing each other and looking at the never-ending reflections. The difference in this case is that when the last subdirectory is backed up, the last instance of the program ends, ending the next-to-last instance of the program, and so on, until the first instance of the program that started, for which process ends.



About the Author

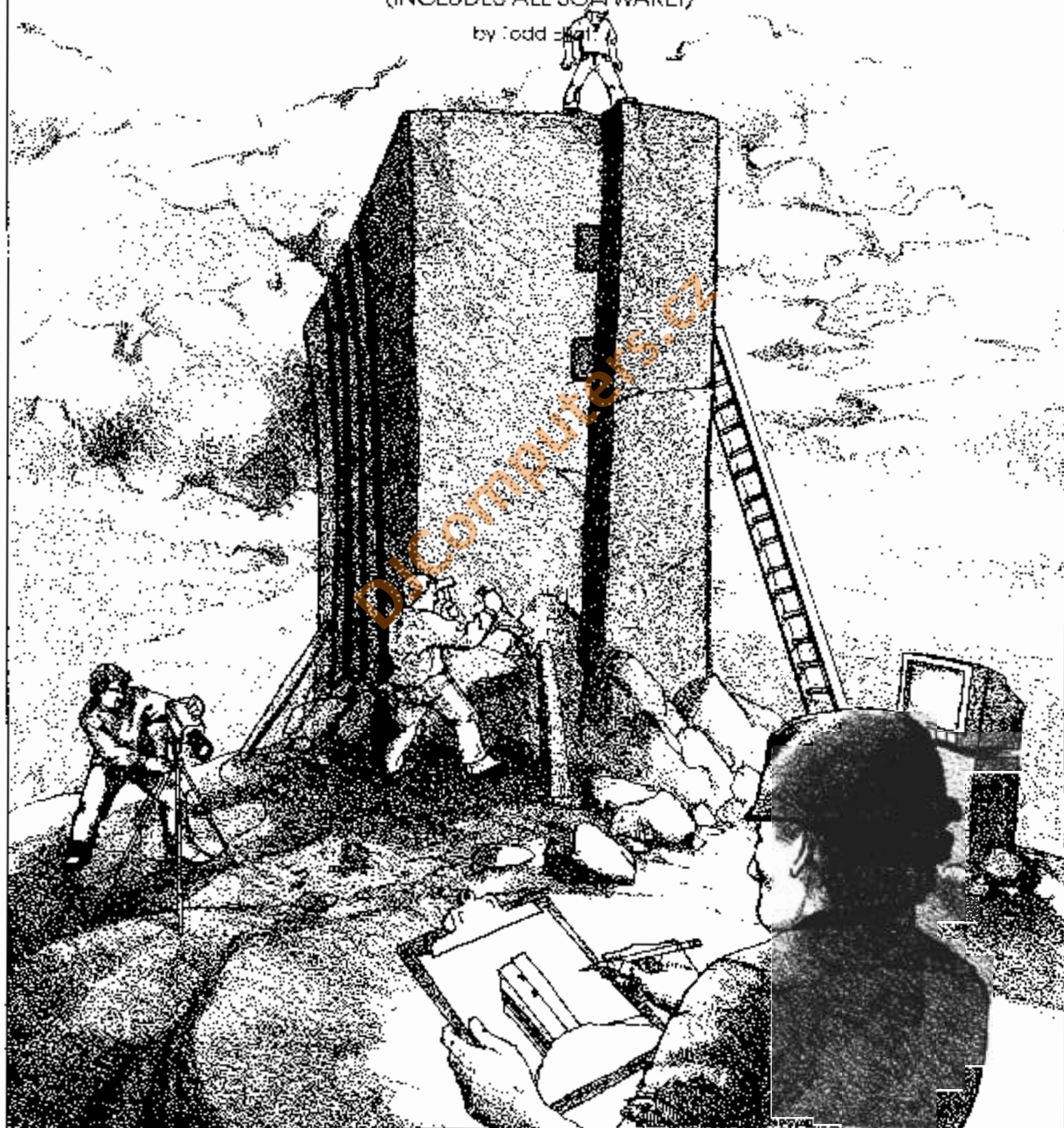
Dr. Pardue is presently an Assistant Professor of Computer Engineering at Old Dominion University, at Norfolk, Virginia. He has been using an Amiga since he bought an Amiga 1000 in 1985, and now uses an Amiga 2000 equipped with a 40 MB Amiga hard disk and an A2088 Bridgeboard, with a 32 MB IBM hard disk. You can contact Dr. Pardue c/o AC's TECH.



BUILDING THE VIDCELL 256 GRAYSCALE DIGITIZER

(INCLUDES ALL SOFTWARE!)

by Todd E. Hall



Building the Vidcell & Using the Vidcell Software

BUILDING THE VIDCELL

OVERVIEW

One of the best things that people appreciate about the Amiga is its great video capabilities. The new trend in computer video is the digitizing of 24-bit color (8 bits each for red, green, and blue) images. Digitizing is useful for a variety of things, such as placing pictures in your reports, creating a database of images, or placing pictures in your programs.

Digitizing is usually accomplished either by using a color camera, or a black-and-white camera with color filters. This gives the user images of more than 70 million (2 to the 26th power) colors. The most popular video digitizer presently available for the Amiga is a 7-bit (214-bit color) digitizer; it is only capable of displaying 3.1 million colors, however. Color scanners can be used to achieve the new 24-bit images, but these expensive peripherals can not fit into everyone's budget.

This article will show you how to build an 8-bit color digitizer for less than \$80 (with a professional circuit board, the software), capable of twice as many grayscales as the most popular commercial digitizer now available for the Amiga. If you can solder or know someone who does, you should be able to complete this project without any difficulty.

FROM CAMERA TO COMPUTER

A camera converts an image's light intensity into an analog signal. Before an image can be used by a computer, the analog signal must itself be converted into digital values that represent the analog intensity. This process is known as A/D conversion. In this case, the video digitizer performs this function. The analog signal from a camera is fed into the video digitizer for conversion. The converted values are then fed to the Amiga computer via the parallel port. Once the video data is in the computer's memory, it can then be manipulated in many different ways, and also displayed. The information can even be saved as an TIFF picture file for future use with any of the image software packages.

THEORY OF OPERATION

Please refer to the schematic accompanying this article. The video signal from the RS-170 video source (camera, VCR, etc.) is fed to the input of C1. C1 filters out the horizontal and vertical sync signals from the video source. These signals are used to synchronize both the circuitry and the computer to the incoming video information. The computer waits for a vertical

sync via pin 0 of the parallel port. Once the signal is received, we know that the camera is at the top of the picture and it is time to start converting the information. Video information is too fast for the computer to keep up with through the parallel port, so this digitizer uses a left-to-right, slow-scan process. The information is collected in vertical columns from left to right at a rate of 1 column every 1/60th of a second. Since there are 640 columns of video on the Amiga, it takes 640 times 1/60th of a second, or 10.6 seconds, to digitize a complete image.

The timing for the left-to-right scan is controlled by the charging of C4. The voltage across C4 is initially brought to zero volts before digitizing is started. This grounding action is accomplished by using the analog switch U4a, controlled by pin 12 of the parallel port. As C4 is allowed to charge, its voltage determines the delay value of the one-shot U2. The horizontal sync signals from U1 are fed to the trigger input of the one-shot U2. This trigger signal occurs once at the beginning of each horizontal line. The output of the one-shot U2 is delayed by the voltage across C4 and fed to the sample-and-hold section of the circuit (U3, U4, and U5). U5 of the sample-and-hold circuit now holds the analog value of one individual pixel. This analog value is then filtered and fed to the input of the A/D converter U6. U6 converts this value to a digital binary number, which is then made available to the computer via pins 2 through 9 of the parallel port. This process is continued until all 640 vertical columns are collected. Once all the information is in the computer's memory, the binary values for each pixel may be manipulated and displayed. For example, if you want to increase the brightness of the picture, you can add a constant value to each pixel value and display it.

BUILDING THE UNIT

The circuit can be built using the wire-wrapping technique, but I strongly recommend using a printed circuit board, for several reasons. First and most important, the unit works better with a printed circuit board due to RF noise reduction. It is also much easier to put it together without causing mistakes, since the circuit board has silk-screened labels for all the parts. Using a printed circuit board also makes the unit much more compact and professional looking. The parts may be ordered from DIG-KEY, or I can supply the parts with the circuit board (see the complete parts list accompanying this article). I recommend using high-quality parts and sockets for

the circuit. This will maximize the performance of your digitizer.

In addition to the parts and circuit board, you will also need a small-tip soldering iron and some quality solder. To aid in the assembly of the components, use a ruler to mark off a distance of .3 inches on a piece of paper. Then, use this as a guide for bending the leads of the components to the right width.

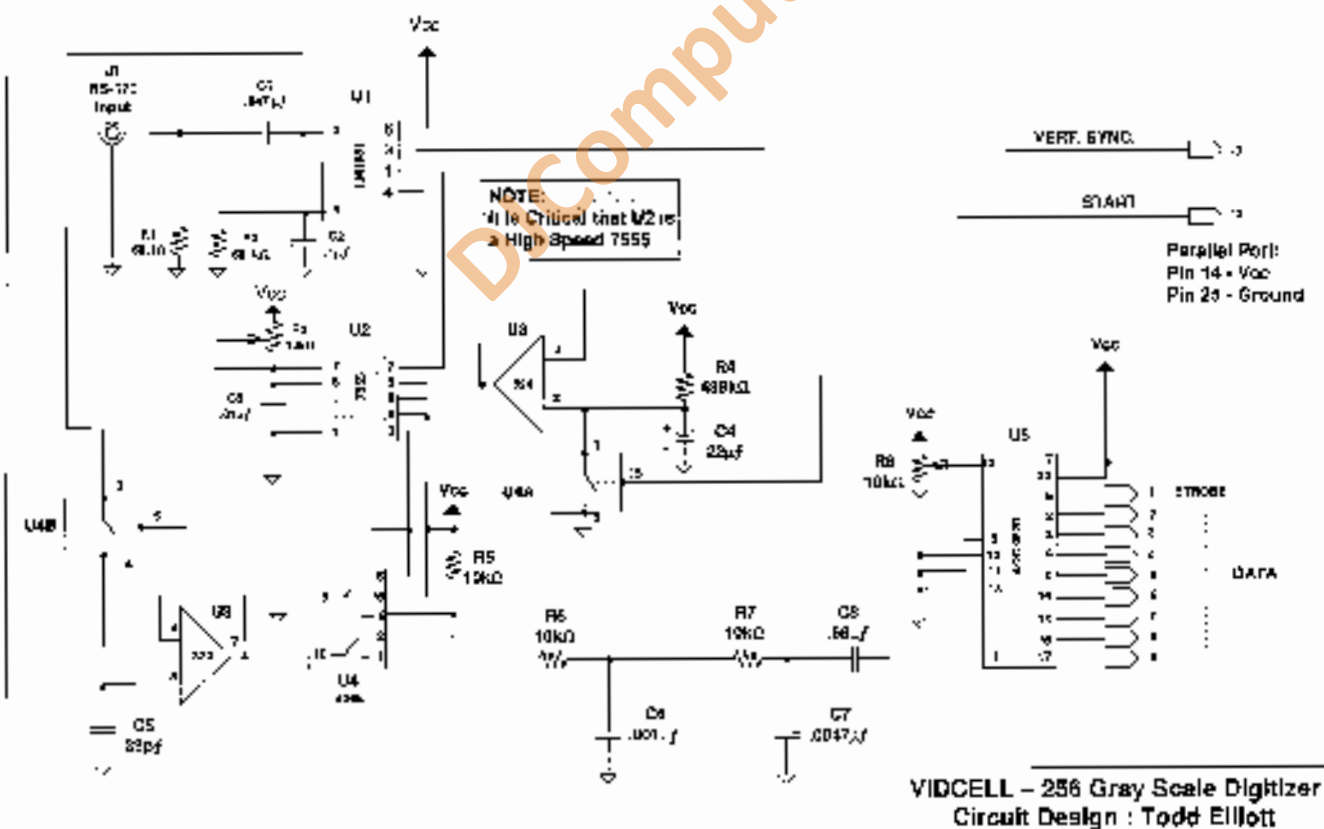
Start by putting the resistors in the board first, followed by the capacitors (smallest first, largest last). Be sure you observe the polarity of C1, C4, C8, and C9. If you ordered the exact parts listed, then two of your IC sockets have built-in filter capacitors. The 14 pin is for U4 and the 20 pin is for U5. As you insert the sockets in the board, you may find that bending the outer pins a little helps to keep the socket in place for soldering. R3 and R8 are both 10k potentiometers. After soldering potentiometers R3 and R8, adjust them both to the center position. R3 controls fine width adjustment and R8 controls image contrast. Once the circuit is operational, these can be adjusted to make the digitizer work better with each specific camera.

C2, C10, and C11 are not shown in the schematic. C10 and C11 are both 10µF filter caps and C9 is a 220µF electrolytic filter cap, as shown in the parts list. Make sure all leads are cut

as short as possible after soldering. CN1 is the D325 connector that connects the unit to the parallel port on the Amiga. You can use a right-angle connector or a straight connector (if you order the parts from me, please specify which type of connector you would prefer for CN1). The next and final step in construction is to connect the RCA jack. This is done by soldering some wire to J1. The positive or inner connection on the jack should be soldered to the hole closest to the bottom of the board, or to the right if you are looking at the J1 label right side up. Clean off any excess flux with a non-organic flux remover (be sure to read the warning label on this stuff). Insert all ICs in their sockets, making sure they are oriented correctly. Your new digitizer should now be ready for action.

MAKING IT WORK

After double checking all parts and connections, turn the Amiga off and plug the digitizer into the parallel port. Turn the power on and boot up the software called VidCellV1.0. If you have at least 1 meg of memory. If you have 512K, then use the VCL0 software. Next, connect a video source such as a camera or a VCR to the input jack J1. The best results can be obtained with a high-resolution, black-and-white camera such as



the Panasonic WV1410. Since the digitizer is not real time, the video source must remain stable for about 10 seconds. Click on the GrabFrame gadget to start digitizing if you are using VideoCity1.0, or the M-key if you are using VCI 0. The screen will go blank. After a short pause, the power light should start flashing rapidly. Each flash represents a vertical sync signal. After the screen comes back, the title bar will display the current phase of processing before display. After a few seconds, you should see an image appear on the screen. You may have to adjust the lighting and focus several times before getting it right. Once you are happy with the display, you may make some fine adjustments on the brightness and contrast with the software before saving your image as an IFF file. You will find that very fine adjustments are possible with 256 greyscale in intensity. Documentation and the assembly language source code for all

the software's binaries can be found on the disk with the software.

CONSTRUCTION COMPLETE!

A lot of time and effort has gone into making this project a useful, professional quality product for Amiga users and programmers. Hopefully, having the source code available will inspire you to find some new applications and improve it even more.

Write me and tell me what you think of the project and how you think the software could be improved in the future. Also write me if you have any problems with it, and I will try to help the best I can.

PARTS LIST

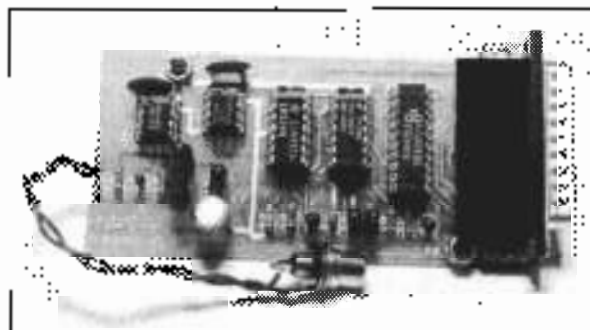
Qty	Part Reference	Digit-key Part	Desc.
1	U1	LM7881N	SYNC SEPARATION
1	U2	LMC555CN	CMOS 555 TIMER
1	U3	LM324N	QUAD OP AMP
1	J4	CD4068HCN	QUAD SWITCH
1	U5	KAD0820BCN	8 BIT A/D CONVERTER
1	R1	68.1X	68.1 OHM RES
1	R2	681KX	681K OHM RES
2	R3,R8	QOG14	10K OHM TRIM POT
1	R4	499KX	499K OHM RES
3	R5,R6,R7	10.0KX	10K OHM RES
1	C1	P2099	.047 UF POLYPROP CAP
1	C2	P3104	.1 UF POLYPROP CAP
1	C3	P3103	.01 UF POLYPROP CAP
1	C4	P2028	22 UF TANT CAP
1	C5	P4019	30 PF DISC CAP
1	C6	P3102	.001 UF POLYPROP CAP
1	C7	P3472	.0047 UF POLYPROP CAP
1	C8	P2072	.68 UF TANT CAP
1	C9	P6002	220 UF RAD ELEC CAP
2	C10,C11	P4311	.1 UF DISC CAP
1	CN1	325M-ND	DS25 MALE RIGHT-ANGLE
2ND OPTION			
1	CN*	525M-ND	DS25 MALL STRAIGHT
2	S1,S2	C7209	MACHINE 8 PIN SOCKET
1	S3	C7214	MACHINE 14 P-N SOCKET
1	S4	EJ2101	14 PIN SOCKET W/CAP
1	S5	EJ2104	20 PIN SOCKET W/CAP
MISC			
1	J1	RADIO SHACK # 274-852	SCA JACK
1		RADIO SHACK # 270-257	CASE (OPT. ONLY)

USING VIDCELL V1.0 SOFTWARE WITH THE VIDCELL DIGITIZER

FROM THE BEGINNING

The idea for this project first came to me more than a year-and-a-half ago, and has basically taken that long to get a ready to go. I started by just drawing up a schematic, bread-boarding and discovering the circuit myself's worth! This went on almost every night (sometimes until 4 in the morning) for about a month, until it finally did work. It didn't look great at first, either, but with a couple of days I had it looking pretty good, for a breadboarded circuit. The jpeg picture on the disk was one of the first digitized pictures I saved.

Once the bugs had been worked out of the circuit, I purchased Pro-Board from Prolific Inc. and designed the circuit board in a weekend. It worked, but I had to make changes. The software still had a ways to go, too. I needed a file requester. I searched through the public domain until I found R.J. Mitchell's file requester (thanks, R.J.). Once I felt that the software had reached a point that it could be released, I wrote this article, researched the best components to use, and maintained a serial file again. It has been much fun, and I hope a lot of Amiga people really enjoy having a video digitizer with a schematic, theory of operation, and source code (yep!). I also hope a few of you out there will eventually do things to make it even better. If you do make some modifications or have ideas for same, please send them to me.



GENERAL INFORMATION

Lighting

I've found that digitizing something isn't as easy as you might think. Lighting is a very difficult thing to get right. Natural daylight provides the best results, but not everyone wants their computer room lit! Generally, fluorescent light is very good for luminance, but it doesn't bring out the great colors very well. I have my best luck if I shut off all the lights in a room except for a fluorescent light and an incandescent light illuminating the image to be digitized. Watch for glare and learn to use the **PS+ORX+ZOOM** option on the color menu (see operation instructions below). Once you get the display looking pretty good (good contrast), make some fine adjustments using the software gadgets before saving your image. I think you'll find that you can make very subtle changes when you have 256 grayscale to work with in memory.

LIB Files: (important!!)

There is a file called requester.lib that must be in the TTDS directory of the system disk for the vidcell.v1 program to work.

Raw File Format: (for programmers' information)

The RAW file format contains a byte for each pixel of the image. The information is stored in vertical columns from top to bottom, left to right. So, if the image size is 640 x 200, then there are 640 times 200 bytes, or 128,000 bytes of raw information. The first byte contains the brightness information for the upper-left hand corner pixel, the second byte contains the info for the pixel directly below that, etc., and the 201st byte would contain the information for the pixel directly to the right of the first pixel, the 202nd byte would be the pixel below that, etc. I hope this makes sense.

Memory

If you only have 512K, use the software called NOV1 in the VC directory. This software will take over the machine, but it does allow you to digitize in all the modes. The brightness keys do not work yet in this version of the software. The save option saves an TTF file called 'test.pic' in the current directory, and exits.

If you have 1 meg or more, then use the software called VidCell! This is multitasking software that only takes over the machine when it is accepting information from the digitizer. It has many features that VCR1 doesn't have. I strongly recommend having at least 1 meg of memory for digitizing, and you really need more than 1 meg for 640 x 400 images.

USING THE VIDCELL SOFTWARE

The software was designed such that your display is placed in the background with a control panel in front of, but not entirely covering, the display. The control panel can be toggled out of the way by double clicking the right button. The menu options are located on the menu strip of the control panel.

PROJECT MENU

LOAD

This allows you to load a previously saved RAW file and adjust it before saving it as an IFF file. The RAW file format contains the 356 grayscale information, while the IFF does not.

SAVE

RAW saves the current raw information since the last GrabFrame was activated.
IFF saves the current display that you are viewing as an IFF image that can be used in other software packages, such as DeluxePaint and PDPaint.

QUIT

This exits the program, obviously.

MODES MENU

COLOR

RED - shows the display in shades of red (for use with color filters).
GREEN - shows the display in shades of green.
BLUE - shows the display in shades of blue.
MONOCHROME - shows the display in shades of gray.
PSEUDO COLOR - shows the display in order of intensity. This helps to determine problems with the lighting, such as glare and shadows in certain areas. The order from dark to light is: blues, reds, greens, yellows, white.

SCREEN SIZE

320 x 200 - sets the display mode to 320 x 200 pixels (aspect ratio not right).
 320 x 400 - sets the display mode to 320 x 400 pixels (aspect ratio not right).
 640 x 200 - sets the display mode to 640 x 200 pixels (default).
 640 x 400 - sets the display mode to 640 x 400 pixels (requires more than 1 meg to be reliable).

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Underlays Amiga screens	X		
Drags over/under Amiga screens	X		
Blit-compatible (brushes, BOBs)	X		
Free paint and rendering software	X	X	X
Fully ARexx compatible	X		
Free software upgrades forever	X		
Composite compatible/upgradable	X	X	X
SVHS compatible/upgradable	X		X
PAL machine compatible	X		X
Paint loads GIF pixel-for-pixel	X		
Works w/all std. Amiga monitors	X		X
Supports "Color Cycling", "Glow"	X		
Uses only your RGB port	X		
Brush ANIM compatible	X		
Single Frame ANIM compatible	X	X	X
Genlock capability standard	X		X
Built-in composite digitizer		X	
Image as backdrop playfield			X
Unlimited real time updates	X	X	
RGB, HSV, HSL, CMY palettes	X		
Uses DigiView™ 4.0 directly	X		
Full overscan output	X	X	X
Hires (768) 24 bit RGB upgradable	X		
Public-access support BBS	X		X
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NOTES: Digital Overlay: DigiView™ Per-Tek; HAM-E™ Black Belt Systems; AmigaVision™ Commodore; BBS: Modem: CanDo™ Graphics: ColorBelt™ M.A.S.T., ARexx™ ESD: Haver; GIF™ CompuServe

PLANES

Unfortunately, this is not available in this version.

GrayScale

This option sets the display mode to shades of gray.

BlackandWhite

This option sets the display mode to B&W for use with desktop publishing. It is used in conjunction with the threshold gadget (T) to set the lightness/darkness.

CONTROL PANEL OPTIONS

B - This gadget is the intensity gadget. It allows you to change the brightness of the picture. To use it, you set the percentage value you want it and select the **RESTAR** gadget. You will see the current phase of processing in the menu strip before it actually displays the changes.

C - This gadget is operated the same as the **B**-Gadget, but it controls the contrast of the image.

L - This gadget is used in conjunction with the Black and White mode, selected from the menu. It allows you to change the light/dark features. It works very well for creating images to

be used with desktop publishing.

GrabFrame - This gadget is what actually starts the digitizing process. It takes over the computer temporarily and blanks the screen. When the screen comes back, you see the current phase of processing before the actual display is updated.

Reset - This gadget resets the L, C, T gadgets. It opens the WorkFrame (if it was opened when the program was started). It sets the display mode to 640 x 200 with monochrome.

Negative - This gadget creates an exact negative of the current display. It doesn't effect the RAW information.

ClearScreen - This gadget clears the display. It doesn't affect the RAW information.

Smoothing - This gadget (when illuminated) uses an averaging routine on the data to smooth out image edges. It gives the effect of blurring the image.

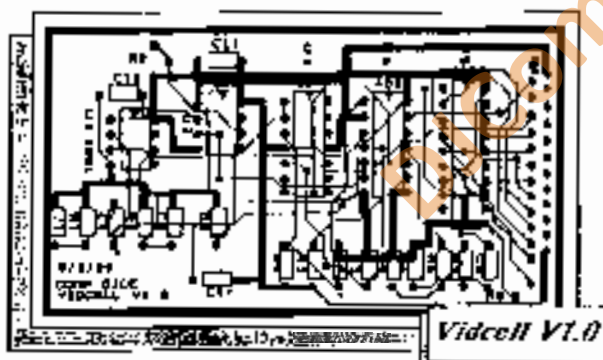
Dithering

Not available in this version.

Screen Position

Not available in this version.

I guess that about covers the software for now. If you have suggestions or questions, please feel free to write.



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Next issue of **AC'S TECH** available April 1991.

An Introduction to Interprocess Communication with ARexx

by Dan Sugalski

One of the more useful, and least understood, capabilities of ARexx is its ability to communicate with other programs running simultaneously. Unfortunately, the full capabilities of the language are almost never used. Part of the problem is the ARexx manual is set up as a reference work (other than a tutorial), and part of the problem is a lack of good examples. This article will provide you with both tutorial explanations and some clear examples.

Almost everyone who uses the language is familiar with some of the communications facilities provided in ARexx. The main selling point of the language is its ability to integrate with a variety of programs and provide a standard macro interface. Doing this requires ARexx to talk to programs, and vice versa. Unfortunately, this communication is almost all one way.

Surely you are familiar with the way ARexx is most commonly used. You write a macro for your communications program or text editor that does something useful. Whenever that macro gets "fired up" it gets passed some parameters, does some processing, and then fires off a series of commands to the host that called it. While this is certainly handy, it is also limiting. Once the macro begins running, the only information it ever gets back from the host program is an occasional status code.

This is unfortunate, because not only can ARexx send commands to other programs—it can also receive them. Two-way communication opens up a whole new world of possible programs. In the old way of doing things, ARexx programs were mostly stuck dealing with only one host. Sure, ARexx has always been able to talk to more than one host, but so what? Do you want to integrate your text editor and communications program so you can use it (instead of the clunky message editor on BIX or your favorite BBS), but think it's impossible? And how about using a paint program to edit bitmaps interactively for your DTP package?

Having the ability to send and receive information makes the impossible possible. There are a number of programs that are only marginally useful with the old one-way techniques, and a few programs that are almost completely useless. The question is, how is it done?

All of ARexx's communications functions are built upon the message-passing system that is the heart of the Amiga's operating system. To use ARexx effectively requires at least a

certain amount of familiarity with these functions, so hold on for a whirlwind tour of what is inside of your Amiga.

All the information exchanged between programs and the Amiga operating system is done by using messages and message ports. An analogy would be to think of them as letters and mailboxes. With a letter, you write it, put your return address and the address of the receiver on it, and entrust it to the post office. Things work similarly with messages. A program creates a message, puts its return address on it, and gives it to the message system, along with the address of the message port it is supposed to go to. To help simplify things, all message ports have a name that the system keeps track of, so, rather than having to try to figure out where a message port is in memory, your program can ask the system for the location of the message port with the name "fred".

There are a few differences, of course, between mail and arrip messages. Unlike mail boxes, a program may add and remove message ports from the system. Also, all messages are taken out of message ports in the order they were received. Most importantly, all messages must be returned to the program that sent it. Continuing our analogy, it is kind of like only borrowing your mail, rather than keeping it.

To help manage messages and message ports, the OS provides a number of useful capabilities. The most important is the ability to put your program to sleep until a message arrives at one of its message ports. The only alternative to doing this is constantly checking your message ports for new messages, something that is wasteful of precious CPU time that can be better used by another program.

Now that we have had a quick overview of the underlying message system ARexx uses, let's turn to the details of how it is used. The simplest of the functions are the two used in nearly all ARexx programs: the ADDRESS command and the ?How Commands.

The ADDRESS command is the most straightforward. It tells ARexx the case-sensitive name of a message port. Whenever your program needs to send out a message, it goes to the port named by the last ADDRESS command executed. Note that ARexx doesn't check to see if the port exists until it has to send a message out. In addition, Amiga message port names are case sensitive; that is, ARexx upper-cases all text that isn't enclosed in quotes. This means your program may read 'ADDRESS FRED', but when ARexx actually executes this line it sees 'ADDRESS FRED', two entirely different things.

A "Real Command" is pretty much anything ARexx doesn't understand. When the ARexx interpreter is running your program and comes across a line that isn't in the ARexx language, it takes the line, substitutes the value of any variable for the variable itself, packages it up in a special ARexx message, and fires it off to the port your program last ADDRESSED. ARexx then puts your program to sleep, until that message gets a reply.

That last detail is important, and something that must always be kept in mind. If the message your program sends out never gets a reply, your ARexx program will never wake up. This also means your program can't send messages to itself. A message will sit at your program's port until it is received and replied to, but your program can't get the message because it is asleep waiting for it to reply to itself. This was the problem involved here.

Besides being able to send messages, ARexx programs also have the capability to receive them. There are a number of functions available to manage messages and message ports in the RexxSupport library that comes with the ARexx interpreter. There is a brief reference section covering this library in Appendix 7 of the manual that comes with the language, but we will be going over the functions of interest in more detail. One thing to keep in mind when reading the manual is that ARexx refers to messages as "packets", and the lists in the messages as "arguments". This can occasionally lead to confusion, so be careful. Before doing anything with messages, ARexx must have access to the support library. To do this, insert the line `CALL ADDLIB('RexxSupport Library') 0, 0, 0`. This makes sure the library is loaded into memory and is ready for ARexx's use. As with all files, make sure the library name is spelled correctly and has the ".Library" extension. Once you have done that, your program is ready to cope with messages.

To fully use messages, your ARexx program has to be able to do a number of things. Among them, it must:

- (1) open and close message ports
- (2) send messages
- (3) receive messages
- (4) reply to messages
- (5) wait for messages
- (6) get data out of messages

We've already seen how to send messages, and the support library has routines to do everything else. Before receiving any messages, your program must open up a message port. The `OpenPort(port name)` function causes ARexx to open up a message port with the specified name for your program. This name must be unique, and should be upper case. ARexx will return a 1 if the port is opened successfully, and a 0 if it is not. Note that the manual incorrectly states that you are returned the address of the message port.

Once your port has been created, your program has to wait for messages to arrive. To do this requires the `WaitPkt(port name)` function. This puts your program to sleep until a message is at the message port. When the port is no longer empty, your program wakes up and continues executing at the statement after the `WaitPkt()`. If there is already a message at the message port, your program will never go to sleep.

(There is a bug in the support library for version 1.06 and before. In these versions of the library the `WaitPkt()` will only wake up if a new message arrives. If there is already a message at the message port `WaitPkt()` does not recognize it, and waits until a new message arrives (source: `source.txt`).

With `WaitPkt()` awake, your program can get any messages from its message port. To do this, call `GetPkt(port name)`. This takes the first message out of the message port and returns the address of it to you. If there are no messages at the port, the return value will be NULL (9999 0000). Your program should always check to make sure it gets a non-NULL address for all messages. Your program may occasionally get woken up even if there are no messages available yet, and the system returns a NULL value if you try to get a message from an empty message port. Doing anything with a message pointer equal to NULL is a good way to get to know the OS better.

After your program has successfully gotten a message, it has to extract the information from it. Each ARexx message can consist up to sixteen strings of characters, though typically there is only one. To get at this data, your program must use the `GetArg(message address, argument slot number)` function. This will extract one of the strings, numbered zero through fifteen, and return it to your program. If the slot number is out-of-range, then the value in slot zero is returned. This is one of the few calls that requires your program to recognize the kind of data it is getting in the message, because a call to `GetArg()` with an empty slot number will abort your program with an error message.

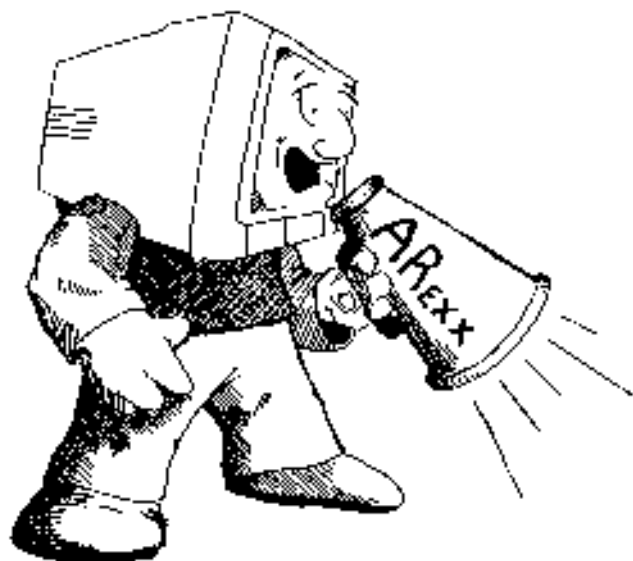
Now you've gotten a message and retrieved whatever data you want out of it. Whenever you've finished with a message, your program should reply to it and give it back to the program that sent it. The `Reply(message address, return code)` function will do this for you. If you want, you can return an optional return code. This must be a positive integer, though its meaning is entirely up to the program that sent the message.

Once you have completed all this processing, it's time to go back to the beginning and do it all over again. When your program is finished with its port, it should call the `ClosePort(port name)` function. This closes your message port and automatically replies to any messages left in it. While supplying this function is not absolutely necessary, as ARexx will close any port you have open when your program exits, it does show a good habit to get into, and certainly can't hurt.

Well, that concludes our quick run-down of the topic, and you need to pass messages back and forth. Perhaps at this point you are wondering, "How useful can this be?" After all, most programs that have ARexx capability don't have any provisions for sending messages to ARexx macros already running.

This is where things get interesting. ARexx's message capabilities have one limitation. They can only cope with a special message format, called, oddly enough, a `RexxMsg`. These are the only messages you can do a `GetArg()` on. Conveniently, though, these are the types of messages that ARexx sends out. The net result is that one ARexx macro can exchange messages with another.

The two sets of example programs use this fact to show, I hope clearly, exactly how it works. The first two programs are a matched set, "Sample1.rexx" and "Sample2.rexx", and they should be in your ARexx directory. They each do very little, to



anything that isn't a legal command, function, or quoted constant is treated as a variable. When AREXX encounters a variable in the course of program execution, it automatically replaces the variable name with the variable's contents. In this case, as we use `! as the first variable, AREXX inserts the value of 1 in before the message gets sent.`

Now, while this is very handy, it does introduce the possibility of some bugs. Namely, it raises the possibility that what you think is a string constant is actually a variable with a different contents than its name. This following program fragment illustrates this:

```
/* Insert your favorite comment here */
Msg = "Hi Mom!"
/* Line number */
Line Msg
```

You would probably expect that "pump up" would be sent out in a message. What really gets sent out is "Hi Mom!", something else entirely. The best way to avoid things like this is to enclose anything you want sent out literally in quotes. AREXX won't touch anything within quotes, so it's best to use them liberally whenever possible to help cut down on the possibility of bugs. AREXX also automatically upper-cases everything that isn't quoted, something else you may not intend to have happen.

In anything other than the trivial example programs we just went over, there is going to have to be at least some error checking. Besides doing things we already discussed, like checking the status code returned by `OpenPort()` and the validity of the address of messages, it is always a good idea to make sure the port we want to talk to exists. When dealing with other programs, it is never safe to assume anything. Checking to see if a port exists is a simple operation. In fact, AREXX has two functions that can check for message ports: `Show()` and `ShowList()`. The latter, `ShowList()`, port name), resides in the `RexxSupport` library and returns a 1 if the named port exists and a 0 if it does not. `Show()`, port name) is in the basic library of functions and performs identically to `ShowList()`. The major difference between the two is that `Show()` checks the lists that AREXX keeps and only returns port names opened in AREXX programs, while `ShowList()` examines system lists and will check to see if any program in the system has opened up the named port. `Show()` only works if you have AREXX version 1.10.

Keep the concepts as clear as possible. Simple1 starts up Simple2 and sends it messages. Simple2 receives the messages and prints out the contents of the passed string.

Simple1 starts out with the mandatory comment, starts up some mode, and tells AREXX to talk to AREXXDOS with the `ADDRESS` statement. Next, it opens up the support library and starts up Simple2 to receive its messages. It then waits a bit to give Simple2 a chance to start up.

At this point, Simple2 has started. The first thing it does is open up its message port. Then it goes into its message loop. It waits for a message, gets it, gets the passed argument, and replies to the message. The loop is very simple, of course. There is no error checking or processing of the data, but it should show pretty clearly how things are supposed to look.

Meanwhile, back in Simple1, we address the port opened by Simple2. Once again, there is no checking to see if the port has actually opened, it is possible (in fact, it is a very good idea) to add this capability; it will be discussed a bit later in this article. Anyway, in the main loop of Simple1, you'll notice the line: `! ! !`. This is obviously not an AREXX statement, so it is packed up in a message and sent to Simple2's port. When it gets printed out, however, you'll notice that, rather than spewing out more than twenty lines of `! ! !`, it first prints `! ! !`, then `! ! !`, and continues on until it stops.

Why does this happen, you ask? Simple. One of the nice features of AREXX is the way it treats variables. Simply put,

Listing One Simple1.rexx

```
/*Simple1.rexx*/
mode c
address command
call address("rexxsupport.library",0,-30,0)
run as simple2
talk delay(100)
address PORT
do 1 1 to 50 by 2
  ! ! !
end
exit
```

Listing Two Simple2.rexx

```
/*Simple2.rexx*/
call openport(PORT)
call delay(300)
do 1 to 10 by 2
  call waitport(PORT)
  pkt=getpkt(PORT)
  say getmsg(pkt,0)
  call reply(pkt)
end
call closeport(PORT)
exit
```

or above, so it is best to use `showList()` if possible.

Now that we have all the pieces to build a properly working message handling system into an ARexx program, let's look at a more complex example than the last. Programs three and four show a working set of programs. These use Willy Langewald's `RexxARPLib` library to access Intuition's gadget and drawing routines. Make sure you have version 2.3 or greater of the library, as the circle drawing function isn't available in earlier versions. The first program takes care of all the user interaction, while the second does all of the drawing. Specialization like this, while a bit inefficient, makes programming easier. Each program has to deal with a minimum number of things, allowing it to be smaller and easier to understand, and much easier to debug.

Graphics1, the main program, first uses the `ADDRESS` command to prepare to issue commands to AmigaDOS. Next, it checks to see if the libraries it needs are already loaded; if not, it loads them. Then, it spawns off a small program that uses the `RexxARPLib` to do all the actual communicating with Intuition. ARexx programs use this as an interface to perform all the graphics and windowing routines we need. Each window a program needs to have requires a separate `CreateHost` call.

`CreateHost` is the most peculiar function in the `RexxARPLib` library. What it does, once called, is to take over the process that called it. Its first parameter tells it the name of the message port it should create and listen to, and the second tells it what message port to send its messages to. Most of the remaining functions in the library perform their various graphics functions by building messages and sending them to a `CreateHost`-created message port.

After we make the `CreateHost` call, the program goes into a short loop that checks to see if the port has been opened. If not, it waits a second and tries again. If, after ten seconds, the port still hasn't been created, the program prints out an error message and exits. Next, we start up the task that does all the drawing, then open the port that will be getting the Intuition messages.

The next few calls set up the window and gadgets that are used to interact with the program. We create two gadgets, labeled "Box" and "Circle", and have Intuition attach `CloseWindow` and drag gadgets to the title bar. Our program will receive a message with "CLOSEWINDOW" in slot zero every time the `CloseWindow` gadget is hit. The actual closing of the window is completely under the program's control.

At the same time the first program is opening up its window and attaching its gadgets, the second program is starting up. At this point, the first program goes into a loop, checking to see whether the second program has opened up its message port. If—again after ten seconds—it hasn't, we close our window and message port, send a message to the user, and exit with an error code.

If the second program has started successfully, the first program sets itself up to talk to it. What follows is a fairly standard message loop, the type which you'll become very familiar with after one or two ARexx programs. It waits for a message from the window we opened. When it gets one, it extracts the data out of it and replies to the message. The contents of the message is echoed out to the CLI window the program was started from, so you can see exactly what it got. That data is then sent to the drawing program so that it can

perform whatever processing needs to be done. The final step in the loop is to check to see if the message we get is telling us to close up shop. If so, we do; if not, the loop starts all over again.

The second program is a lot like the first. It also checks to see if the libraries it needs are open, and if they aren't, then it opens them. It, too, starts up a `CreateHost` process to manage the drawing window and checks to see if it is created successfully. As we pass a message port name to `CreateHost`, we are guaranteed that, with no gadgets in our window, we will never get any messages from it. The program then opens its message port and window.

The message handling loop in this program is quite similar to the loop in the first program. In this program, however, there is a bit more in the way of processing that needs to be done for each message that arrives. When we get a valid message we first extract the data from it, then echo that data to the CLI, and reply to the message. What follows here is a series of checks on the passed data. We can be told to draw a circle, draw a filled box, or close up. The circle routine chooses a random radius, X and Y coordinates, and color. We set the drawing pen to the color we just chose and draw our circle outline. Unfortunately, there is no simple routine available to draw filled circles, only outlines. The box routine is similar. Random X and Y coordinates are chosen for the upper left and lower right corners of the box, along with a random color. The program sets the color and draws a filled rectangle. The `CloseWindow` routine closes the window and message port and ends the loop. After the loop, the program exits with an error code of zero, indicating a normal exit.

As you can see from the two examples, sending message support to your ARexx programs is almost trivially easy, requiring only a few simple ARexx commands and function calls. While proper use of the message facilities does take a little thought, the actual routines themselves are straightforward. You should find that, after a little while, you are writing programs that can glue together many different applications in customizing your Amiga environment to work better for you.



Listing Three Graphics1.rexx

```
/* Graphics1.rexx */
/* trace on */
address command
if ~know('L','rsrcsupport.library')
  then call addlib('rsrcsupport.library',0,30,0)
if ~know('B','rsrcsupport.library')
  then call addlib('rsrcsupport.library',0,-30,0)
do xx 'test' class about(THESORT,THESORT)'
do _=1 for 10
  if showlist(0,THESORT)=0
    then call delay(2)
  else break
end
if showlist(0,THESORT)=0
  then
  do
  say 'it didn't work!'
  exit 10
  end
do xx Graphics1.rexx
classopenproc('GRAPH1')
call openwindow('THESORT',10,10,100,50,'00000000000000000000000000000000',
  'WINDOWS OF WINDOWS',1,1,0)
call redisplay('THESORT',30,10,,'box',0,0)
call redisplay('THESORT',20,30,2,'circle',0,0)
do for 10
  if showlist(0,GRAPH1)=0
    then call delay(2)
end
if showlist(0,GRAPH1)=0
  then do
  say "Can't start second task!"
  call closewindow('THESORT')
  call closeproc('THESORT')
  exit 13
  end
address GRAPH1
do _=1 forever
  call waitpk(100,20,20)
  pl:=getpk('THESORT')
  if pl='0000 0000' then
  iterate
  else
  draw:=getpk(1)
  call redisplay
  say ' ' draw ' '
  draw
  if draw = 00000000
    then leave 1
  end
end
call closewindow('THESORT')
call closeproc('THESORT')
exit
```


Listing Four Graphics2.rexx

```
/*Subrex, parm $1. Gets messages and draws figures from them */
address top user
/* trace on */
if $shell('ls /dev/xinput.library')
then call $shell('devxinput.library')0,-30,0)
if $shell('ls /dev/xinput.library')
then call $shell('devxinput.library')0,-30,0)
call $shell('echo host IPADDR, SADDR:')
do i=1 for 10
  if $shell('cat /dev/xinput')=0
  then call $delay(50)
  else break
end
if $shell('cat /dev/xinput')=0
then exit 10
call openport('GRAPH1')
call openwindow('GRAPH',100,100,400,100,,"MYWINDOW", "Output Window")
do q 1 forever
  call waitpkt('GRAPH1')
  do z 1 forever
    pkt=getpkt('GRAPH1')
    say "Get Packet:"
    if pkt="0000 0000" /*No message, so we wait again.*/
    then leave z
    mycommand=getarg(pkt)
    say " " mycommand " "
    call reply(pkt)
    if mycommand = "CIRCLE"
    then do
      radius=random(1,99)
      x=random(1+radius,399-radius)
      y=random(1+radius,399-radius)
      color=random(1,3)
      call setpen('GRAPH',color-1)
      call drawcircle('GRAPH',x,y,radius)
    end
    if mycommand = "BOX"
    then do
      x1=random(1,399)
      y1=random(1,399)
      x2=random(1-x1,399)
      y2=random(1-y1,399)
      color=random(1,3)
      call setpen('GRAPH',color-1)
      call drawrect('GRAPH',x1,y1,x2,y2)
    end
    mycommand = "CLOSEWINDOW"
  end do
  call closewindow('SADDR')
  call closeport('GRAPH1')
  leave z /*Exit outermost do loop */
end
end
end
```



An Introduction to the ilbm.library

by Jim Fiore, dissidents
BFX: jfiore

Back in 1985, Electronic Arts introduced the Standard for Interchange Format Files, or as it has come to be known, IFF. Several different file types (called FORMs) were described, including those suitable for text (PTXt), mid-fi audio samples (8SVX), and music scores (SMUS). The one variant which has made the biggest impact on the Amiga community is the InterLeaved BitMap, or ILBM, FORM. ILBM has become the undisputed standard for Amiga bitmap-type graphics files, (literal computer screen imagery versus the vector-type structured drawings found in CAD or professional illustration programs).

It would be unreasonable for a student paint or image manipulation program not to support the import and export of ILBM files on the Amiga. Thanks to this level of standardization, Amiga users need not keep track of myriad file conversion utilities which so often plague the users of other systems.

As a developer or programmer, it is obvious that the survival and usefulness of your applications are tied to the IFF standard. What is not so obvious is the amount of work which is required in order to read and write these files properly. Initially, if you needed to create an ILBM reader/writer, you had two choices: hack apart the Electronic Arts C code for your application (and language of choice, if not using C), or write your own routines from scratch. The problem with the second choice is that if you don't use a full implementation you run the risk of only being able to read files written in a specific manner.

The problem with the first choice was immediately apparent to non C literate programmers. Even for established C users, there was quite a bit of code to wade through plus a few bugs as well. This boiled down to quite a bit of work for the simple concept of allowing the user to save a given window as an IFF ILBM file, so that the image might be imported into a

desktop publishing or paint package. Besides, it's wasteful to place this code into every application which needs it.

A standard Amiga shared library which any application can open and use, is a much more efficient approach. In the ideal world, there would be standard system libraries which would handle both high level and low level calls for reading and writing IFF files. The 2.0 version of the operating system does offer ilff.library, which is designed to handle the low level calls, although it does not offer high level FORM specific calls. Given our own needs here at dissidents, the ilbm.library was born.

The ilbm.library was created by Jeff Glau, and offers low level and mid level general IFF calls, along with high level ILBM-specific calls. The concept of the ilbm.library revolves around the original Electronic Arts code. If you already have applications which were written using this code, switching to the ilbm.library will involve a minimum of work since the library contains virtually all of the same functions but comes with a few twists.

Unlike the original EA code, the library is written entirely in optimized 68000 assembly, for small size (less than 7000 bytes) and fast execution. By eliminating the bulk of your application's IFF code, your application will be both smaller and faster. High level calls have been added which make saving and loading ILBMs almost trivial. Although the library is skewed for use with ILBMs, it can be used with any IFF file while special support for ANIMS has also been added. Finally, you have the ability to insert custom handlers for various aspects of the IFF file.

In spite of its power and ease of use, ilbm.library does not pretend to be everything for everyone. Programmers with very special needs may still prefer to write all of their own routines from scratch. For the vast number of people who need a relatively painless way to deal with ILBMs in more general ways, ilbm.library can save considerable development time.

If you find the library useful, you may use it in any of your applications, be they commercial, shareware, or otherwise. ilbm.library and its associated documentation and examples are properly referred to as FreeWare. They are not public domain, since the author still retains the copyright. Consequently, you cannot call the library a distinct product, or represent it as

For the vast number of people who need a relatively painless way to deal with ILBMs in more general ways, `ilbm.library` can save considerable development time.

such. Short of that, there are no licenses, fees, royalties, or other forms of abid capitalist rickety to deal with. As a matter of fact, you don't even have to tell your users where `ilbm.library` came from. Also, since this is a standard shared (versus link) library, you get to use it from the language of your choice.

It would be impossible to write a single article covering all of the functions and aspects of `ilbm.library`. Indeed, the Doc file alone is some 67K bytes in length. You will find this Doc file, along with examples in C and assembly, (with BASIC notes) on disk. These examples include a picture viewer, an IFF scanner, an ANIM example, and even how to use the library with non-ILBM files (in this case, an 8SVX sample player). In this article, we'll take a look at perhaps the most general application of all: the ability to load and save ILBMs in a C language program.

Our example is called `AC_ILBM.C` and it demonstrates how you would use the `ilbm.library` in typical applications. It will allow you to read in and display an ILBM file, in either your own window and screen, or in one which the library will open for you. It will also allow you to alter the colors of the picture (using `color.library`) and save the result as a new ILBM file. Usage is as follows: the program must be called via the CLI. The second CLI argument directly after the program name will be the name of the file to view. An optional third argument will force the picture to load into a 640 by 256 window which we will open. If the file is some other size it will be scaled to fit. Without the third argument, the proper window and screen for the picture will be determined by the library and opened for us. The library will scan the file, and if there is an error, allow us to print an error message to the CLI. If all goes well, the picture is displayed. The ESCape key will be used to terminate the program. F1 will be used to call up the `ColorTool` palette so that the picture may be altered, and F2 will save the picture as a new file.

To use `ilbm.library`, we need to include the `ILBM` .hish header, and declare a few data items. This includes `ILBMBase`, the library base pointer. As with any shared library, `ilbm.library` must be opened before use, and closed upon program exit. We will also need an `ILBMFrame`. This is a structure which the library functions use to keep track of the file, and also allows you to set certain options. The `ILBMFrame` must be properly initialized before use (more on this in a moment).

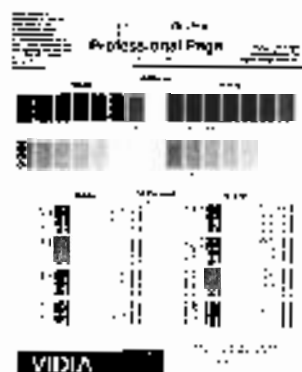
This application uses the library's two high level functions: `LoadIFFToWindow()`, and `SaveWindowToIFF()`. A mid-level function, `GetIFFMsg()`, will allow us to extract pointers to error strings which we can then display to the user. In this example, the strings are just printed to the CLI, but they could just as easily appear in an application's title bar or status line, or in a Requester. Finally, the program opens the required libraries and scans the command line arguments to determine the proper mode of operation. If a third argument is present, a default screen and window are opened.

Once this is complete, the `IScreen`, `IWindow`, and `IUserFlags` fields of the `ILBMFrame` are initialized, and `LoadIFFToWindow()` is called. Notice how simple the call to `LoadIFFToWindow()` is. It only takes two arguments. The first argument is a pointer to a string which holds the name of the ILBM file you wish to load, and the second argument is the address of your `ILBMFrame`. If the `IScreen` and `IWindow` fields are non-zero, `LoadIFFToWindow()` assumes that you have opened a screen and window, and will attempt to load the ILBM file into the window, scaling the picture if necessary. If these fields are initialized to 0, then `LoadIFFToWindow()` will examine the picture file, and open a proper screen and window for you. The addresses of the window and screen will then be placed in the `IScreen` and `IWindow` fields, so that you can get to them. This function will return 0 if all goes OK, if there is an error, the return value can be used as the argument to `GetIFFMsg()` in order to obtain an error string.

The `IUserFlags` field allows you to customize the treatment of the loaded file. These are the possible flags:

<code>MOUSEFLAG</code>	Make the Inclusion pointer invisible.
<code>SCREENFLAG</code>	Hide the screen's title bar.
<code>COLORFLAG</code>	Don't use the loaded colorMap. Preserve the present map instead.
<code>NOSCALE</code>	Don't scale a lower res pic to fill a higher res display.
<code>ADJUSTVIEW</code>	Do overscan if larger than intuitive view.
<code>FORCEPARSE</code>	Continue parsing after ANIM.
<code>ANIMFLAG</code>	Set if its an ANIM file.

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The scaling routines of the libm library are suitable for general purpose applications, and have specific limits. For example, they will not remap colors if you try to stuff a 32-bit biplane image into a two bitplane screen, or vice versa. Also, due to the inherent pixel color / position interdependencies of the HAM viewmode, scaling may result in some rather odd looking images for HAM files.

If you need to perform color swapping or HAM scaling, you should use the mid-level function LoadLEMO(), which gives you the option of adding custom handlers for the various components (FORMS, PROPS, etc.) Also, it is possible to call the library's SetEFrame() function for your own special needs. In contrast to the above, if a third command-line argument is not given, we allow the library to open the screen and window for us (the else clause). Note how the pScreen and PWindow fields are initialized to 0. When LoadIFFToWindow() returns, we copy the addresses of these items into global pointers for future reference. It is very important to note two things at this point: 1) It is up to the application to close down the window and screen upon exiting, since the libm library cannot keep track of these items. 2) The IDCMP of the newly opened window is fine. You should immediately call the function ModByIDCMP() in order to hear the sorts of messages you're interested in. In the example, we are only interested in RAWKEY events. So that's what we see.

No matter whether we open the window and screen, or let the library do it, we fall into the application function mainCommand(). This just starts the IDCMP and looks for RAWKEY messages. It will do one of three things. If the ESCAPE key is hit, the program ends and the window, screen and libraries are closed. If F2 is hit, the high-level libm library function SaveWindowToIFF() is called. This function takes two arguments: a pointer to a string indicating the name for the file to be saved, and a pointer to the window to be used. In this case, we just use the default name of RAM:Newwin. If the save is successful, the function returns 0. A non-zero return value indicates that something went wrong, such as not enough disk space. There is a corresponding mid-level function which offers a bit more flexibility, called SaveLEMO(). If F3 is hit, a color palette is displayed, allowing you to change the picture's color values. This color palette is created using the dissident's colorLibrary. The call DoColor() opens and monitors the palette. It is a full-featured color palette, with your choice of RGB or HSV sliders, a default colorMap, and Copy, Spread, and Undo capabilities. ColorLibrary is also dissident's FreeWare. ColorTool is designed for use with non-HAM viewmodes. ColorTool will open on HAM screens, but the results may be hard to predict and it may appear to do nothing at all.

The example program was compiled and linked using Manx 5.0, but there should be few modifications in order to get it to work under the SAS/Etales system. For starters, remove the reference to #include "function.h", and replace it with #include "proto/all.h". Make sure that you link with the libm and ColorLibrary glue routines. Before running the example, copy both libm.library and colorLibrary to your IFFS directory.

There are many things you can do with libm library, and we have only scratched the surface here. There are over 30 basic functions in the library. For more information, I direct you to the documentation and examples on disk. Have fun.

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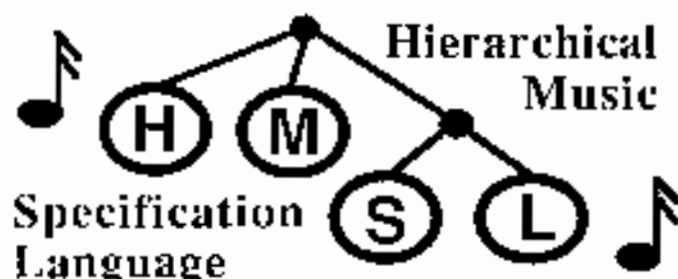
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for experimental music composition and performance. HMSL is an object oriented extension to JForth with:

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ILBM library C application for Amiga ColorLib Test. Application written by Jeff Blott and Sam Rouse, Mississauga, November 7, 1990. Art 258 v000 to 0.

Using Make 1.0:

```
cd -cd 20 lib.a
as -ca ColorInterface.asm
ln 20 lib.a 1 caInterface.o ColorInterface.o 201
```

A note about RAM images: First, ColorLib is designed to work with ordinary (non-RAM) screens. You will have some control over RAM screens, but not much. Second, while ilbm library works perfectly well with RAM images under ordinary applications, scaling RAM images will produce some rather strange results. If you really need to do something like that, you should use the lower level functions to deal in the RAM image, and perform the scaling yourself.

```
#include "meta.h"
#include "functions.h" /* Names declared via function and proto/decl.h */
#include "inclusion/inclusion.h"
```

Listing One
libm, library
Sample Application

```

#include "xwin/xdm.h"
#include "xwin/ypwd.h"
#include "xwin/xcwd.h"
#include "graph/xygfbases.h"
#include "graphbas/ncstport.h"
#include "graphbas/gtk.h"
#include "graphbas/vnc.h"
#include "graphbas/text.h"
#include "intuition/intuitlibbase.h"

#include "TERM_gh.h"

#define DIRECTION_REV 351
#define GRAPHICS_REV 351
#define DOPPI 4

struct TitleLibBase *TitleLibBase = 0L;
struct AppBase *AppBase = 0L;
struct Window *win_global = 0L;
struct Frame *frame_global = 0L;

/* Data for the descendants libm.library */
struct IIBBase *IIBBase = 0L;
IIBFunc myIIBFunc;

/* Data for the descendants color.library */
struct ColorBase *ColorBase = 0L;
extern LONG DCColor();

struct TextAttr my_font_attr = {1, 255, "tower.font", 1024, 8192, 1,
                               IS_NORMAL, 291, 0, 0, 0};

struct NewScreen ns = {0, 0, 640, 200, 255, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, SCREENZERO, 1,
                      CUSTOMSCREEN, &my_font_attr, 1, 255, "Screen", NULL, NULL};

struct NewWindow nw = {0, 0, 640, 200, -1, -1, FRAME, SMART_REFRESH | ACTIVIS |
                      BACKDROP | WINDOWDEPTH | BORDERLESS, NULL, NULL,
                      1, 255, "Background Window", NULL, NULL, 640, 200, 640, 200, CUSTOMSCREEN};

VOID open_all();
VOID main(argc, argv);
LONG argc;
BYTE *argv[];
|
| IFFF Result;
|
| int argc == 1; /* No filename given */
|
| puts("USAGE: NO_IIBM filename [x]y");
| exit();
|
| open_all();
|
| if( argc == 3 ) /* open our own screen, and force win to scale */
|
| if( !screen_g[0] = (struct Screen *)OpenScreen( &ns ) == NULL )
|   &arg_attr();
|   &win_attr = &win_global;
|
| if( !win_global = (struct Window *)OpenWindow( &nw ) == NULL )
|   &arg_attr();

```

```

ScreenInfo* info; screen global;

myLIBFrame.libscreen = screen global;
myLIBFrame.libwindow = wind_global;
myLIBFrame.libstyle = SCREENFLG; /* hidden title bar */

Result = LoadLibrary(argv[1], &myLIBFrame);
if (!Result)
    dump_error();
}
else /* Use WinLib library create screen and window */
{
    myLIBFrame.libscreen = 0;
    myLIBFrame.libwindow = 0;
    myLIBFrame.libstyle = SCREENFLG;

    Result = LoadLibrary(argv[1], &myLIBFrame);
    if (!Result)
    {
        screen_global = myLIBFrame.libscreen; /* save these, since we'll have to */
        wind_global = myLIBFrame.libwindow; /* close them on our own, later */
        ModifyDCOM( wind_global, BKEYEV );
        hang_sound();
    }
}

/* Abort exit through here */
puts( GetErrorMsg( Result ); );
dump_map();
}

/*****
 * Opens libwindow, graphics, color, and font files
 *****/

VOID open_all()
{
    int i;
    int iColorBase = 0;
    int iFontBase = 0;
    int iLibBase = 0;
    int iColorBase = 0;

    if (! iColorBase = LoadLibraryBase (&OpenLibrary("color.library", UNDEFINED_EV)) )
        dump_map();

    if (! iFontBase = LoadLibraryBase (&OpenLibrary("fontbase.library", UNDEFINED_EV)) )
        dump_map();

    if (! iLibBase = LoadLibraryBase (&OpenLibrary("liba.library", UNDEFINED_EV)) )
    {
        puts("Need the liba file in LIBS!");
        dump_map();
    }

    if (! iColorBase = LoadLibraryBase (&OpenLibrary("color.library", UNDEFINED_EV)) )
    {
        puts("Need the liba file in LIBS!");
        dump_map();
    }
}

/*****
 * Closes window, screen, liba
 *****/

VOID dump_map()
{
    int wind_global; CloseWindow( wind_global );
    int screen_global; CloseScreen( screen_global );
    int iColorBase; CloseLibrary( iColorBase );
    int iLibBase; CloseLibrary( iLibBase );
}

```

```

if( GetBase() == Close) break; if(Stage ==
if( Try() == Close) break; if( not( Lmbase) ==
Add ; FALSE ;
}

/*****
IDCMP handler. The following XKEYSYM codes are implemented:
ESC: Quit program.
F1: Call up the dissidence ColorTool.
F2: Save the picture as "REM-New.pic"
*****/
void main_handlers()
{
struct tMsg_Message *msg;
tMSG = msg;

while( 1 )
{
/* if( ( ( win_ptr) & win_ptr) == win_ptr )
/* if( msg == ( struct tMsg_Message * ) ( win_ptr -> MSG_PTR ) )
{
tMSG = msg;
tMSG = msg;
tMSG = msg;

ReplyMsg( ( struct tMsg_Message * )
msg );
}
case ESC:
msg( tMSG );
break;

case F1: /* F1 = ColorTool */
msg( tMSG );
break;

case F2: /* F2 = Save */
msg( tMSG );
break;

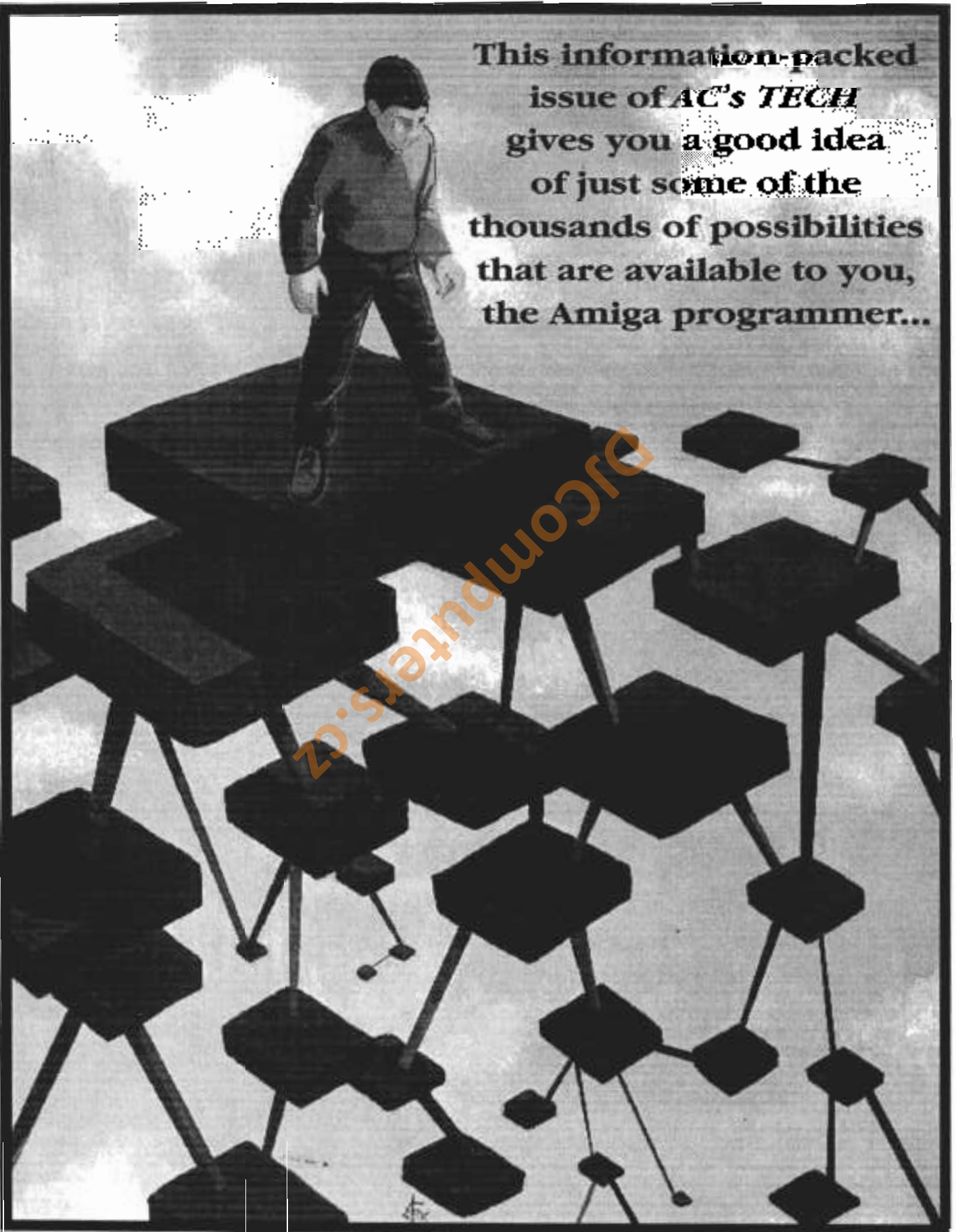
}
}
}
}
}
}

/*****
*****/

```



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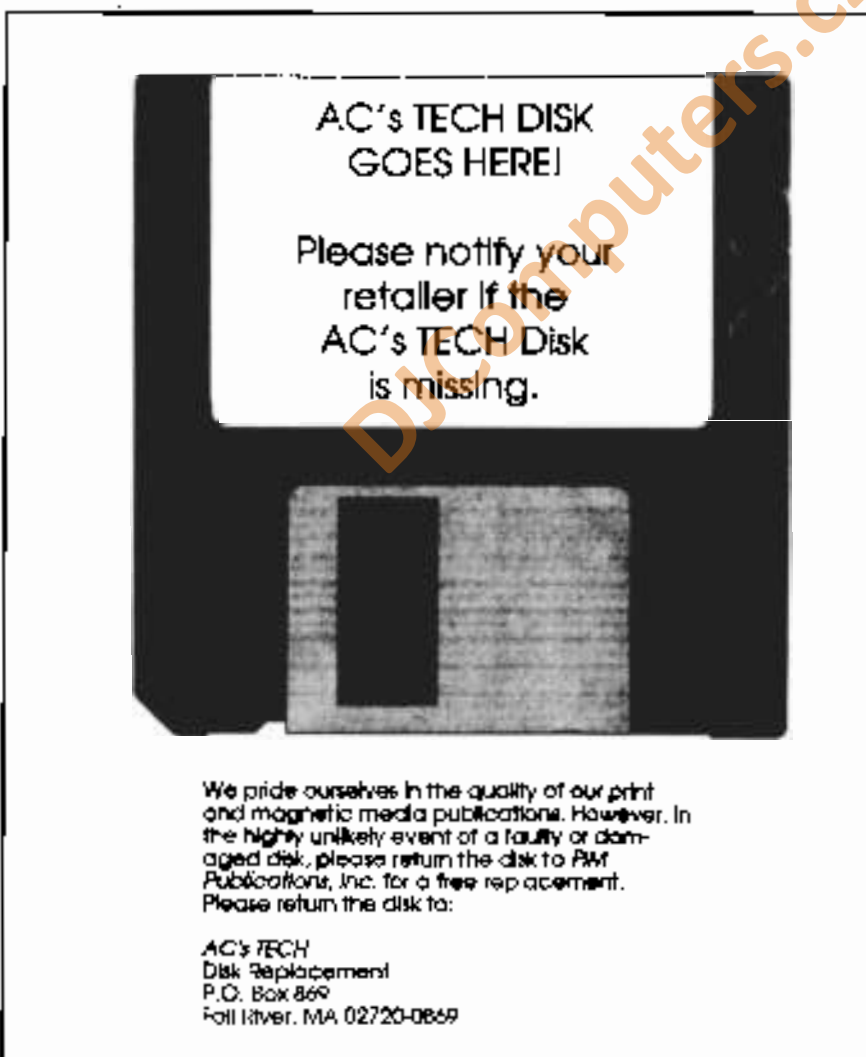
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Introducing the Premiere AC's TECH Disk

A few notes before you dive into the disk!

- You need a working knowledge of the AmigaDOS CLI as most of the files on the AC's TECH disk are only accessible from the CLI.
- In order to fit as much information as possible on the AC's TECH Disk, we archived many of the files, using the freely redistributable archive utility 'lharc' (which is provided in the C: directory). lharc archive files have the filename extension .lzh.

To unarchive a file *foo.lzh*, type *lharc x foo*
For help with lharc, type *lharc ?*



CAUTION!

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Also, to correctly install when working with hardware programs. Check your area, refer to the disk any damage that can happen. Also be aware that using these programs may void the warranty on your computer equipment. PM Publications and any of its agents is not responsible for any damage or errors while accepting the product.

Developing a Relational Database in C, Using dBC III

— by Robert Broughton —

dBC III, a Lattice product, is a set of C callable functions which read and write disk files in the dBASE "standard" format. It is a mature product, having been available for at least three years and it is valuable to Amiga software developers because it provides the capability for reading and writing disk files with random access, using keys rather than byte displacements. The best way to illustrate this is with an example. Here is a C structure which defines a record in a file containing information about sporting goods:

```
struct SportsRecordLayout
{
    sport    char[5];
    item    char[10];
    material char[10];
    weight  char[5];
    vendor  char[20];
    price   char[10];
};
```

Note that although "weight" and "price" are obviously numeric values, they are defined here as "char"; this will be explained later.

dBC III provides a function, dBGet, which can read a record from a file like this by supplying the record number. However, any file processed by dBC III can have one or several "indexes" associated with it. In this example, you may want to see all items used for a particular sport; if you supply the key "baseball", you would expect to retrieve records with "bat", "ball", "infielder's glove", "catcher's mitt", etc. in the "item" field. To do this, the "sport" field would be set up as an index. You might also want to retrieve a specific piece of equipment, such as a baseball bat. This can be done by defining "sport-item" as an index. You may want to see all the sports in which bats are used (baseball, softball, and cricket), so "item" can be defined as an index. You may want to see all of the items provided by a particular vendor (Louisville Slugger also makes hockey sticks), so "vendor" could be an index.

A couple of notes here: for "material", baseball bats can be made of either wood or aluminum. It is OK for keys to be duplicated within a file. You may have a separate file of vendors, with their addresses, phone numbers, local distributors, and credit terms. Obviously, the "name" field in this file would

be an index. If an exact match exists between the "name" in the "SportsRecord" file and a "name" in the "Vendor" file, you have a "relation". Instead of having a 30 character name in the "SportsRecord", you could have the record number for the entry in the "Vendor" file.

With dBC III and other compatible products, the index exists as a separate file. This file contains keys and record numbers, organized into a B-tree structure, but this is normally transparent to the user. Before a dBC III file is processed, it must be opened with a function named dBOpen, and all index files associated with it must be opened with dBIndex. Both of these functions initialize a file descriptor which will be used for all future references to these files.

Now, to read a "baseball bat" record: Assume that "sportfd" is a pointer to the file descriptor for the "SportsRecord" file, and "sportitemfd" is a pointer to the file descriptor for the "sport-item" index. The following piece of code will attempt to read this record.

```
struct SportsRecord
{
    sport[15];
    item[10];
    ... SportsRecord;
};

index (open("keyfile", sport, "baseball", 0,
    & sportRecord, 0, 0, 0));
entry (sportRecord, item, "bat",
    & sportRecord, 0);
if (!dBGet(sportfd, & sportsRecord, & sportRecord,
    & sportsRecord, & sportsRecord) == SUCCESS)
{
    printf("didn't work!\n");
}
else
{
    /* continue programming !!
}
```

If there actually is at least one record in the file with "baseball" in the sport field and "bat" in the item field, the call to dBGet should retrieve it, and copy the data into the "SportsRecord" structure. If you want to read more "baseball bat" records, you would call dBGet (get next record) repeatedly, until the "item" field contains something other than "bat".

dBC III has applications beyond conventional database applications. I used it to control an interactive video system. It could be used for adventure games, and in any situation where referencing data with names is important.

A routine to add a record to this file would look something like this:

```
1 # Update's report management's sports record report,
2 sportsRecord.i = SPORTSREC
3
4 # Open file for writing
5 open(sportsRecord, "w")
6
7 # If key (report number, field, record) == SUCCESS
8 # then it's okay and it's all right
9 break
10
11 # Else key (report, field, record) == FAILURE
12 # then it's key unsuccessful file
13 break
14
15 # Else key
16 # then it's a success record, record = SUCCESS
17
18 # print the key successful file
19 break
20
21 # Else key
22 # then it's a success record, record = SUCCESS
23
24 # print the key successful file
25 break
26
```

If a file has only one index, it is necessary only to call `dBputk`, which will write the record to the file and update the index. If a record already exists in the file which has the same key as the record being written, that record will be overwritten. If no such record exists, a new record will be created.

If a file has more than one index, you must go to some trouble. `dBkey` is used to add a record which is already in a file to an index. However, you must supply it with a record number and `dBkey` must be called in order to find out what the record number is.

Note that there is no index for the 'sport' field. It isn't necessary, because the function `dBkey`, which allows you to specify a partial key, can be used to locate all records for a certain sport using the 'sport' field's index.

In this example, the keys are a part of the record being written. This is the typical situation, but there are other possibilities. Suppose that one of the key fields is a person's name, and this name can contain both upper- and lower-case characters. You do not want case-sensitivity, however, when you look up a person in this file. You could do the following:

```
1 # Open file for writing
2 keyfield = "COLLEGE COLLEGE NAME"
3
4 # Else key (name, record, keyfield, record) == SUCCESS
5 # then it's okay and it's all right
6
7 # print the key successful file
8 break
9
10 # Else key
11 # then it's a success record, record = SUCCESS
12
13 # print the key successful file
14 break
15
```

Now, the keys in the index are not the same as what is actually in the file, but it doesn't matter, as long as you convert a supplied key to lower case prior to calling `dBgetk` to read the record. It's possible for keys to have no resemblance whatsoever to any of the data actually in the records, as long as it makes sense for your application. It would also be possible to have multiple keys for the same record, by calling `dBkey` to add the additional keys.

dBASE Compatibility Issues

In the early stages of your development process, you must decide whether the files that you created need to adhere to any restrictions regarding what sort of data can be contained in these files. `dB III` allows you to read and write `dBASE`-compatible files, but does nothing in the way of enforcing it. If you are creating files which will only be read by your own programs, it is perfectly OK to store binary data in fields, or use variable length and/or delimited fields. If, however, you want your files to be read by other programs capable of processing `dBASE`-compatible files, you must follow some rules.

What programs can process `dBASE`-compatible files? `AntigaVision` uses them for database operations, but not for scripts. `Orgaluzel` is a simple but useful program for putting data into files and displaying it. `dBMAN` (version V) is an attempt at implementing the `dBASE` language on the Amiga. It can read and write files processed by `dB III`, but it uses a different format for indexes. This does not have to be a big problem, as long as your files are not very large; just simply reindex files prior to using them. There are some other modules, `SuperBase`, for example, that can import and export `dBASE`-compatible files.

If you want your application to be `dBASE`-compatible, you must follow the following rules:

- 1) Don't store C-type null-terminated strings. Instead, fill the field out with spaces. A function, `dBNew`, is provided to do this.

2) Numeric data fields are represented as right-justified numbers (e.g., 1 and 1.0) and a pair of functions, `dbToNum` and `dbFromNum`, are provided to convert numeric fields from and to null-terminated ASCII strings, which may or may not contain a decimal point. If you intend to do arithmetic in C with this sort of data, you must also call `atol` to convert it from ASCII to binary (or `atof` to convert it in the other direction). Numeric keys, however, are represented as floating-point numbers in the index file, and `dbToKey` is provided to do this conversion.

3) Logical fields should contain "T" or "F".

Memo Fields

DBASE files are allowed to have "memo" fields. Memo fields allow variable-length text to be associated with a data base record. This data is stored as blocks within a separate file, and a pointer to the block is stored as a ten-digit number in the actual data base record. `dbOpen` and `dbPutm` are provided to deal with memo fields.

Processing of memo fields by dBC III is painfully slow. When a memo field is written, the high-order bit of every byte in the text is turned on, for no obvious reason. When a memo field is read, these bits are turned off again. This makes processing memo fields very slow: it takes 3-5 seconds to read a memo field and display it on the screen of an Amiga 2000. The text used in my application often includes non-English characters, and fiddling with the high-order bit in this situation is fatal. I ended up writing my own routines in C and Assembly to process memo fields and I found this to be reasonably simple to do.

Creation of Files

A function is supplied with dBC III to create files. You should try to avoid using `File Organizer` or `DBMAN` instead. This rule also applies if you need to add a file to a file, remove a field from a file, or change the size of a field.

Reindexing

Sooner or later, your files will have to be reindexed. You would have to do this if the file was modified by `DBMAN`, or imported, changed, and then exported by `Superbase`. If a gun or power failure occurs when you are updating an index, or in that interval after a record is added (or a key is changed) and before the index is updated, the file and the index will be in disagreement.

A reindexing operation simply recreates an index file from scratch, by reading every record in the data file, and adding an index for each record. The easiest way to accomplish this is to use `Organizer` to do it. Unfortunately, `Organizer` can deal with only the simplest types of keys: keys may consist of only one field, and the key can only be what this file actually contains. (For example, `Organizer` wouldn't be able to deal with the case-insensitive example given earlier.) If your keys are more complex, you must write your own program to do reindexing, which could look something like this:

```

2) The second parameter to dbIndex is the dBASE index
   description.
   The third parameter is the length of the index.
   The fourth parameter is the index type.
   C = character
   F = numeric
   L = logical
if (dbIndex)
    if (dbOpenIndex("INDEX.DEX", 32, 10) != SUCCESS)
        printf("dbOpenIndex unsuccessful!\n");
        goto error;

14) dbIndex("VendorList", "VENDOR", 10, 10, 1, SUCCESS);
    printf("dbIndex successful!\n");
    goto error;

15) dbOpen("VendorList", &position, 1, SUCCESS);
    printf("dbOpen successful!\n");
    goto error;

16) dbIndex("VendorList", "VENDOR", 10, 10, 1, SUCCESS);
    printf("dbIndex successful!\n");
    goto error;

17) dbOpen("VendorList", &position, 1, SUCCESS);
    printf("dbOpen successful!\n");
    goto error;

18) dbIndex("VendorList", "VENDOR", 1, SUCCESS);
    printf("dbIndex successful!\n");
    goto error;

19) dbIndex("VendorList", "VENDOR", 1, SUCCESS);
    printf("dbIndex successful!\n");
    goto error;

20) dbIndex("VendorList", "VENDOR", 1, SUCCESS);
    printf("dbIndex successful!\n");
    goto error;

for (j = 0; j < records; j++)
{
    if (dbGet(j, 0, j, &recordsProcessed, &status) != SUCCESS)
    {
        printf("dbGet unsuccessful!\n");
        goto error;
    }

21) Since we defined this index to be 32 bytes long, each record
    will consist of both the "name" and "item" fields.
    if (dbIndex(j, 0, 1, &recordsProcessed, &status, 1) != SUCCESS)
    {
        printf("dbIndex unsuccessful!\n");
        goto error;
    }

22) dbIndex(j, 0, 1, &recordsProcessed, &status, 1) != SUCCESS;
    printf("dbIndex unsuccessful!\n");
    goto error;
}

14)
15) dbIndex("VendorList", 1, SUCCESS);
    printf("dbIndex successful!\n");

16)
17) dbIndex("VendorList", 1, SUCCESS);
    printf("dbIndex successful!\n");

18)
19) dbIndex("VendorList", 1, SUCCESS);
    printf("dbIndex successful!\n");

20) dbIndex("VendorList", 1, SUCCESS);
    printf("dbIndex successful!\n");
}

```



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Note that the value of "status" returned by dBCgen is not checked, so any deleted records in this file will be included in the output.

Record Deletion

The function of the "status" variable in the call to dBCput in the first example is not clear at all. When dBCdelete is called, the record specified is not actually removed from the file; it is only "marked" as deleted. If you later attempt to read a deleted record with dBCget in another routine, the value returned will still be "success", but the value of "status" will be "INACTIVE" instead of "ACTIVE".

Both Organize and dBCAN have the capability to "pack" a file. This actually removes deleted records from a file. If you don't have one of these products, you must write your own program to do so.

Don't forget that packing a file causes the record numbers' (i.e. physical position of a record within the file) to change.

Evaluation of dBC III

I encountered few bugs in the dBC III and the performance is good, as long as you don't use memo fields. The manual is complete, and very useful. One chapter is a complete

tutorial, and all of the examples in the tutorial are provided on the diskette with the software. I only found a couple of minor ambiguities in the manual, and one serious bug. On page 7-25, a global variable named "liveness" is discussed. If you attempt to assign a different value to this, it must be defined as short, or you will be in for a world of trouble. This problem is obviously a reflection of the fact that this software was developed for PCs.

dBC III has applications beyond conventional database applications. I used it to control an interactive video system. It could be used for adventure games, and in any situation where referencing data with names is important.



About the Author

Robert Broughton is a consultant in Vancouver, Canada. Robert's recent project was the development of an interactive video system, "Laser Atlas", targeted towards the tourist industry. He can be reached c/o AC's TECH or via USEnet at: r1340@mindlink.UUCP.

Using Intuition's Proportional Gadgets from Absoft's FORTRAN 77

by Joseph R. Pasek

Introduction

The Amiga has developed a reputation as an excellent low cost but powerful computer with many areas of application. Both the Amiga 5000 and the Amiga 2000 (or 2500) equipped with either an 68020/68081 or 68030/68881 board and the appropriate software application software can also become a very powerful scientific and engineering workstation. The programming language that is most often employed in the scientific and engineering applications is the venerable FORTRAN language. Due to the sheer bulk of available source code written in FORTRAN and the relative ease at which scientists and engineers program with it, it is still the language of choice.

The Amiga programmer, using Absoft's FORTRAN 77, is capable of taking advantage of most of the Amiga's ROM Kernel routines. To file files, use the Amiga's graphic intuition, layers, diskfiles, dos and exec functions are provided. However, the FORTRAN's access to the Amiga's ROM Kernel routines is somewhat incomplete; for example Absoft's include file for access to intuition routine has no provision for the structures needed to create and use Intuition's gadgets. The Gadgets are the graphical buttons (boolean), sliders (proportional) and string objects that a program could employ to obtain user inputs.

This FORTRAN implementation does not directly access the ROM Kernel routines. Instead a routine is provided that is capable of interfacing to the Amiga's ROM Kernel routines. This routine is referred to as just `amiga()`. Usage of the `amiga()` subroutine is as follows, as a subroutine:

```
call amiga(ROM function name, arg1, arg2,  
..., arg n)
```

or, as a function

```
result = amiga (ROM function name, arg1,  
arg2, ..., arg n)
```

An identical approach is employed by Absoft's Macintosh version of the FORTRAN compiler where the use of an interfacing routine called `Toolbox()` is employed (I am not sure if this still holds in the latest release of Absoft's MacFORTRAN 77).

Absoft provides examples that shows some of its ROM Kernel interfacing capability with coded examples that generate some graphics by calling the ROM Kernel using the `amiga()` interface routine.

The Languages Implementation

The Absoft's FORTRAN language compiler for the Amiga has been available for just about as long as the Amiga has been available. The most currently available version, Version 2.5 is functionally equivalent to the ANSI standard FORTRAN 77 with some additional extensions that will be found in the proposed FORTRAN 90 standard.

FORTRAN is a high level applications programming language, especially suited for the scientific and engineering areas. Contrast this with another often used Amiga language C, which is considered to be primarily a systems programming language. Users of the C language are insistent that it should be considered as an all purpose language, insisting that it is capable of being applied as a high level scientific and engineering applications language. The authors of the book *Numerical Recipes in C*, Cambridge University Press, state in the preface that the C language does not easily lend itself to numerical analysis applications. In my opinion, probably the language that best qualifies as the best all purpose language on the Amiga for both systems and applications programming would be Modula 2, but that is the subject for another time. For some of us who work in the scientific and engineering application programming area FORTRAN remains the language of choice.

The purposes of this article are several, first to state the Amiga programming community that Absoft's FORTRAN on the Amiga is capable of providing access, although indirectly, to the Amiga's advanced features as embodied in the ROM Kernel routines, again without resorting to writing extra C or assembly language code. Second, to extend the scope of the include files

that is, over and above even what the compiler's developers even contemplated being done in terms of interfacing with the Amiga ROM Kernel routines. Third, it is also hoped to educate the programming community that structured programs can come from this version of FORTRAN, since a number of the so-called "trained" programmers while in school were subject to a great deal of anti-FORTRAN propaganda (in some cases justified) and as a result are severely biased against this language.

Most of the "bad" elements about FORTRAN were primarily based on the older FORTRAN IV. Although most elements of FORTRAN IV are still found in FORTRAN 77 (for compatibility reasons), the current version provides a large number of extensions that permit the programmer to employ more acceptable programming methodology, such as those language structures to minimize the need for the use of the dreaded GOTO's. It even provides a mechanism for saving data, typing familiar to all with program in the modern high-level programming languages.

OH NO! No support for the C structures

FORTRAN 77 does not support anything that resembles C's structures or Amiga's RECORDS (although FORTRAN 90 does). But there is a work-around. It can be observed that a C's data structure is nothing more than an array of data with mixed data types associated to various portions of that array. In the provided FORTRAN's include files byte arrays and equivalence statements are used together to define something that is functionally similar to C's data structures.

Figure 1 shows a portion of the Absolt's "graphics" include file. The left side defines the data type of a variable name (note the variable names used are similar to the ones one would find in the Amiga's C language include files). On the right the FORTRAN's EQUIVALENCE statement is used to place the just typed variable name at the appropriate location in a defined byte array. This process is repeated until all the elements of a typical Amiga C structures are mapped into the FORTRAN byte array.

In addition to the generation of the FORTRAN equivalents of C's structures, Absolt's include files also provide defines of commonly used Amiga parameters, symbolic names, and information needed to access the ROM Kernel routines by the FORTRAN's amiga() interface routine. Some of the defines for ROM Kernel routines are shown in Figure 2.

Several FORTRAN include files are provided by Absolt to allow the user to interface the FORTRAN to the ROM Kernel routines, these are:

```
graph.inc  
menu.inc  
input.inc  
layers.inc  
define.inc  
color.inc
```

As mentioned, Absolt does provide some demo programs to show how to use the information in the include files with the FORTRAN to interface with the ROM Kernel routines.

The Original Effort

The examples presented here arose from work being done in rehosting signal processing software written in FORTRAN that originally resided on a DEC's VAX computer. Initially, the port was done in a straight forward manner with little effort made to take advantage of any of the Amiga's interface features outside of the CLI.

The program was completely retested and tested. However, further work was pre-empted by a change in work assignment. Upon return to the this effort being a bit wiser, and upon review of the software and its potential user base it was decided that working from the CLI was adequate, but this ran contrary to the Amiga's graphical interface philosophy. The Amiga with its graphical user interface lead me to the conclusion there was no reason why this software port should be tied to the CLI just because it was the easiest to implement.

The challenge was to install in the FORTRAN source code the capability to provide the user of that FORTRAN based application program some user friendly interface elements. From the nature of the inputs needed by the program, the form of the desired means of input was identified. The identification process required the use of various gadget types string, boolean, and proportional. The use of such gadgets requires the programmer to employ one or more of the following structures:

```
StringInfo  
PropInfo  
Gadget
```

In addition to the structures, the use of the appropriate ROM Kernel routines are needed to either set up or locate the gadgets.

Examination of Absolt's FORTRAN's include files (initial) showed that the needed gadget structures were not available. However, the information needed to access the ROM Kernel routines in the same include file appeared to be almost all there. Figure 3 has the modifications or additions needed in order for the FORTRAN to have control of the gadgets.

The specific code segments needed to define the Gadget structures in Absolt's include files are shown in Figure 4.

Usage of the include files also showed a couple of the references needed to access some of the ROM Kernel were either absent or wrong. The include file's reference to the ROM Kernel call Enquire was in error. It must be changed from: x'00335314' to x'00329314'. The second find was that there was no reference to the ActivateGadget in the include file. The following line must be also added to the include file:

```
integer ActivateGadget ; parameter  
(ActivateGadget =x'06H2E341')
```

With this last change to the FORTRAN's include file it is now possible to write some code in FORTRAN that permits the user to use the Amiga's gadgets.

Figure One

A small portion of the FORTRAN's graphics include file is shown here. In particular, the AreaInfo and TextAttr structures are defined below. Also shown are parameters that are typed and assigned preset values.

```
Integer*2 AreaInfo(2)
Integer*4 ai_Vol1To3      ; equivalence (AreaInfo(1), ai_Vol1To3)
Integer*4 ai_Vol3To5     ; equivalence (AreaInfo(3), ai_Vol3To5)
Integer*4 ai_FlagTbl     ; equivalence (AreaInfo(5), ai_FlagTbl)
Integer*4 ai_FlagPnt     ; equivalence (AreaInfo(7), ai_FlagPnt)
Integer*2 ai_Count       ; equivalence (AreaInfo(9), ai_Count)
Integer*4 ai_MaxCount    ; equivalence (AreaInfo(10), ai_MaxCount)
Integer*2 ai_FirstX      ; equivalence (AreaInfo(11), ai_FirstX)
Integer*2 ai_FirstY      ; equivalence (AreaInfo(12), ai_FirstY)

* up_Page:

Integer FIRST_DOT        ; parameter (FIRST_DOT = z'0001')
Integer ONE_DOT          ; parameter (ONE_DOT = z'0002')
Integer DBLSPK          ; parameter (DBLSPK = z'0004')
Integer ADRSCUTLINE     ; parameter (ADRSCUTLINE = z'0008')
Integer NORCROSSFIL     ; parameter (NORCROSSFIL = z'0020')

* up_DrawMode:

Integer JAM              ; parameter (JAM = 0)
Integer JAM2             ; parameter (JAM2 = 1)
Integer COMPLEMENT      ; parameter (COMPLEMENT = 2)
Integer INVERSEVID      ; parameter (INVERSEVID = 4)

* up_TextAttr:

Integer TXSCALE          ; parameter (TXSCALE = 1)

* - from 'text.f' *
Integer*4 TextAttr(4)

Integer*4 ta_Name        ; equivalence (TextAttr(1), ta_Name)
Integer*4 ta_YSize      ; equivalence (TextAttr(3), ta_YSize)
Integer*4 ta_Style      ; equivalence (TextAttr(7), ta_Style)
Integer*4 ta_Flags      ; equivalence (TextAttr(8), ta_Flags)

* ta_KeyIn:

Integer FS_NORMAL        ; parameter (FS_NORMAL = 0)
Integer FS_UNDERLINED   ; parameter (FS_UNDERLINED = 1)
Integer FS_BOLD          ; parameter (FS_BOLD = 2)
Integer FS_ITALIC        ; parameter (FS_ITALIC = 4)
Integer FS_EXTENDED     ; parameter (FS_EXTENDED = 8)

* ta_Flags:

Integer FP_BORDER       ; parameter (FP_BORDER = 1)
Integer FT_BORDERON     ; parameter (FT_BORDERON = 2)
Integer FP_BORDERPATH   ; parameter (FP_BORDERPATH = 4)
Integer FP_TALLER      ; parameter (FP_TALLER = 8)
Integer FP_WIDER       ; parameter (FP_WIDER = 16)
Integer FP_PROPORTIONAL ; parameter (FP_PROPORTIONAL = 32)
Integer FT_BORDEROFF    ; parameter (FT_BORDEROFF = 64)
Integer FT_REMOVE      ; parameter (FT_REMOVE = 128)
```

Figure Two

This shows another portion of the FORTRAN graphics flag, in this case the ROM Kernel function names and their assigned numeric values. The value assigned each function name is utilized by the `strigra()` routine to interface to the corresponding ROM kernel routines.

function values for 'graphics.library'

```
integer GfxPage           / parameter (GfxPage           =z'00000000')
integer AndRegionRegion  / parameter (AndRegionRegion  =z'00332268')
integer XorRegionRegion  / parameter (XorRegionRegion  =z'00332267')
integer OrRegionRegion   / parameter (OrRegionRegion   =z'00332269')
integer BitMapMapRaster  / parameter (BitMapMapRaster  =z'000FF260')
integer FreeGBuffers     / parameter (FreeGBuffers     =z'04322260')
integer CopperListInit   / parameter (CopperListInit   =z'00000060')
integer ScrollVPort      / parameter (ScrollVPort      =z'00000062')
integer GetRGE4          / parameter (GetRGE4          =z'00212260')
integer FreeColorMap     / parameter (FreeColorMap     =z'00012260')
integer GetColorMap      / parameter (GetColorMap      =z'00012250')
integer FreeCopperList   / parameter (FreeCopperList   =z'00012250')
integer XorRectRegion    / parameter (XorRectRegion    =z'00132250')
integer ClipDList        / parameter (ClipDList        =z'00012250')
integer FreeCopperList   / parameter (FreeCopperList   =z'00012250')
integer FreeVPortCopperList / parameter (FreeVPortCopperList =z'00012250')
integer DisposeRegion    / parameter (DisposeRegion    =z'00012250')
integer ClearRegion      / parameter (ClearRegion      =z'00012258')
integer HSetRegion       / parameter (HSetRegion       =z'00012257')
integer HNewRegion       / parameter (HNewRegion       =z'00000250')
integer OrRectRegion    / parameter (OrRectRegion    =z'00332250')
integer AndRectRegion    / parameter (AndRectRegion    =z'00332250')
integer FreeRaster       / parameter (FreeRaster       =z'04012253')
```

Figure Three

Modifications and additions made to the FORTRAN's include file.

Added the following Intuition Structures to Absoft's include file.

```
StringInfo
PropInfo
Gadget
```

Modified the information needed to access the Intuition's EndRequest routine (See Figure 2).

Added the routine ActivateGadget function to the Intuition's include file function list.

Figure Four

This is a listing of the FORTRAN templates (equivalent to C's structures) and parameter definitions that must be added to Absoft's FORTRAN runtime file. Once these code segments are added, the Amiga FORTRAN user is capable of accessing Intuition's string, boolean, and proportional gadgets.

StringInfo structure

```
Integer*1 StringInfo(30)

Integer*4 si_PtrLen      ; equivalence (StringInfo(1), si_PtrLen)
Integer*4 si_UnicodeLen ; equivalence (StringInfo(2), si_UnicodeLen)
Integer*2 si_BufferPos  ; equivalence (StringInfo(3), si_BufferPos)
Integer*2 si_MaxChars   ; equivalence (StringInfo(11), si_MaxChars)
Integer*2 si_DispPos    ; equivalence (StringInfo(3), si_DispPos)
Integer*2 si_UnicodePos ; equivalence (StringInfo(15), si_UnicodePos)
Integer*2 si_NumChars   ; equivalence (StringInfo(17), si_NumChars)
Integer*2 si_DispCount  ; equivalence (StringInfo(19), si_DispCount)
Integer*2 si_Start      ; equivalence (StringInfo(21), si_Start)
Integer*2 si_CTop       ; equivalence (StringInfo(23), si_CTop)
Integer*4 si_LayerPtr   ; equivalence (StringInfo(25), si_LayerPtr)
Integer*4 si_Length     ; equivalence (StringInfo(27), si_Length)
Integer*4 si_AltKeyXor  ; equivalence (StringInfo(30), si_AltKeyXor)
```

Gadget structure

```
Integer*1 Gadget(44)

Integer*1 gg_NextGadget ; equivalence (Gadget(1), gg_NextGadget)
Integer*2 gg_LeftEdge   ; equivalence (Gadget(6), gg_LeftEdge)
Integer*2 gg_TopEdge    ; equivalence (Gadget(7), gg_TopEdge)
Integer*2 gg_Width      ; equivalence (Gadget(9), gg_Width)
Integer*2 gg_Height     ; equivalence (Gadget(11), gg_Height)
Integer*2 gg_Flags      ; equivalence (Gadget(13), gg_Flags)
Integer*2 gg_Activation ; equivalence (Gadget(15), gg_Activation)
Integer*2 gg_GadgetType ; equivalence (Gadget(17), gg_GadgetType)
Integer*4 gg_GadgetRender ; equivalence (Gadget(19), gg_GadgetRender)
Integer*4 gg_SelectRender ; equivalence (Gadget(23), gg_SelectRender)
Integer*4 gg_GadgetText ; equivalence (Gadget(27), gg_GadgetText)
Integer*4 gg_MutualExclude ; equivalence (Gadget(31), gg_MutualExclude)
Integer*4 gg_SpecialInfo ; equivalence (Gadget(35), gg_SpecialInfo)
Integer*2 gg_GadgetID   ; equivalence (Gadget(39), gg_GadgetID)
Integer*4 gg_UserData   ; equivalence (Gadget(41), gg_UserData)
```


PropInfo structure

```
Integer PropInfo(1)
Integer*2 pi_Flaga
Integer*2 pi_HorizPos
Integer*2 pi_VertPos
Integer*2 pi_HorizBody
Integer*2 pi_VertBody
Integer*2 pi_KWidth
Integer*2 pi_KWeight
Integer*2 pi_HDotPos
Integer*2 pi_VDotPos
Integer*2 pi_LeftBorder
Integer*2 pi_TopBorder
; equivalence (PropInfo(1), pi_Flaga)
; equivalence (PropInfo(2), pi_HorizPos)
; equivalence (PropInfo(3), pi_VertPos)
; equivalence (PropInfo(4), pi_HorizBody)
; equivalence (PropInfo(5), pi_VertBody)
; equivalence (PropInfo(6), pi_KWidth)
; equivalence (PropInfo(7), pi_KWeight)
; equivalence (PropInfo(8), pi_HDotPos)
; equivalence (PropInfo(9), pi_VDotPos)
; equivalence (PropInfo(10), pi_LeftBorder)
; equivalence (PropInfo(11), pi_TopBorder)
```

PropInfo flags

```
Integer AUTOKNOB ; parameter (AUTOKNOB = 4'000'000)
Integer FRASHENSLA ; parameter (FRASHENSLA = 2'000'021)
Integer FFFFWERT ; parameter (FFFWERT = 2'000'001)
Integer PROPROTORIKON ; parameter (PROPTORIKON = 2'000'001)
Integer KNOBHIT ; parameter (KNOBHIT = 2'000'001)
Integer KNOBEN ; parameter (KNOBEN = 2'000'001)
Integer KNOBMIN ; parameter (KNOBMIN = 2'000'001)
Integer MAXBODY ; parameter (MAXBODY = 2'000'001)
Integer MAXPOT ; parameter (MAXPOT = 2'000'001)
```

An Example: A Proportional Gadget from FORTRAN code (On Disk)

OneThin is simple. It sets up the Amiga's NewScreen structure, and then proceeds to call OpenScreen using the Amiga() routine. It is from this newly opened screen that the window containing the proportional gadget is found. The proportional gadget is set up and used by the HamBey subroutine.

The HamBey subroutine first allocates some chip memory for the slider knob image of the proportional gadget. This is achieved with a call to the AllocMem routine and a request is made for 200 bytes of CHIP memory. The AllocMem routine returns the base address of the memory allocated. The slider's knob image as defined in the KnobGraphic array is moved into the just allocated chip memory. This step uses the Absolute FORTRAN word function to place the array's data at the desired memory location. The next step sets up AKNOBImage array (or data structure) by employing the image template as defined in the InitLine file. This is followed by setting up the Allocation array from the PropInfo template.

This defines the proportional gadget's attributes. An IntText structure is next defined into the text array. The Gadget array is next defined from the Gadget template again defined in the InitLine file. Again the nomenclature used here is nearly identical to that used in the Amiga's C runtime definitions. A window structure called FirstNewWindow is then defined using the NewWindow template. All the needed structures are now defined.

A call to OpenLibrary is done to open the Amiga's InitLibrary. As required by the operating system, the string sent to the operating system must be zero (0) terminated. A check is made to determine if the library has been opened. The NewWindow template is used to set up the FirstNewWindow structure. To the FirstNewWindow structure is attached the proportional gadget structure Gadget1 by passing the Gadget1 address pointer to FirstGad1. A call is made to the OpenWindow routine to open the window. If the first window cannot be opened the opened library is closed and the program is halted returning control to the user.

Open also provides several routines that are not found in the standard FORTRAN. The Amiga() routine has already been discussed. The other provided routine is loc() which returns a pointer to a FORTRAN variable. Examination of the code described thus far shows some applications of the loc() routine. Absolute memory addressing is now supported by the FORTRAN compiler with three functions (by of(), word(), and long()) word memory addressing. The code description that follows will show application of these special intrinsic functions.

The windows raster port pointer (RPortPtr) is derived from the memory offset wd_LPort and the windows first window base pointer. Here the absolute memory addressing function long() is employed. The SetAPer function is called to set the port code. The variable HAM_FACTOR is converted to integers which ranges from 0 to 255. The floating point variable HAM_FACTOR is converted to string HamComp based on a format description. MaxVPrint() is called to set the

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position of the slider cursor in the proportional gadget. The value of HAY_FACTOR variable is placed via the position facility into the window. The do-while loop that follows monitors the messages that are received by the window through its user's port.

A provision is made to suspend any processing until some form of input is directed to the window, this is achieved calling the Amiga's Wait routine. The Wait routine suspends this process until it is determined that some input has been directed to this window, this allows the FORTRAN based process to be more cooperative in Amiga's multi-tasking environment. When some mouse activity is detected that is in accord with the window's pre-defined HXDEF flags the process is activated and the type of message (MessageClass) is ascertained.

For this example only two message classes are looked for: GADGETUP and CLOSEWINDOW. The GADGETUP message indicates that the window's proportional gadget has been manipulated. The gadget's positional message is taken from the ALPropInfo structure converted to a string and displayed as some form of text. A CLOSEWINDOW message class is activated by clicking on the window's close gadget. Upon detection the RemoveGadget system routine is called to delete the gadget from the window. Followed by a call to the Amiga's system

CloseWindow routines to close the window and finally the intuition.library is closed for this process. The do-while loop variable Window is changed to a false condition, allowing the loop to be exited.

The final steps entail setting the HAY_FACTOR to the most recent value as ascertained from the last proportional gadget setting. The bit of chip memory allocated by a call Allocation is deallocated by call to the system's FreeMem routine.

The executable form of the program described is called TestFrop. Access from the windowmaker is achieved by clicking the TestFrop_Demo form. The Source code is provided in the _sources directory. Additional examples of FORTRAN based code are also provided, click on the Tills_Demo and Jupiter_Moons icons. The Jupiter_Moons is a Jupiter Moons simulation written in FORTRAN. Fills_Demo is an example of how to access the Amiga's arcfill routines.

There, in a relatively large nutshell, is an example of how to interface one's FORTRAN code to the Amiga's intuition, to take advantage of its proportional gadgets. Future articles will describe the interfacing of FORTRAN source to other Intuition gadgets, string and boolean.



FastBoot

A Super BootBlock

Creating a bootable, recoverable, RAM disk.

by Dan Babouck

What is it?

FastBoot is a bootblock that cyclically loads an entire disk into memory, creates a RAM disk, and boots from that RAM disk. The RAM disk that FastBoot creates is recoverable and autobooting (it requires Kickstart 1.3 or later). It is equivalent to mounting a floppy-sized RAD (more properly known as ramdrive.device), using DiskCopy to fill RAD, ejecting the floppy, and resetting the machine. Because FastBoot resides solely on the hard disk, however, all these functions require no usable disk space—and proceed as quickly as possible (no endless disk grinding). FastBoot has other advantages too: It supports two popular Amiga 1000 hacks (\$12K of pipelined RAM at \$80,000 and Kickstart-in-EPROM with 256K of RAM at \$180,000) and it allocates its memory in four 20K chunks (RADs; by contrast, it locates a single contiguous 80K chunk), allocating in four chunks permits contiguous memory regions as small as 256K to be utilized (such as results from the Kickstart-in-EPROM hack). FastBoot is also flexible; it may be bypassed completely by pressing the left mouse button (port 1) during boot-up and, once installed, may be deinstalled by pressing the "Fire" button of a joystick or mouse in port 2. Finally, FastBoot is convenient: there is no need to add files to the disk and edit startup-sequences and memlists, making it particularly handy for speeding up games or demos with heavy disk access (assuming they don't access the floppy hardware directly).

How to use it

The source code listing was designed to be assembled with Macintosh. If you lack Macintosh you'll find the binary on the accompanying disk. Once you have the 1000 byte file in hand, all that remains to be done is to install it in the bootblock of your disk(s). For this task I recommend PBIInstall, a bootblock manipulator written by Dr. Sit, a Danish assembly language programmer. Again, PBIInstall is found on the disk that comes with AC's Tech. To install FastBoot on a disk in drive d0, type

FAST BOOT INSTALL d0:

There are just a few points to keep in mind when using FastBoot. First of all, it requires at least 1.25MB of memory to be useful. In fact, FastBoot checks how much memory is available: if 1MB (note that this value may be easily changed in the source code) or less is available, the disk will boot normally, bypassing the special FastBoot code. If that memory requirement is too much for your system, FastBoot may be modified rather easily to support 480K RAM disks. Another requirement is Kickstart 1.3 or later. If an older Kickstart is in use, FastBoot refuses to do its magic, and the disk boots normally.

As mentioned earlier, FastBoot may be bypassed by pressing the left mouse button during boot-up. Once the disk is loaded into memory, the RAM disk that was created will become the boot disk. To refer to the RAM disk, use the designation "WB:" (this is analogous to names such as "DF0:" and "DF1:"). The device name (analogous to "trackdisk.device") is also "WB."

The contents of the RAM disk are preserved when the system is reset and, in addition, AmigaDOS will boot from the RAM disk after a keyboard reset if there is no floppy in DF0. Only one FastBoot RAM disk in memory at one time is supported. If FastBoot detects that it has been run before, a disk with the FastBoot bootblock will boot normally rather than be loaded into memory. To kick out the FastBoot RAM disk (and also RAD if it is in memory), hold down the "fire" button of a mouse or joystick in port 2 after resetting. Port 1 was not used for this purpose to avoid a conflict with the boot selection screen in Kickstart 2.0.

Technical details

Perhaps the most interesting aspect of FastBoot is that it (like ramdrive.device on the 1.3 Workbench) is recoverable and bootable. This process revolves around two pointers present in ExecBase since version 1.2: KickMemPtr (ExecBase+0222) and KickTagPtr (ExecBase+0220).

KickMemPtr points to a list of MemLists. During startup, Exec tries to allocate the memory defined in the MemLists with AllocAbs, which attempts to mark a region of memory at an absolute address as unavailable. To succeed, if the memory has not already been allocated. A recoverable RAM disk can use KickMemPtr to ensure that its memory is not striped or after a reset. There is one catch, though: at the time Exec calls AllocAbs, memory expansion boards have not been configured, and Exec is unaware of that. The only memory known to Exec at this time is Chip memory and the special \$C00,000 memory, which means, essentially, that only Chip memory may be allocated using KickMemPtr.

KickMemPtr points to a table with the following format:

```

points to a romtag
points to a romtag
...
C list of tables or another KickMemPtr, identified by setting
the YES (most significant bit)

```

A romtag is simply a table that both identifies and describes a device driver or library (often simply referred to as a module). If the AllocAbs calls made previously (when processing KickMemPtr) succeeded, then Exec gathers these romtags in a list, along with the real romtags (those that actually exist in ROM). Note that they are sorted according to the priority field of the romtag. After that, Exec calls InitCode, which calls InitResident for each module, which, among other things, calls an initialization routine in the module. Note that there is a checksum of the lists/tables associated with these two pointers. When a program alters this information, it must call the Exec routine SaveKickData and store the result (in 001F) in KickChecksum (ExecBase+022A).

The FastBoot code resides in Chip RAM and uses the KickMemPtr mechanism to protect itself from being overwritten. The actual RAM disk can't be expected to fit in a chip RAM, however. The solution: The RAM disk data is recovered (by calling AllocAbs) in the initialization routine of the driver. Because we've chosen a priority for the driver lower than the priority of the expansion.library, RAM disks have already been configured and all memory is available. It turns out that this procedure is a bit trickier than it first appears, however. The problem is that we are making multiple calls to AllocAbs. Each AllocAbs call may consume memory if the memory list needs to be expanded but, since the other memory blocks are as yet unknown to the OS, they may be overwritten. Fortunately, there is a simple solution: Provide an eight-byte buffer area on both sides of a memory chunk.

Once the RAM disk memory has been recovered, FastBoot needs to inform the OS that it wants to autoboot. This is accomplished by enqueueing a BootNode structure on the eh_MountList of the expansion.library. To make a long story short, the following code and structures are all you need to know in order to autoboot.

Typical autoboot code

Please note that the following code assumes that the driver (called "backdisk.device" in this example) has already been initialized. Unless this happens automatically for some reason (for example, if it is hooked into KickMemPtr) you should call InitResident first. This code uses the new 68000 syntax developed by Motorola to support the added instructions and addressing modes of the 68020 and above.

```

move.w 001F,00
lea    expansion.library
moveq  001F,d0    #index of backstore 001F on later
SYS    000,library
move.w 00
lea.w  KickMemPtr
move.w 00,00
lea    expansion.library
SYS    KickMemPtr
lea    eh_MountList,00    #address of
                             job Mount List
move.w 00,00

```

```

lea    (BootNode,ptr),d0    #address of boot node in
                             ;BootNode
                             ;structure
SYS    expansion.library    #add BootNode to
                             job MountList

BootNode:
d0.w  00
expansion.library,0
even

```

Autoboot structures

```

BootNode:
d0.w  00    #linkage pointer - filled in by
           ;Expansion
d0.w  00    #linkage pointer - filled in by
           ;Expansion
d0.b  16    #priority - must be here
d0.w  00    #priority
d0.w  00    #ConfigDev
d0.w  00    #flags - set low important
           #fields 15 - filled in by above code

ConfigDev:
d0.b  00,00    #ignored
d0.b  00,00    #reserved - must be same
d0.b  00,00    #reserved
d0.l  00,00    #flags

Programs:
d0.b  00,00    #reserved - must be same
d0.b  00,00    #reserved
d0.w  00,00    #number of programs    #this is UNDEFINED

The BootPoint:
d0.w  00,00    #code must live after the programs,
           #not before.

```

```

BootPoint:
#operands here none
move.w 00,00
lea    (BootNode,ptr),d0
SYS    InitResident
move.w 00,00
move.w 00,00    #0,00,00
fpp    00
Resident: d0.b 'dos.library',0
even

paramkbt:
#values for a floppy-like device are given as an example
d0.w  00,00    #number
d0.w  00,00    #Expansion
d0.w  00,00    #sector number (not very important)
           #operating page size used to find
           #start
d0.w  00,00    #upper bound of this table, in
           #programs
d0.w  00,00    #number of sectors in a block

#diskette:
d0.w  00,00    #sector origin (never used)
d0.w  00,00    #number of surfaces
d0.w  00,00    #sectors per logical block address
           #scheme - never
           #used
d0.w  00,00    #sectors per track
d0.w  00,00    #reserved blocks - 2 boot blocks
d0.w  00,00    #sector used
d0.w  00,00    #initials
d0.w  00,00    #power up user
d0.w  00,00    #upper bounds
d0.w  00,00    #number of buffers

Surfaces: d0.w 'dos.library'
even

Frontiers: d0.b 'backdisk.device',0
even

```

The RAM disk driver

One of the most remarkable aspects of FastBoot is that it contains a complete device driver embedded in it—and, in fact, the device driver constitutes a rather small percentage of FastBoot's 1,006 bytes. Due to the size and complexity of the sample device driver kernel in the *Amiga ROM Kernel Reference Manual*, one might believe that device drivers are difficult to understand and write. Examining the device driver in FastBoot is an excellent way to learn the basic form and function of a device driver under Exec without being bogged down with unnecessary detail. The reason why the sample driver in the *ROM Kernel Reference Manual* is so complicated is that it permits permanent operation (which is required by Exec) despite controlling nonshareable hardware (although the sample driver functions as a RAM disk, and thus doesn't need that capability).

The RAM disk that FastBoot creates is recoverable and autobooting (it requires Kickstart 1.3 or later).

This is confusing, so I'll try to clarify. Consider two tasks that both attempt to read from a floppy drive. One of the tasks calls `DoIO`, which causes Exec to call the driver's `BeginIO` entry point. The drive dispatches the request to its read routine, and starts programming the floppy controller registers. At the same time, the other task issues a read request. Once again, the driver starts programming the floppy controller registers. Chaos ensues—because the other task is doing the same thing. It's clear that the floppy driver must queue and arbitrate these requests. Hence, the added complexity.

None of that is required for a RAM disk. Any number of accesses to the RAM disk may occur simultaneously with no need for queuing requests. Admittedly, there is one possible catch: if one task reads a sector at the same time another task is writing a sector, there may be confusion. However, proper file system design should not permit such a case to arise.

Miscellaneous Notes

There are a few other aspects of FastBoot worthy of commentary. For one, note that FastBoot includes a built-in Exec bug fix—equivalent to the `fix` option of `SetParam`—that is called via the `ZeroCapture` vector. Since we're on the topic of Exec "capture" vectors, I'll like to digress and describe them. Because of their popular use in viruses, it's nice to know what they are.

`ZeroCapture`: ExecBase+02. This vector is called (with a JMP) very early in the bootup routine. The return address is in A5.

`OneCapture`: ExecBase+06. This vector is called (with a JSR) just before `InitCode` is called.

`WarmCapture`: ExecBase+0D. This vector is called (with a JSR) right after `InitCode` is called.

Another notable point is that there is a quirk in the autoboot process. The floppy drive has a priority of five. If a device has a priority lower than five (please note that `Priority` referring to the priority field of the `BootNode`, not of the device driver per se), the floppy will be checked first. Even if a floppy is not present, AmigaDOS will boot from the next highest priority autoboot device. It is sometimes desirable to bypass the floppy check entirely. Take FastBoot, for instance. After FastBoot loads the floppy into memory, we want AmigaDOS to boot from the copy in RAM, not the disk. To accomplish that, one is supposed to specify a priority greater than five. Unfortunately (here's the quirk I promised you) it doesn't work quite right. It does indeed bypass the floppy check, but then there are two DPO devices in the device list—clearly an unstable situation. FastBoot includes a hack that fixes this feature-bug. Strangely enough, the same technique does not work at all under 2.0, so FastBoot takes a different approach in that case (rebooting the machine).

One other point worth noting is that AmigaDOS creates if two volumes (i.e., disks) have the same name and creation date. Accordingly, it is not sufficient to simply copy a disk into memory verbatim—either the name or date must be changed. By far the simplest method of handling this requirement is to increment the "tick" value. A tick is, according to the *AmigaDOS Technical Reference Manual*, a fiftieth of a second. It's too small for most to be concerned with, but it is still quite sufficient for AmigaDOS to use to distinguish between two volumes with the same name. An added benefit of changing the creation time (as opposed to the volume name, for instance) is that the new checksum (it seems like everything has a checksum, doesn't it?) is easy to calculate: just subtract one.

The End...for now

By far the hardest part of writing FastBoot was dealing with the extremely limited space available—just 1012 bytes (though the current version of FastBoot only uses 1006 bytes). When confronted with such limitations, it's tempting to take shortcuts. For example, code size could have been reduced considerably by relying on certain absolute addresses in the Kickstart 1.3 ROM, but I wanted the program to be compatible with Kickstart 2.0 and beyond. I had to rewrite the code many times to pack it into the limited space. I'm sure you'll find many of your favorite optimizations in the source code listing. High-quality assembly language programming is not obsolete!

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```

*****
FastBoot: A Super User Manual
:
: Written by Dan Edwards, January 1990
: Copyright © 1990 by Dan Edwards
:
: You OK to copy this as long as no money is involved.
: Commercial arrangements should contact me!
:
: I may be reached on Eeople/Link my ID is EDWARDSOXY or Internet
: mail ed@purgatory.walpole.ma.us
*****

```



```

user      :user raw mode
major     :raw mode
super     :support warnings across supervisor node
:
: This section was assembled at: 04/06/88, 12:00:00 AM

```

```

----- hardware-like parameters -----
MemoryRequirement  mem  $10,00
BootExpansion      exp  0          changed from -128 to 127
:

```

```

RAMSize  exp  1024 (this refers to the size of memory 1024
          bytes after the bootload when the main
          pointers to the 4 256K memory blocks

```

```

: These four addresses are used to refer to the four
: memory block pointers respectively.
mem1  exp  RAMSize
mem2  exp  RAMSize-4
mem3  exp  RAMSize-4
mem4  exp  RAMSize-4

```

```

KickHeaderData  ver  1072 (this doesn't refer to KickHeader ver
          ver, but to the data that KickHeader
          will point to

```

```

: Here is the code
FastBoot:
: * Load in all 800K of the disk *
moveb.l 00-ffff-00,-regl save all registers
moveb.l 00-ffff-00,-reg2 save all registers for 2nd pass
:

```

```

: Check to see if FASTBOOT has already been run
lea      (name,pc),a1
movb     #FASTBOOT,a1
cmpl    #0
jne      someaction      ;if present, boot normally

```

```

: Check checksum version
lea      CheckVersion,a1
movb     #checksum,a1
cmpl    #0
jne      someaction      ;if lower than 0, boot normally
:
lea      address, a1
add     #1000,a1

```

```

: Check for button (use y left mouse button) in the left
: part. If the button is pressed, skip FASTBOOT and boot
: normally.
movb     #0, %b0
movb     #0, %b1

```

```

: Check available memory - only perform the function if the
: user has more than MINIMUM_REQUIREMENT bytes. (MINIMUM_REQUIREMENT
: value should be set to the minimum value of memory
: the memory requirements of the program.
moveq    #1, d1      ;set special a register
lea      AddressMem,a1
movl     #MINIMUM_REQUIREMENT,d0      ;minimum free memory required
cmpl     #MINIMUM_REQUIREMENT,d0      ;is it ok? (free mem) <
:MemoryRequirement

```

```

: Allocate 128K bytes of DRAM (RAM) memory and copy
: this data into it (about 1,072 bytes) into it.
moveq    #128,d0      ;size of drive including kernel mem
movl     #0,d0
movl     #0, %b0-%b7 CLEAR, %b0 (MUST be chip pin)
movl     #0, %b0-%b7
movl     #0, %b0-%b7

```


#####

Load (B:SoftWare,AS) ; CD
moveq #13,dl
movemv dl,r5

#####

addl r5,r1
cmpl r5,r5
jle 100,pc1,31
cmpl r5,r5
jle 100,pc1,31

#####

movemv r4,r5
leal 100,pc1,31
movemv r5,r4
movemv r5,r4

#####

movemv r5,r4 ; save clearing of d0 to ABSOLUTE; needed for
; "pop" to dummy driver function; !!
stc

#####

AutoBoot structure ####
that we take advantage of the fact in the approach
by overlapping several structures. For a better
computing view of the structure, refer to the accompanying
picture.

#####

MyFootNode:
d0: 1 (01,000) ; reserve for first message
d1: 16 ; rags - this is crucial
d2: 127 ; rags - this data changes to TestPriority
; after a keyboard reset (see KickDriver)
entry: d0: MyFootArea ; Configs: (optional)
d1: rags
d2: '000' ; opt to default, filled in later

#####

MyFootArea:

#####

MyKickData:

#####

entry: d0: 0 ; this area is optional, not first space filled

#####

leal 01,071,07 ; 100%
cmpl r5,r5

#####

movemv r5,r4

#####

movemv r5,r4 ; important constant

#####

movemv r5,r4 ; 100%

#####

movemv r5,r4 ; 100%

#####

#####

#####

#####

#####

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#####

; save d0 to keep the IMS again via
; direct even after we do initial
; yFac.Reset.

#####

#####

#####

#####

; reserve d0's LIB VERSION with 0

#####

; only available in 2.0+

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```


Address:

Several code is needed to search the two most popular AICCI banks
while none is perfectly harmless on other machines.

Note that this routine requires the ExecBase 000 to be in
000.

Change the 0000 (which also supplies the 000 on disk) to
0000 supplied by C1 and most 2nd party drives.
This enables the extra 0000 at \$80,000 for some AICCI
programs.

```

movw  #0, d0
movw  #0, d1
movew  #00000000, b0
bset  C1, 0001  ;000000 00
bset  C1, 0001
bset  C1, 0001

bset  C1, 0001  ;0000 000
bset  C1, 0001
bset  C1, 0001

```

Address:

0000, 0000
Check for the presence of 0000 at \$80,000
State that the 0000 is needed for the

```

movew  #00000000, d0
movew  #000, d1
movew  #00001, d2  ;0000 0000
movew  #0, d3
movew  #000, d4
bset  #00000000, b0
movew  #0, d5

```

Add our extra memory

```

movew  #0, d0
movew  #0  ;load $80,000 000,144
bset  #00000000

```

skipaddmem:

```

movew  #0, d0
movew  #0  ;load $80,000 000,288
movew  #0, d1

```

Make a check if 00000000 is not \$80,000. 0000 Address at
000,000. 0000 may be needed when using a 0000 0000.

```

movew  #00000000, d0
bset  #00000000

```

Change the memory at 000,000

```

movew  #000, d1  ;load
movew  #0, d2
movew  #000, d3
bset  #00000000, b0
movew  #0, d4  ;000000

```

0001 (length) and 0001 (starting address) need to set final
address 0:

```

movew  #0001 00000000, d1  ;0000:0000
movew  #0, d2  ;0000:0000
movew  #0, d3  ;0000
movew  #0001, d4

```

skipaddmem:

```

movew  #0, d0
movew  #0, d1

```

InitDriver:

```

movew  #0 00000000, d0
movew  #0, d1

```

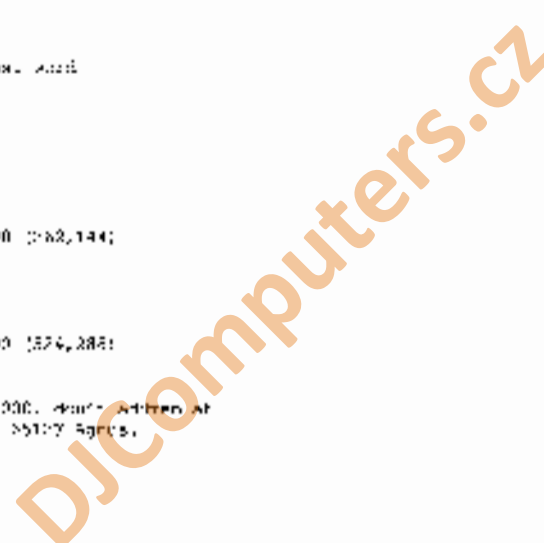
0000 00000000 0000

0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000
0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000

```

movew  #00000000, d0
movew  #0, d1
movew  #00000000, d2

```



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AmigaDOS for Programmers

Exploring DOS Library Calls and Features

by Bruno Costa

The Amiga system software is clearly layered into multiple levels of complexity with well-defined purposes. It is completely implemented as calls to memory-resident or disk-resident system libraries that contain virtually all the functions and data a program needs to control every feature of the machine. Managing the lowest level characteristics is Exec, the multitasking kernel where things like task switching, messages, signals, processor exceptions and device-task communications are handled. There is also the graphics library that controls custom chips and basic graphics. The layers library provides a way to share graphic screens between multiple tasks, “sliding” the display into layers (very similar to windows). At a higher level, Intuition uses all of these to implement the memory/windows/gadgets graphical user interface. “But what about AmigaDOS?”, you may ask. Well...

Exec provides some tools that allow multiple programs to communicate with devices by sending messages back and forth, but the Exec devices just read and write blocks of data, we need a way to logically divide the space of each disk device into directories and files. That's one of the tasks of AmigaDOS, in addition to file formats, protection bits, processes (an enlarged task), device handlers, virtual device name assignment and a powerful interface to all of these activities. Normally, when you use the CLI, you do not call AmigaDOS directly (this is only possible through programs). Rather, you load files in executable format (executable programs) which, in turn, call AmigaDOS.

This article is not intended to be a full reference or an entry-level tutorial. Rather, it represents a collection of personal findings and tips on how to call AmigaDOS from inside your programs. Combined with the *AmigaDOS Developer's Manual*, the *AmigaDOS Technical Reference Manual*, and the example programs provided at the end of the article, I hope to make clear how—and sometimes why—things work (or do not). If you want to delete files, find out file sizes, attributes or the amount of disk space free, create or read directories and even run processes from inside your programs, read on.

Files

AmigaDOS provides a basic set of file-handling functions that range from simple read/write operations to low-level information and locking protocols that allow simultaneous file access by concurrent processes. There are two ways under AmigaDOS to identify files: locks and handles.

Locks are used to notify the system that you want to access a file (or directory); they thus forbid another process to modify that file while you are reading it, or to read it while you are writing. A lock also provides a unique identification for a file that is frequently used by library functions to describe which file you are referencing. A lock can be obtained explicitly by a call to `Lock (filename, access)`, where `filename` is a regular file name and `access` is either `ACCESS_READ` (same as `SHARED_LOCK`) or `ACCESS_WRITE` (same as `EXCLUSIVE_LOCK`). `Lock()` will fail, returning a `NULL` value, if the given file is not accessible (e.g., the file does not exist or is already exclusively locked), so it can be used to check it. When you are done with the file access you must call `Unlock (lock)`, where `lock` is a valid lock returned by the previous `Lock()` call.

In case you want to read or write to a file you will need something more robust and meaningful than a lock: a handle. Handles are obtained explicitly by a call to `Open (filename, access)`, where `access` is now either `MODE_NEWFILE` or `MODE_OLDFILE`, to create a new file or use an existing one. Once you have a handle, you will be able to perform read and write operations on a file: this can be achieved by `Read (handle, buffer, length)` or `Write (handle, buffer, length)`, where `buffer` is a piece of memory of `length` bytes where you want the data to be written to or read from. Both functions return the actual number of bytes processed, which can be less than expected (due to end-of-file or disk-full conditions, for instance), or `-1` in case of an error. When you are done with the file you must call `Close (handle)`. Note that you needn't lock a file for reading or writing when you use `Open()`, as this is done automatically.

A major source of AmigaDOS power comes from the transparency with which the system treats devices as different as a hard disk file, an LZWition window or the serial port (there is now even the SPEAK: device!). Inside your program you may call Open ("SER:", MODE_NEWFILE) for instance and, if you use the resulting file handle, you will be able to read from or write to the serial port exactly as though you were using a normal file. Normally these special files cannot be read more than once, since data is not stored inside them permanently. They may be seen as a continuous, ever-flowing stream of bytes (either incoming or outgoing) that, once read, is completely discarded (unless you store it somewhere else).

On the other hand, there are some files (the so-called random access files) where any particular portion can be read and reread many times (disk files are always of this type). For special applications you may need to move back and forth through a random access file, especially to go to a particular place in the file at once. This can be done using the Seek (handle, position, reference) call. Position is an integer (positive or negative) specifying in which particular byte position you want to move; reference tells the system from where you are counting the given position. It may be one of OFFSET_BEGINNING (from the first position in file), OFFSET_END (from the last byte in file) or OFFSET_CURRENT (from the last position you read or wrote to). Seek() returns the previous file position counted from the start of file or -1 in case of error (e.g., the file is not random accessible or the specified position is outside the existing file). Note that Read() and Write() do their work at the current file position (modifiable at any time by the Seek() call), making it possible to read (or write) arbitrary portions of a file as many times as you want. Here are some examples:

```

seek (file, 0, OFFSET_BEGINNING) ; "overwrite" a file
or: seek (file, 0, OFFSET_CURRENT) ; remove duplicate
; words in second file
; file unchanged
; position end of
; file moved to
; appending data:

```

The ability to move directly to particular positions in a file may be very useful for indexing files. You could use it to write a help facility for a program. In addition to the help file (a plain text file), you would have an index file containing the positions of each help page in the help file. If the user needed the third help page, for instance, your program would read the third number in the index file. This number would determine the place in the help file where the third page started. Then you would call Seek() for the help file with the index number you just read, and the file pointer would move to the exact position where the page started. You should then call Read() to load the help page and display it afterwards. Note that this approach will make access to the file much faster than the conventional sequential access (with the latter method you would need to read the whole file to find each particular page).

There are two other calls very useful for file manipulation: DeleteFile (filename) and Rename (oldname, newname). Their names are more than self-explanatory. Both functions return TRUE when successfully executed and FALSE when there is an error (if the disk is write-protected, for instance).

Now you should know enough to check some of the examples. The file copy program, named cp.c, is a good, simple example (but not so powerful, since it does just a subset of what the AmigaDOS copy command does). It simply reads from the first file and writes to the second as long as it can. There is also another example, named del.c, that shows how to call DeleteFile() properly. Experiment with the programs—but please, not on your hard disk or on the only copy of that nice utility (the programs work, but who knows?).

Standard I/O

I mentioned that processes are handled by DOS, but did not explain how or why. A process is a task that knows what files, paths, and current directory are; a normal task just knows how to handle processor and multitasking related events. If you want to call AmigaDOS you must do so from inside a process, because knowledge of these things is needed by most of the routines. If you run your program normally (from the CLI or Workbench) that will not be a problem: since it will be spawned as a true process. A process also knows a standard place to read data and another to write. This is very similar to the C language's stdin and stdout, which are implemented on top of these process features.

To obtain the standard file handles you may call Input() or Output() which take no parameters and return the respective handles. You may use these handles at will (as long as you write to output and read from input, of course) and you don't have to close them (in fact, you can't). Standard I/O provides a simpler way to access files (since you don't have to open or close them), and for certain programs they are a natural definition. These special programs are called filters because they read a stream of bytes, do some processing (or filtering) and write them to output. When there is an easy way to combine multiple filters, sending the output from one as input to the next, they become a powerful tool. One way to do this concatenation is called piping, a concept present in Unix and MS-DOS machines but still lacking in the Commodore line!. To use pipes, you would simply type two (or more) program names separated by a piping symbol, indicating that both programs should be run simultaneously, piping the output of the first as input to the next. Note that, to be usable in pipelines, programs must be able to read from Input() and write to Output().

Now have a look at the second example program, sd.cpc, a variation on the previous one that copies everything from its standard input, to its standard output, until end-of-file is reached. When used with the CLI or Shell I/O redirection (the > and < shell operators) it may be used with the same effect as cp.c:

```

cp file1 file2 ; copies file1 to file2
or: cp file1 >file2 ; also copies file1 to file2
sdcopy ; copies from standard input
sdcopy <file1 >file2 ; copies from file1 to file2

```

You can see by the last example that if no redirection is used the default input is the keyboard and the default output is the console window. If your program is run through Workbench, these standard handles are normally invalid (Input() and Output() return NULL), but if you wish to print messages you may open a console window yourself (note that your compiler may open a console window for you automatically).

Attributes

AmigaDOS stores files as a linked list of disk blocks, each containing some data and the number of the next block. The first of these blocks is the header of the file, and it contains several attributes of the file: protection bits, name, size, an eighty-character comment and the last modification date. A directory is also stored as one of these header blocks, with the size equal to zero and no data blocks. All this information can be obtained transparently using the `Examine (lock, fileinfo)` library call, where `lock` is a lock on the target object (either a file or directory) and `fileinfo` is a pointer to a previously allocated `FileInfoBlock` structure. If `Examine()` returns `TRUE`, the structure was filled with the correct information on that object; otherwise an error occurred. The `FileinfoBlock` structure is defined in `libraries/dos.h` as:

```
struct FileInfoBlock {
  ULONG   fib_DiskKey,      // disk block number ID ??
  ULONG   fib_DirEntryType, // specify file or dir ??
  char    fib_FileName[80]; // name of the file ??
  ULONG   fib_Protection,   // protection mask ??
  ULONG   fib_EntryType,   //
  ULONG   fib_Size,        // size of file (bytes) ??
  ULONG   fib_NumBlocks,   // size of file (blocks) ??
  struct DateStamp fib_Date; // modification date ??
  char    fib_Comment[80]; // file comment ??
  char    fib_Reserved[32]; // future extensions ??
};
```

The first field, `fib_DiskKey`, is normally the number of the disk block where this object (file or directory) starts, but it may be any unique integer identifier of the object on a particular disk (the RAM disk, for instance, does not have real disk blocks). If the `fib_DirEntryType` field is positive the object in question is a directory; otherwise it is a simple file. Both files and directories have the `fib_FileName` and `fib_Comment` fields filled with the correct zero-terminated strings with up to 80 and 80 characters respectively. The sizes, used only for files, are simply integers containing the number of bytes and number of blocks occupied on disk. The protection mask in `fib_Protection` will be explained later with the `SetProtection()` call. The field `fib_Date` contains the date the file was last modified in the following format:

```
struct DateStamp {
  ULONG da_Days; // Number of days since 1/1/76 ??
  ULONG da_Minutes; // Number of minutes past midnight ??
  ULONG da_Seconds; // Number of 1/60 sec past minute ??
};
```

Now have a look at the example program `examine.c`. It is simply an `Examine()` CLI interface, allowing you to examine any file or directory by giving its name as an argument to the program. The output is a C-like formatted `FileinfoBlock` structure with the fields and corresponding values shown. Use it to understand exactly what the fields mean and how different devices may respond to the `Examine()` request.

Some of the file attributes can be modified using corresponding library functions. The `SetProtection (filename, mask)` call returns `TRUE` if the new protection bits of the file filename are set to mask. Currently the protection bits may be a combination of script, pure, archive, read, write, execute and delete permissions, and they have the following order and meaning:

- S = 1 if the file is a shell script, else 0.
- P = 1 if the file is pure (can be made resident), else 0.
- A = 1 if the file was archived (for hard disk backup), else 0.
- R = 1 if the file cannot be read, else 0.
- W = 1 if the file cannot be written to, else 0.
- E = 1 if the file cannot be executed, else 0.
- D = 1 if the file cannot be deleted, else 0.

If, for instance, a file has protection bits `RWTD` (`00000000`) the mask is `0x00`; for `S—R—E—` (`1000101`) mask is `0x95`; for `SPARWED` (`1110000`) mask is `0x70`.

The comment of a file can be changed using the `SetComment (filename, comment)` call that returns `TRUE` if the comment of filename was successfully changed.

Note that the `Rename()` call modifies the `fib_FileName` field. Other file attributes can also be changed, but not directly. The date and sizes of the file are modified if you write to it. You may read one byte and write it back to the same place to modify a file date but not its contents, as the program `touch.c` does. `Touch.c` is used to set the date of a file to the current date, and is also an example of the `Seek()` call since it is used to move back to the start of the file to write the byte. (Note that there is a better way to change a file's date (the method used by the AmigaDOS `SetDate` command) but, unfortunately, there is no direct library call to do it.)

You saw that `Examine()` allows you to gather information on files, but to get information on a disk device status you need to call `Info (lock, infodata)`, where `lock` is a lock on any file or directory in the device and `infodata` is a pointer to an allocated `InfoData` structure. `Info()` returns `TRUE` if the information was successfully obtained and the `InfoData` structure properly filled. This structure is defined in `libraries/dos.h` as:

```
struct InfoData {
  ULONG id_Substitutions, // Number of soft errors on disk ??
  ULONG id_IndisSubst,    // Blocks with disk ID ??
                          // soft errors on ??
  ULONG id_DiskState,     // Validation (see below) ??
  ULONG id_Sectors,       // Number of blocks on disk ??
  ULONG id_SectorsUsed,   // Number of blocks in use ??
  ULONG id_SymptomCode,   // Number of bytes on each block ??
  ULONG id_DiskType,      // Disk type code (see below) ??
  ULONG id_Validation,    //
  ULONG id_Info;         // flag, zero if not in use ??
};
```

Most of the information in the `InfoData` structure is presented to you by the `info CLI` command. The number of software errors, for instance, is exactly the same as presented by `info`. The `id_DiskType` is the disk ID present in the first four bytes of the disk, and may be one of the following: `ID_NO_DISK_PRESENT`, `ID_UNREADABLE_DISK`, `ID_DOS_DISK`, `ID_NOT_REALY_DOS` or `ID_KICKSTART_DISK`. The `id_DiskState` indicates the disk validation status (disk validation is a testing process executed every time you insert a disk in a drive): `ID_WRITE_PROTECTED` if the disk could not be validated; `ID_VALIDATING` if the disk is currently being validated; or `ID_VALIDATED` if the disk was correctly validated and is thus write enabled. The most useful information you can obtain from the `Info` call regards disk size and space, which can be calculated as follows:

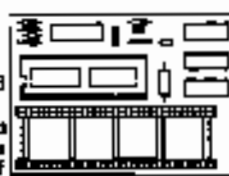
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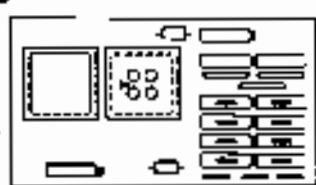
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```
TotalDiskSize = fd_NumBlocks * fd_BytessPerBlock
FreeDiskSpace = fd_NumBlocks * fd_BytessPerBlock
FreeDiskSpace = TotalDiskSize - UsedDiskSpace
```

The example program space.c, when given the name of a disk device or any file in it, shows the used, available and total disk space in that device by calling fstat(). You can use it as an example of how to display the disk available space in a file requester. For instance,

Directories

When you use the CLI, the concept of a "current directory" is always present: it is a special directory where you "are", and no path names are required to refer to files inside it. When a process is created it has a current directory, normally inherited from the process that spawned it. If it came from the CLI, the current directory is exactly the same as the CLI's when the process was begun (if you use the cd command after you start a process, the current directory of this process will not be modified). If it came from Workbench, the initial current directory is the drawer where the program was saved. If you wish to change the current directory of your program, you may call CurrentDir(lock), where lock is a lock on the new current directory, and the old directory is returned from the function. Note that the current directory of your process will be modified (but not changed), because the current directory is a property of

each process. If you subsequently spawn a new process it will inherit this new current directory, but previously spawned processes will not be affected.

Directories under AmigaDOS (and many other operating systems) are hierarchically organized as an upside-down tree, in such a way that a particular directory may have as many subdirectories as the user wants, but there is only one way up. The subdirectories may be called "child" directories, and they have a corresponding unique "parent". To traverse a directory tree, one must be able to know the available ways down (by reading the directory) and how to come back up. The latter task is accomplished by the ParentDir(lock) call, which returns a lock on the parent directory of the file or directory given by lock. Although not very useful, there are some cases when this call cannot be substituted in any way, as in the example program full.c. The program is basically a main() provided to test a rather useful routine that returns the path name of a file (or directory) given by a lock. It continues to call ParentDir() to get a lock on the parent directory and ExamDir() to know its name, until the root of the filing system is reached. The last name obtained before ParentDir() returns NULL is the disk volume name. The directories are concatenated with intermixed slashes and separated from the disk name by a colon (:), building a complete path name. Note that a similar function is provided in the standard Lattice C library (no source, of course) with the name getpath().

If you wish to create a directory on disk, you should call `CreateDir` (`clmkrn.c`). The string `dirname` may contain complete or partial AmigaDOS path names. If possible, the routine will create the specified directory and return a shared lock on it. Normally you will unlock it immediately, unless you need to be sure that the directory will still be there for a certain operation to take place. Note that, in any case, you must unlock it sooner or later. If an error occurs, this function will return a NULL value.


Now that you know how to create and move inside a directory hierarchy, you just need to learn how to read the contents of a directory. The `ExNext` (`lock, info`) call is provided specifically for this purpose. It returns TRUE if it succeeds, and takes two parameters: `lock` is a lock on the directory you are reading, and `info` is a pointer to a `FileInfoBlock` structure (described in the first part of the article and defined in `libraries/dos.h`). The `FileInfoBlock` must be previously initialized with data from the directory you are reading by a call to `Examine` (`lock, info`). After that you should look inside `info` to see if the lock is indeed related to a directory, and not to a file. Each time you call `ExNext()` it returns information on a particular object in the directory; when you call it again, it uses data inside `info` to determine which object is to be examined next. Note that the information provided is quite comprehensive and may be used in any way, but you should not modify fields inside `info` because `ExNext()` may need them the next time you call it. You continue to examine each object in the directory until no more entries are left and `ExNext()` returns a FALSE condition.

The complete procedure needed to read a directory is detailed in the example program `ls.c`. It lists the complete information on a given directory, and uses `Examine()` and `ExNext()` in the manner described above. The information is presented in a somewhat rough format, and things like the protection bits and the date are not converted in humanly legible form. The program is very simple, but can be improved to read arbitrary directories in a general form. This might be done by writing a routine that returns a list of file information blocks which could be used by many different tasks where it is necessary to read a directory, including wild card expansion and file requests.

Process Handling


Although very different to the end user, there are some similarities between the CLI and Workbench. Both provide a user interface to some of the features of the underlying operating system: tools to manipulate files and run programs. In a strict sense both are "shells" over the operating system: the CLI is a classic command line shell, with powerful concepts inherited from other operating systems (like Unix); Workbench is a graphical shell, easier and more intuitive to use. In fact, there are some commercial programs (like `CLMkrn`, `DiscMaster` and `DirFile`) that can be also considered shells. It is possible to create your own shell, with any interface you desire (e.g., graphical, touch-sensitive, voice-driven) using the concepts provided here and in the reference material (although it may be quite complicated to write a truly complete and useful one). An example will be provided at the end of this section.


AmigaDOS lacks easy-to-use, complete process spawning and handling functions. The two calls available to create new



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



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processes are very poorly documented, limited and full of bugs in such a way that only after considerable experimentation can one make any use of them. It is likely that developers write their own substitutes for these functions when truly correct and complete process handling is needed. To create some simple processes, consider the `Execute` (`command, input, output`) call. It attempts to execute the CLI command (given with any needed parameters in `command`), and returns a TRUE condition if it succeeds. The string `command` may also contain any standard I/O redirection specifications. In fact, just about any input that can be typed in the standard CLI can be executed by this call (at least theoretically). Note that `Execute()` won't search your commands throughout the current path—you will have to provide full path names to be sure it will find them.

Although output is exactly what you would expect (a handle to specify where the command's output should be written to), input is a handle specifying where to get more commands (similar to a batch file); usually it will be NULL. Note that there seems to be no way to provide simple standard input to programs run through `Execute()`. If output is NULL, the current output (the handle returned by `Output()`) will be used. However this is not all `Execute()` can do—it has one more exotic use. If you give it a NULL `command`, a NULL output and a console window handle as input (like the result of `Open` ("`CON:0/0/640/200/My CLI`", `MODE_NEWTEXT`)), a new interactive CLI will be created! It will only terminate when the

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user types the `EndCLI` command inside it, only then will control be returned to your program (you should then close the window you opened). Believe it or not, this call will not work if the `Run` command is not present in the `commands` directory (`C:`). Note that there is no way to determine the return value of the commands run by `Execute()`, and that your program will be frozen until the process you spawned terminates.

Just for the sake of completeness, a simple and limited command-line shell (well, kind of) is provided as `sh.c`. It will read lines from a window and pass them directly to `Execute()` that will (hopefully) do what you want, writing the output normally to the window. Note that particular `cd` and many other commands that modify fields inside the CLI control structure will not work, because `Execute()` runs commands in a sub-CLI. It allocates new CLI and process control structures, fills them properly and spawns the program as a stand-alone process. If a program modifies any field in the CLI control structure, only the sub-CLI fields will be effectively changed because the program being run simply does not know who ran it. When the program terminates, the modified sub-CLI will be discarded along with all changes made to it.

Error Handling

Error handling plays a major role in the development of professional software. Good programs should always be entirely operative and trustworthy, even in the worst situations. AmigaDOS provides usual error-handling features, and almost all library calls are able to notify error conditions. Usually, these errors are only signaled as flags (an error occurred but no real information on the nature of it is provided). The `IoErr()` call supplies this information, simply returning the current error state represented by an integer. Note that the error codes supplied by `IoErr()` always refer to the last library call and that it is meant to be called only after an error has happened. The error codes are commented in the include file `libraries/dos.h`, and symbolic names are given to them. If, for instance, you are reading a directory and there are no more files inside it (the end-of-directory condition mentioned above), `ExNext()` returns an error flag and, if you call `IoErr()` just after this, it will return `ERROR_NO_MORE_ENTRIES`. If you examine the `libc` source, you will see how easy this simple case error handling is, but, as programs grow and more complex situations appear, it may become more and more difficult.

You may have noted the emphasis placed on freeing what you allocate, closing what you open and returning what you get. This is done because AmigaDOS does not track resources—that is, it simply does not know which files you have opened or locked. If you exit from your program without freeing these resources, they will be lost forever: locked or opened files will be undeletable, unwriteable and sometimes unsearchable until you reboot your machine. This is a serious programming error, and you should be very careful when tracing the resources you get from the system (not only from AmigaDOS, but also allocated memory, opened libraries and so on), making sure they will be returned or closed by your program in virtually every situation that may arise.

Libraries

Although libraries are handled by `Exec`, a thorough understanding of how they work may help a good deal in several programming tasks. There are two basic kinds of libraries: linked and shared.

Linked libraries are those that come with your compiler and you use with the linker, the normal kind of library, similar to those on almost every other computer. They are basically a collection of object modules produced by a compiler, where the linker knows how to find particular routines and variables. The exact effect of a library could be achieved by giving dozens of object files to the linker. The important thing to know is that, when you link a routine in your code (when you call `printf()`, for instance), the program size increases proportionally. Actually, a copy of that routine is placed inside the compiled code of every program that calls it.

Shared libraries are those inside the `LIBS:` directory (like translator library) or resident in read-only memory (like `dos.library`). We call them shared because there is a single copy of each library routine even if multiple programs are calling it at the same time (they share the common code amongst them). If you call a shared library in a program it won't add much to the code size, and the size of such a program may be dramatically less compared to those linked with normal libraries.

Shared libraries are unique to the Amiga and are made up by some data space and a series of library vectors, or assembly language jump instructions, which point to pieces of code of that library that perform determined functions. You (and the linker) simply don't know where in memory a particular library will be since, each time you turn on your computer, they may be loaded in a different place. Only Exec can determine where the libraries are located, and to obtain the base address of a library you should call the `OpenLibrary()` Exec function. These library base pointers must be stored in some fixed name variables, where the compiler looks to find them (`IntuitionBase` and `DOSBase` are some examples). It may seem strange but, if you use a base pointer variable name that is different from the standard one, the compiler will not know where the library is and the program will not work (admittedly this was quite hard to find out). The functions in a library are "numbered" and, although you don't need to know these numbers, your compiler does, and they are very well documented (check the *Amiga ROM Kernel Reference Manual: Libraries and Devices*). As a hypothetical example, if you call the function `Bar()`, which your compiler knows is the function number 5 of the `foo.library`, generated code is simply something like: "jump to the function pointed to by the fifth vector counted from `fooBase`."

AmigaDOS is implemented as a shared library (`dos.library`) that is memory-resident, but you needn't worry. The compiler-supplied startup code (that little thing that runs and sets things up before `main()`) normally opens the `dos.library` automatically and places the base address in `DOSBase`. If you wish, you can open the library yourself, as it will not harm the system (as long as you close the library with `CloseLibrary(DOSBase)` afterwards). Although you may need some simple assembly language programming, it is possible to write your own shared libraries and even modify existing ones, but that's another story.

Conclusion

Hopefully the concepts presented here will help you to write your own AmigaDOS applications and utilities. You might have already found some limitations when experimenting with the DOS library, but you will surely find even more if you try to use it for a more complex task. Particularly, I think that the AmigaDOS programmer's dream is already real, in the form of the ARP utilities and library. ARP stands for AmigaDOS Resource Project. It is a group effort headed by Charlie Heath (of MicroSmiths, Inc.) and all their work can be freely redistributed. ARP provides easier access to the AmigaDOS device list, easier directory reading, wildcard patterns, date conversion routines, argument parsing facilities, a ready-to-use and flexible file requester, perfect synchronous and asynchronous process creating calls, a complete shell including piping and much more. You may obtain a copy of the latest ARP release (version 1.3) by sending \$5.00 (postage and handling expenses) to the following address:

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Be sure to obtain the complete release, with the programmer's documentation, examples and proper compiler utilities (startup code, include files and libraries). If you want to do serious programming work under AmigaDOS it will be a valuable aid indeed.



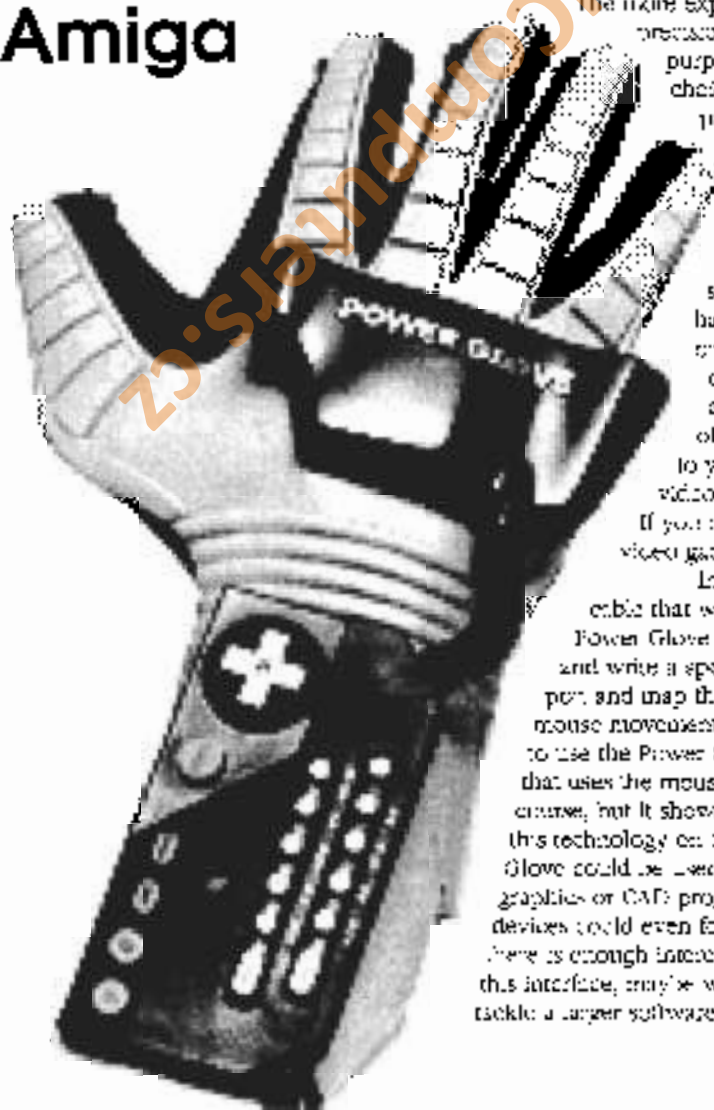
About The Author

Bruno Costa is a computer engineering student and works with computer graphics at the IMPA (Institute for Pure and Applied Math) in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. He has owned Amiga computers since 1987.

A Unique Input Device

Adapting Mattel's Power Glove to the Amiga

By Paul King
and
Mike Cargal
pix@king.mcsyul



The interface between human and machine has changed very little since the earliest generations of computers, but today there are some new devices coming out that promise to make the task of translating ideas into bits and bytes much more natural. Since its introduction, the Amiga has been one of the most innovative and qualitative computer grounds, and hardware is obtainable that extends its abilities enough to compete with some much more expensive equipment. It is a most fortunate fact that a popular video game machine has a readily available peripheral that can come closer to natural input than any except the most expensive devices around, while the Amiga and other computers are left out in the cold. That device is Mattel's Power Glove.

While the VPL DataGlove and the Dexterous Hand Master from Exo are both available for computer use, each costs more than your above-average salary. The Power Glove, on the other hand (couldn't resist), can be found for \$70-\$100 at anywhere from Toys-R-Us to Wal-Mart. The Power Glove has an 8 bit processor that watches a special sensor in each of the fingers and the thumb of the glove, and takes care of tracking the glove by using an ultrasonic ranging system similar to that used in today's stereo cameras. Basically, it can inform its host about hand and finger movement with astonishing accuracy.

The more expensive devices have greater precision and resolution, but for our purposes the Power Glove is a logical choice, particularly considering its price tag.

So, we have the makings of a very interesting project: inexpensive, readily available, easy to implement, and lots of potential. I guess that "inexpensive" is relative, but if you already have access to a Power Glove it will only take enough money to buy an extension cable and a connector, and if you don't, then the expense of buying one can easily be justified to your spouse if you have a Nintendo video game, especially if you have kids. If you don't have kids or a Nintendo video game then you're on your own. Beg.

In this project we will construct a cable that will interface the peculiar Nintendo Power Glove plug to the Amiga joystick port and write a special program that will read the port and map the glove's movements to regular mouse movements for intuition. This will allow you to use the Power Glove with almost any program that uses the mouse. This is of limited usefulness, of course, but it shows a little of what is possible using this technology on the Amiga. Theoretically, the Power Glove could be used as a method of input for 3-D graphics or CAD programs, or in conjunction with other devices could even form the basis of a virtual reality. If there is enough interest in exploring the possibilities of this interface, maybe we could go more in-depth and tackle a larger software project at a later date. For now,

let's get the cable built and the Amiga and the Power Glove talking.

When first considering this project, it seemed that the most obvious place to interface the Power Glove to the Amiga was the joystick port (the second port, beside where the mouse plugs in), if it could be done. The glove requires +5 volts, a ground, one input line, and two output lines, one for a reset and one for a clock. As it happens, the power and ground are available on the joystick port (pins 7 & 8 respectively) as are a number of input pins. The only possible problem was outputs.

For normal mouse and joystick use, the Amiga doesn't need any of the pins on the unused/joystick ports to be used for output. However, there are two special pins that are normally used to read analog joysticks that are software-switchable to be outputs (pins 5 & 9). Because of the way they are used in reading analog joysticks, these two pins are hooked to large capacitors. The resistance in the analog joystick regulates how long it takes for the charge in the capacitors to build up, and by timing that building the Amiga is able to determine the joystick's position. Because these pins are hooked to capacitors, there may be a lag of up to 300 microseconds for output to reach the port. Fortunately, one of the outputs we need is not terribly time-critical: the reset line. We can use one of these pins for it.

In addition to these two output pins, the joystick also has another software-switchable pin that can be either input or output (pin 6). Usually it is connected to the left mouse button, or to the fire button of a joystick. Since this pin is not hooked up to a capacitor and therefore doesn't have a signal delay, this pin can be used for the clock line (which needs to be as fast as possible). If we choose pin 4 for the data input line, then we can use pins 4-8, with all other pins unused, which makes for a nice, uncluttered interface specification. Looks like the joystick port has everything we need. Too bad other computers don't have such versatile hardware!

This is what you will need to adapt the Power Glove to the Amiga joystick port.

- (1) Extension cable for the Nintendo Game controller
Curtis makes Super Extender, part #NC-3 available at Wal-Mart for under \$10
- (2) One position female D-subminiature connector
Radio Shack Cat. # 276-1124 for \$1.19
- (3) D-subminiature connector hook
Radio Shack Cat. # 276-1539B for \$1.79

Start by cutting off the end of the cable that would normally go to the game console (the smaller plug). Then carefully strip off about an inch and a half of the outside layer of plastic to expose the wires inside. Once you do that, strip about a quarter inch off each of the exposed wires. The colors of the wires may vary from cable to cable, so you need to use a multimeter to check which wire leads to each pin in the plug at the other end of the cable. Write it all down.

The connector that is listed here does not require any soldering. The connector package contains a strip that holds all of the individual metal contacts. One at a time, use a pair of needle-nose pliers to crimp one of these contacts onto each wire, then carefully bend the contact back and forth with the pliers to break it away from the metal strip. The pin numbers for the connector are embossed onto the plug itself, so once the

contacts has been crimped onto all of the wires, match up each wire in the cable with the appropriate position on the connector and push its contact into that hole. You may need to use a toothpick or something similar to push them firmly into place. If you are using a solder type connector, just make sure you solder each wire in the correct position and are careful not to bridge solder between two pins. Figure one shows the proper connections.

After completing all of the connections, attach the hood around the connector to prevent pulling the wires loose. If you own an Amiga 1000 you may need to modify the plastic hood a bit so the connector can be pushed into the port all the way, to ensure proper connection. Once you have finished, use a multimeter to check all of the connections to make sure everything is in the right place. While this cable is perfectly safe to the computer and the glove, any wires out of place could cause damage to either or both. **CHECK YOUR WORK!** If you want to try out this interface but are not a hardware type, you can find ordering information at the end of this article. That completes the hardware part of this project (quite simple, huh?).

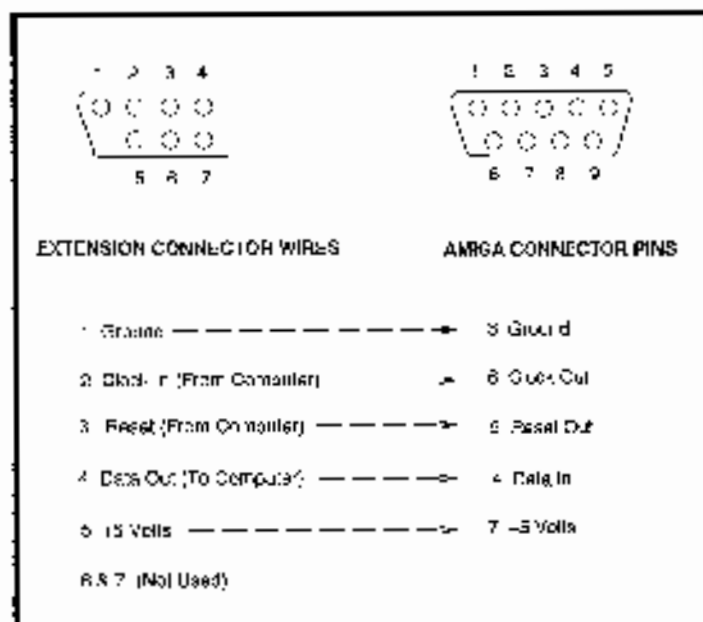
The Power Glove itself handles the processing of its hardware into binary information. It has a set of custom programs that convert keypad presses and hand and finger movements into a stream of data bits. The default built-in Power Glove program is used in this project, which allows us to use up, down, left, right, launch, forefinger, and the Start and Select buttons on the keypad. For emulating a mouse, the data uses what we are interested in are the directional movements for pointer movement, and the forefinger and thumb, which are used for mouse button events. The keypad buttons are used for changing the configuration of the program on the fly.

The hardware interface we have constructed makes all of the physical connections necessary to communicate with the Power Glove through the Amiga's joystick port. Now all we need is software that will actually talk with the glove through the Amiga hardware and convert the data we receive from binary form into mouse events. We call this program *PowerMouse*.

The Power Glove uses a form of serial communication; it sends a stream of data bits to its host, one bit at a time. Since the glove has no set clock (hand) rate, in order to receive data the host must tell the glove it must tell the glove it is ready to receive the next bit by sending it a signal. The first time this is done, the Amiga sends a 'reset' signal (pin 5), indicating to the glove that it is ready to receive the first bit of data, which the glove then sends. The Amiga then reads its input pin (pin 4) for this bit. For each of the remaining bits (2-8), the Amiga first sends a 'clock' signal (pin 6), indicating to the glove to send the next bit in the data stream. The Amiga then reads its input pin for these bits, sending a clock signal then reading the input pin for each one. After all eight bits have been read, the process is repeated. Each bit represents the state of one of the actions the glove is monitoring.

The *PowerMouse* program works by installing a background task which polls the joystick port and creates input device events to simulate mouse movement. The main process opens a minimal window and processes DDCMP messages in standard Amiga fashion. However, when the window is hidden, the main task goes to sleep by "waiting on signals,

Figure one



either from the background task, indicating that the 'SELECT' button was pressed or the background task failed, or from the operating system, letting it know that the process received a break signal.

For the budding Modula-2 programmer, the PowerMouse source includes examples of using the file input device to feed events to the operating system, using the timer device to delay in a system friendly manner, starting up background tasks and communicating between tasks using signals, opening windows which function correctly regardless of the system font, and using the joystick port for digital input and output. If you are interested in learning how the PowerMouse program works, please read through the sources; it is well commented and should answer any questions you have. We used M2S.pascal but tried to be as non-compiler specific as possible. You should be able to make this code work with any dependable Modula 2 compiler with little modification.

Start the program by typing 'run PowerMouse' at the CLI prompt or by double-clicking on its icon. The program starts by bringing up a configuration window which has a number of gadgets that let you control how the program operates. The first thing to do after running the program is turn off the rapid fire feature on the glove ('A OFF' and 'B OFF'), and press 'SELECT' to activate the PowerGlove. Now make a fist a few times to calibrate the glove's sensors to the size of your fist. Finally, press the 'START' button to enable the glove.

Once the program is running, you can get rid of the configuration window by clicking on the Hide gadget or by pushing the 'SELECT' button on the glove's keypad. Pressing the 'SELECT' button at any time will toggle the configuration window, from the front to hidden and back. Once the window has been hidden, if for some reason the glove is not responding properly, the only way to kill the PowerMouse program is to send it a control-C using the break command from a CLI (use the status command to find the right process number), so make sure the glove is working before hiding the window.

The Enabled gadget toggles glove response. Switching Enabled on (highlighted) lets the glove function normally, and turning it off effectively switches off the glove while letting the program remain running. The Enable function can also be toggled by using the 'START' button on the glove's keypad; it works even if the configuration window is hidden. To stop the program completely click on the Kill gadget.

The Rate slider sets how often the Amiga polls the glove. The sensitivity of the glove is directly proportional to rate setting, while the effect on the system is inversely proportional. The default value should work fine with most machines, but if you have an accelerator card installed or happen to be lucky enough to own a 386, you may want to set RATE to a lower number, particularly if you are getting erratic response.

The Speed slider sets the number of pixels the pointer moves for each movement event generated by the glove. A lower number is much easier to control, but the pointer takes longer to get where you want it to go. The Accelerate gadget toggles a pointer speed increase mechanism on or off; it is on by default. Acceleration kicks in if you move constantly in one direction, and allows you to move quickly from one side of the screen to the other without losing the ability to do more detailed movement when necessary. These two gadgets should be used together to make PowerMouse respond in a manner which you find comfortable.

If you have any problems with erratic responses that are not affected by these configuration settings, check to make sure the rapid fire and slow motion options on the PowerGlove are turned off (buttons 5, 7, and 9). If you don't get any response at all, first press 'SELECT' on the PowerGlove, and if still nothing then check your cable; it may be wired incorrectly or you may have a bad connection. If problems persist, try a higher quality connector (this would require soldering).

By the way, this interface will also work with other Nintendo game controllers which have more immediate potential than the PowerGlove. You can use one of those inexpensive infrared controllers (\$20 at Wal-Mart) and have the (almost) equivalent of a cordless mouse, except you don't need a flat surface to use it! This is the best way we have found yet for doing presentations stand back in the middle of the room and still have complete control of your program.

Also included on the AC's TECH disk, is a version which has a few extra features. For instance, it is configurable for keyboard events as well as mouse moves, which allows you to use the glove with those games that use the keyboard for input. You can use it to map out different key stroke sequences for each button or direction of movement, which makes doing presentations or sitting back and viewing through messages online a breeze with the cordless controller. —Bill


```

WITH device ID
  InType = INT16;
  InPL = INT16;
  InData = ARRAY[0..255] OF BYTE;
END;
END;
TYPE
  TInputEvent = RECORD
    DeviceID: TDeviceID;
    InType: TInType;
    InPL: TInPL;
    InData: TInData;
  END;
END;
PROCEDURE ClearUp;
BEGIN
  IF NoTask = NO THEN
    NoTask := YES;
    FREE;
    InType := INT16;
    InPL := INT16;
    FreeInData := FREE(INData);
    InData := nil;
  END;

  IF NoSignal = NO THEN
    NoSignal := YES;
    FREE;
    InType := INT16;
    InPL := INT16;
    FreeInData := FREE(INData);
    InData := nil;
  END;

  IF NoDeviceID = NO THEN
    NoDeviceID := YES;
    FREE;
    InType := INT16;
    InPL := INT16;
    FreeInData := FREE(INData);
    InData := nil;
  END;

  IF NoDeviceID = YES THEN
    NoDeviceID := YES;
    FREE;
    InType := INT16;
    InPL := INT16;
    FreeInData := FREE(INData);
    InData := nil;
  END;

  IF NoDeviceID = YES THEN
    NoDeviceID := YES;
    FREE;
    InType := INT16;
    InPL := INT16;
    FreeInData := FREE(INData);
    InData := nil;
  END;

  IF NoDeviceID = YES THEN
    NoDeviceID := YES;
    FREE;
    InType := INT16;
    InPL := INT16;
    FreeInData := FREE(INData);
    InData := nil;
  END;
END ClearUp;

```

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

DEFINITION MODULE Events

DEFINITION MODULE Events;

CONSTRUCTORS MakeEvent: TEvent;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

CONSTRUCTORS MakeEvent: TEvent;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

END;

IMPLEMENTATION MODULE Events

IMPLEMENTATION MODULE Events;

FROM SYSTEM;

FROM DeviceID;

FROM InType;

FROM InPL;

FROM InData;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;

FROM InputDevice;


```

Subscriber = POINTED TO SLIDER;
END
END Subroutine;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
  END;
  MinGrid = 2555;
  Min = 0;
  Max = 0;
  END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE,
  MinGrid = 2555;
  MaxGrid = 2555;
  Min = 0;
  Max = 0;
  END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

```

```

Manager = POINTED TO SLIDER;
END
END Subroutine;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

IF #REQD = NOT TRUE
  IF Flagged THEN
    MaxGrid = 2555;
    MinGrid = 2555;
    Min = 0;
    Max = 0;
    END;
  END;

```


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Silent Binary Rhapsodies

Robert Tress

00000000

A switch is activated => CLICK >>>
it glows a cool, steady redness.
Disk drives whirl, then program's process
Two megabytes of free RAM wait,
a newly dawning dawn to mere K's
Lists, lines appear on CRT
While a programmer waits to see
Labor and creation's exultance;
while this happens, microchips mule
whip and shift data bits around.
compu-magic ensues without sound...

00000001

Silicon cities snarl, thriving
with millions of quick bits surging,
grouping in masses, form bytes great,
traveling at impulse's rate
through circuits closed and open gates,
mini messengers with one fate:
serving CPU's in their state,
pushing, popping stacks, regurgitating
seas of flowing data, create
static registers, reformate
and assemble machine code mates,
to disassemble and delete.

00000010

Pixel by pixel a screen fills
with colorful characters' thrill
upon a glossy blackbackground;
Messages appear; alarms sound;
a software insect has been found!
Programs stumble, die, crash abound.
Analysis time: Bugs confound,
compile and thwart users, astound
even clever "hackers," wrapped and wound
in jarring jargon— hunters bound
quick to quest as bug-thirsty hounds.

00000011

Running across a wooden desk
is a white mouse, doing its task
of pointing and clicking, running
around on smooth pad fast, guiding
arrow about a screen, swinging
its tail with vital haste, tasting
options from a menu, pulling-
down, picking-up ICONs, calling
files while gadgets start prompting
press a key... a sound chip sings
a MIDI symphony. Growing
chaos succeeds multitasking.

00000100

Hungry printers swallow paper
as important output tapers
to serial or parallel scores
of bytes black on white scrolls, that pour
liquid realms blank from reservoirs.
Tractors turn, friction-feeds firm soar
and spew pages of text, while more
ribbon fades to gray. An encore
performance commences with roars
of dot matrix spurts, and four
caisy wheels spin crisp print before
laser-wielding writers conquer.

00000101

These binary brandishing boasts
of technology have at least
afforded mankind a light year
in an inch, pinching cosmos clear
to the size of an atom mere,
magnifying microns to peer
at as if miles. Computers shear
the universe into frontiers
logical and bring the far near,
shortening distance, saving dear
time, making burdens disappear.

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 0 2. Basic
 0 3. Pascal
 0 4. Other (specify): _____

2. What is your age?
 0 1. 18-24
 0 2. 25-34
 0 3. 35-44
 0 4. 45 or over

3. What is the highest degree you have?
 0 1. None
 0 2. High School
 0 3. Bachelor's
 0 4. Master's
 0 5. Doctorate

4. Where do you live?
 0 1. City
 0 2. Suburb
 0 3. Rural
 0 4. Other (specify): _____

5. What do you do for a living?
 0 1. Student
 0 2. Self-employed
 0 3. Employee
 0 4. Retired
 0 5. Other (specify): _____

6. How often do you use a computer?
 0 1. Daily
 0 2. Several times a week
 0 3. Once a week
 0 4. Less than once a week
 0 5. Never

7. Please indicate the level of which you use the following applications:
 0 1. Heavy
 0 2. Moderate
 0 3. Light
 0 4. Never

8. Please indicate the level of which you use the following applications:
 0 1. Heavy
 0 2. Moderate
 0 3. Light
 0 4. Never

B. What languages do you normally program in?

0 1. None
 0 2. Basic
 0 3. Pascal
 0 4. Other (specify): _____

C. What is your age?

0 1. 18-24
 0 2. 25-34
 0 3. 35-44
 0 4. 45 or over

D. What is the highest degree you have?

0 1. None
 0 2. High School
 0 3. Bachelor's
 0 4. Master's
 0 5. Doctorate

E. Where do you live?

0 1. City
 0 2. Suburb
 0 3. Rural
 0 4. Other (specify): _____

F. How often do you use a computer?

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 0 3. Once a week
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 0 2. High School
 0 3. Bachelor's
 0 4. Master's
 0 5. Doctorate

4. Where do you live?
 0 1. City
 0 2. Suburb
 0 3. Rural
 0 4. Other (specify): _____

5. What do you do for a living?
 0 1. Student
 0 2. Self-employed
 0 3. Employee
 0 4. Retired
 0 5. Other (specify): _____

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 0 4. Less than once a week
 0 5. Never

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 0 4. Never

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0 1. None
 0 2. Basic
 0 3. Pascal
 0 4. Other (specify): _____

C. What is your age?

0 1. 18-24
 0 2. 25-34
 0 3. 35-44
 0 4. 45 or over

D. What is the highest degree you have?

0 1. None
 0 2. High School
 0 3. Bachelor's
 0 4. Master's
 0 5. Doctorate

E. Where do you live?

0 1. City
 0 2. Suburb
 0 3. Rural
 0 4. Other (specify): _____

F. How often do you use a computer?

0 1. Daily
 0 2. Several times a week
 0 3. Once a week
 0 4. Less than once a week
 0 5. Never

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0 1. Heavy
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