CAPI User Guide

Version 5.1



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LispWorks CAPI User Guide (Unix version)

Version 5.1

March 2008

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Contents

| D C | |
|---------|-----|
| Preface | V11 |

1 Introduction to the CAPI 1

What is the CAPI? 1
The history of the CAPI 2
The CAPI model 2

2 Getting Started 5

Using the CAPI package 6 Creating a window 6 Linking code into CAPI elements 8

3 General Considerations 11

The correct thread for CAPI operations 11 Properties of the host window system 12

4 Creating Common Windows 15

Generic properties 15 Specifying titles 17 Displaying and entering text 19 Stream panes 23

5 Choices 27

Choice classes 28
List panels 30
Graph panes 36
Option panes 38
Text input choice 39
Menu components 39
General properties of choices 39

6 Laying Out CAPI Panes 43

Organizing panes in columns and rows 44
Other types of layout 47
Combining different layouts 48
Constraining the size of layouts 50
Advanced pane layouts 54

7 Modifying CAPI Windows 59

Initialization 59
Resizing 60
Scrolling 61
Swapping panes and layouts 61
Setting the data in a pane 62
Iconifying and restoring windows 62
Destroying 62

8 Creating Menus 63

Creating a menu 63
Grouping menu items together 64
Creating individual menu items 67
The CAPI menu hierarchy 68
Alternative menu items 70
Disabling menu items 71
Popup menus for panes 72

9 Defining Interface Classes 75

The define-interface macro 75
An example interface 76
Adapting the example 78
Connecting an interface to an application 84
Controlling the interface title 87

10 Prompting for Input 89

Some simple dialogs 90
Prompting for values 91
Window-modal Cocoa dialogs 9'
Dialog Owners 98
Creating your own dialogs 99
Non-focus completion 104

11 Creating Your Own Panes 107

Displaying graphics 107
Receiving input from the user 110
Creating graphical objects 112

12 Graphics Ports 119

Introduction 119
Features 120
Graphics state 120
Graphics state transforms 124
Graphics state operation 126
Pixmap graphics ports 127
Portable font descriptions 127
Working with images 129

13 The Color System 137

Introduction 137
Reading the color database 138
Color specs 139
Color aliases 140
Color models 141
Loading the color database 143

14 Printing from the CAPI—the Hardcopy API 145

Printers 145
Printer definition files 146
PPD files 146
Print jobs 147
Handling pages—page on demand printing 147
Handling pages—page sequential printing 147
Printing a page 147
Other printing functions 148

Index 149

Preface

This preface contains information you need when using the rest of the CAPI documentation. It discusses the purpose of this manual, the typographical conventions used, and gives a brief description of the rest of the contents.

Assumptions

The CAPI documentation assumes that you are familiar with:

- LispWorks
- Common Lisp and CLOS, the Common Lisp Object System
- UNIX and the X Window System

Illustrations in this manual show the CAPI running on UNIX under Motif with a particular window manager, so if you use Motif with a different window manager, you should expect some variation from the figures depicted here.

Unless otherwise stated, examples given in this document assume that the current package has CAPI on its package-use-list.

Conventions used in the manual

Throughout this manual, certain typographical conventions have been adopted to aid readability.

1. Whenever an instruction is given, is numbered and printed like this.

Text which you should enter explicitly is printed like this.

A Description of the Contents

This guide forms an introductory course in developing applications using the CAPI. Please note that, like the rest of the LispWorks documentation, it does assume knowledge of Common Lisp.

Chapter 1, *Introduction to the CAPI*, introduces the principles behind the CAPI, some of its fundamental concepts, and what it sets out to achieve.

Chapter 2, *Getting Started*, presents a series of simple examples whose aim is to familiarize you with some of the most important elements and functions.

Chapter 3, *General Considerations*, covers some general issues that you should be aware of when using CAPI.

Chapter 4, *Creating Common Windows*, introduces more of the fundamental CAPI elements. These elements are explained in greater detail in the remainder of the manual.

Chapter 5, *Choices*, explains the key CAPI concept of the *choice*. A choice groups CLOS objects together and provides the notion of there being a selected object amongst that group of objects. Button panels and list panels are examples of choices.

Chapter 6, *Laying Out CAPI Panes* introduces the idea of *layouts*. These let you combine different CAPI elements inside a single window.

Chapter 7, *Modifying CAPI Windows*, outlines basic techniques for modifying existing windows.

Chapter 8, Creating Menus, shows you how to add menus to a window.

Chapter 9, Defining Interface Classes, introduces the macro define-interface. This macro can be used to define interface classes composed of CAPI elements — either the predefined elements explained elsewhere in this manual or your own.

Chapter 10, *Prompting for Input*, discusses the ways in which dialog boxes may be used to prompt a user for input.

Chapter 11, *Creating Your Own Panes*, shows you how you can define your own classes when those provided by the CAPI are not sufficient for your needs.

Chapter 12, *Graphics Ports*, provides information on the Graphics Ports package, which provides a selection of drawing and image tranformation functions. Although not part of the CAPI package, and therefore not strictly part of the CAPI, the Graphics Ports functions are used in conjunction with CAPI panes, and are therefore documented in this manual and the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual*.

Chapter 13, *The Color System*, allows applications to use keyword symbols as aliases for colors in Graphics Ports drawing functions. They can also be used for backgrounds and foregrounds of windows and CAPI objects.

Chapter 14, *Printing from the CAPI—the Hardcopy API*, describes the programmatic printing of Graphics Ports.

The Reference Manual

The second part of the CAPI documentation is the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual*. This provides a complete description of every CAPI class, function and macro, and also provides a reference chapter on the Graphics Port functions. Entries are listed alphabetically, and the typographical conventions used are similar to those used in *Common Lisp: the Language* (2nd Edition) (Steele, 1990).

1

Introduction to the CAPI

1.1 What is the CAPI?

The CAPI (Common Application Programmer's Interface) is a library for implementing portable window-based application interfaces. It is a conceptually simple, CLOS-based model of interface elements and their interaction. It provides a standard set of these elements and their behaviors, as well as giving you the opportunity to define elements of your own.

The CAPI's model of window-based user interfaces is an abstraction of the concepts that are shared between all contemporary window systems, such that you do not need to consider the details of a particular system. These hidden details are taken care of by a back end library written for that system alone.

An advantage of making this abstraction is that each of the system-specific libraries can be highly specialized, concentrating on getting things right for that particular window system. Furthermore, because the implementation libraries and the CAPI model are completely separate, libraries can be written for new window systems without affecting either the CAPI model or the applications you have written with it.

The CAPI currently runs under X Window System with Motif, Microsoft Windows and Mac OS X.

1.2 The history of the CAPI

Window-based applications written with LispWorks 3 and previous used CLX², CLUE, and the LispWorks Toolkit. Such applications are restricted to running under X Windows. Because we and our customers wanted a way to write portable window code, we developed a new system for this purpose: the CAPI.

Part of this portability exercise was undertaken before the development of the CAPI, for graphics ports, the generic graphics library. This includes the portable color, font, and image systems in LispWorks. The CAPI is built on top of this technology.

All Lisp-based environment and application development in LispWorks Ltd now uses the CAPI. We recommend that you use the CAPI for window-based application development in preference to the systems mentioned earlier.

1.3 The CAPI model

The CAPI provides an abstract hierarchy of classes which represent different sorts of window interface elements, along with functions for interacting with them. Instances of these classes represent window objects in an application, with their slots representing different aspects of the object, such as the text on a button, or the items on a menu. These instances are not actual window objects but provide a convenient representation of them for you. When you ask the CAPI to display your object, it creates a real window system object to represent it. This means that if you display a CAPI button, a real Windows button is created for it when running on Microsoft Windows, and a real Motif button when running on Motif, and a real Mac OS X button when running on Mac OS X.

A different approach would have been to simulate the window objects and their look and feel. This approach is problematic. Because the library makes itself entirely responsible for the application's look and feel, it may not simulate it correctly in obscure cases. Also, manufacturers occasionally change the look and feel of their window systems. Applications written with a library that simulates window objects will continue to have the old look and feel until the application is recompiled with an updated library.

The CAPI's approach makes the production of the screen objects the responsibility of the native window system, so it always produces the correct look and feel. Furthermore, the CAPI's use of the real interface to the window system means that it does not need to be upgraded to account for look and feel changes, and anything written with it is upwardly compatible, just like any well-written application.

1.3.1 CAPI Classes

There are four basic objects in the CAPI model: *interfaces*, *menus*, *panes* and *layouts*.

Everything that the CAPI displays is contained within an interface (an instance of the class interface). When an interface is displayed a window appears containing all the menus and panes you have specified for it.

An interface can contain a number of menus which are collected together on a menu bar. Each menu on the menu bar can contain menu items or other menus. Items can be grouped together visually and functionally inside *menu components*. Menus, menu items, and menu components are, respectively, instances of the classes menu, menu-item, and menu-component.

Panes are window objects such as buttons and lists. They can be positioned anywhere in an interface. The CAPI provides many different kinds of pane class, among them push-button, list-panel, editor-pane, tree-view and graph-pane.

The positions of panes are controlled by a layout, which allows objects to be collected together and positioned either regularly (with instances of the classes column-layout, row-layout Or grid-layout) or arbitrarily using a pinboard-layout. Layouts themselves can be laid out by other layouts — for example, a row of buttons can be laid out above a list by placing both the row-layout and the list in a column-layout.

1 Introduction to the CAPI

2

Getting Started

This chapter introduces some of the most basic CAPI elements and functions. The intention is simply that you should become familiar with the most useful elements available, before learning how you can use them constructively. You should work through the examples in this chapter.

A CAPI application consists of a hierarchy of CAPI objects. CAPI objects are created using make-instance, and although they are standard CLOS objects, CAPI slots should generally be accessed using the documented accessors, and not using the CLOS slot-value function. You should not rely on slot-value because the implementation of the CAPI classes may evolve.

Once an instance of a CAPI object has been created in an interface, it can be displayed on your screen using the function display.

2.1 Using the CAPI package

All symbols in this manual are exported from either the CAPI or COMMON-LISP packages unless explicitly stated otherwise. To access CAPI symbols, you could qualify them all explicitly in your code, for example capi:output-pane.

However it is more convenient to create a package which has CAPI on its package-use-list:

```
(defpackage "MY-PACKAGE"
  (:add-use-defaults t)
  (:use "CAPI")
)
```

This creates a package in which all the CAPI symbols are accessible. To run the examples in this guide, first evaluate

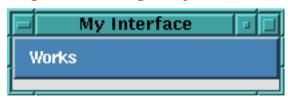
```
(in-package "MY-PACKAGE")
```

2.2 Creating a window

This section shows how easy it is to create a simple window, and how to include CAPI elements, such as panes, in your window.

1. Enter the following in a listener

Figure 2.1 Creating a simple window



A small window appears on your screen, called "My Interface". This is the most simple type of window that can be created with the CAPI.

Note: By default this window has a menu bar with the Works menu. The Works menu gives you access to a variety of LispWorks tools, just like the Works menu of any window in the Common LispWorks IDE. It is automatically provided by default for any interface you create. You can omit it by passing :auto-menus nil.

The usual way to display an instance of a CAPI window is display. However, another function, contain, is provided to help you during the course of development.

Notice that the "My Interface" window cannot be made smaller than the minimum width specified. All CAPI geometry values (window size and position) are integers and represent pixel values.

Only a top level CAPI element is shown by display — that is, an instance of an interface. To display other CAPI elements (for example, buttons, editor panes, and so on), you must provide information about how they are to be arranged in the window. Such an arrangement is called a *layout* — you will learn more about layouts in Chapter 6.

On the other hand, contain automatically provides a default layout for any CAPI element you specify, and subsequently displays it. During development, it can be useful for displaying individual elements of interest on your screen, without having to create an interface for them explicitly. However, contain is only provided as a development tool, and should not be used for the final implementation of a CAPI element. See Chapter 9, "Defining Interface Classes" on how to display CAPI elements in an interface.

Note that a displayed CAPI element should only be accessed in its own thread. See "The correct thread for CAPI operations" on page 11 for more information about this.

This is how you can create and display a button using contain.

1. Enter the following into a listener:

(contain *)

Figure 2.2 Creating a push-button interface



This creates an interface which contains a single push-button, with a label specified by the :data keyword. Notice that you could have performed the same example using display, but you would also have had to create a layout so that the button could have been placed in an interface and displayed.

You can click on the button, and it will respond in the way you would expect (it will depress). However, no code will be run which performs an action associated with the button. How to link code to window items is the topic of the next section.

2.3 Linking code into CAPI elements

Getting a CAPI element to perform an action is done by specifying a *callback*. This is a function which is performed whenever you change the state of a CAPI element. It calls a piece of code whenever a choice is made in a window.

Note that the result of the callback function is ignored, and that its usefulness is in its side-effects.

1. Try the following:

(contain *)

Figure 2.3 Specifying a callback



2. Click on the Hello button.

A dialog appears containing the message "Hello World".

Figure 2.4 A dialog displayed by a callback.



The CAPI provides the function display-message to allow you to pop up a dialog box containing a message and a Confirm button. This is one of many pre-defined facilities that the CAPI offers.

Note: When developing applications in the CAPI, note that your CAPI application windows are run in the same Window system event loop as the Common LispWorks environment itself. This - and the fact that in Common Lisp, user code exists in the same global namespace as the Common Lisp implementation itself - means that a CAPI application running under the Common LispWorks environment can modify the same values as you can concurrently modify from one of the environment's programming tools.

2 Getting Started

For example, your CAPI application might have a button that, when pressed, sets a slot in a particular object that you could also set by hand in the listener. This situation can lead to unexpected values and behavior in your CAPI application, which may seem to reveal bugs in the application or the Common Lisp product that do not in fact exist.

General Considerations

This chapter describes general issues relating to the use of CAPI. Subsequent chapters address the use of particular CAPI elements.

3.1 The correct thread for CAPI operations

All operations on displayed CAPI elements need to be in the thread (that is, the mp:process) that runs their interface. On some platforms, display and contain make a new thread. On Cocoa, all interfaces run in a single thread.

In most cases this issue does not arise, because CAPI callbacks are run in the correct thread. However, if your code needs to communicate with a CAPI window from a random thread, it should use execute-with-interface, execute-with-interface-if-alive or apply-in-pane-process to send the function to the correct thread.

This is why the brief interactive examples in this manual generally use execute-with-interface or apply-in-pane-process when modifying a displayed CAPI element. In contrast, the demo example in "Connecting an interface to an application" on page 84 is modified only by callbacks which run in the demo interface's own process, and so there is no need to use execute-with-interface or apply-in-pane-process.

3.2 Properties of the host window system

This section describes properties of the host window system that affect the appearance of CAPI windows.

3.2.1 Using Windows themes

On Microsoft Windows XP and Vista LispWorks is *themed*. That is, it uses the current theme of the desktop.

It is possible to switch this off by calling the function win32:set-application-themed with argument nil.

win32:set-application-themed affects only windows that are created after it was called. Normally, it should be called before any window is created, so that all LispWorks windows will have a consistent appearance.

3.2.2 Using X resources

On X11/Motif the default fonts and colors (and certain other properties) used in CAPI elements are determined by the applicable X resources.

The file app-defaults/Lispworks, supplied in the LispWorks library for relevant platforms, contains the application fallback resources for LispWorks 5.1 and illustrates resources you may wish to change.

The file app-defaults/GcMonitor contains the application fallback resources for the Lisp Monitor window.

The files app-defaults/*-classic contain the fallback resources that were supplied with LispWorks 4.4.

For further information about X resources, consult documentation for the X Window system.

3.2.2.1 X resources for LispWorks CAPI applications

Delivered applications which need fallback resources should pass the <code>:application-class</code> and <code>:fallback-resources</code> keys described in the <code>LispWorks</code> <code>CAPI Reference Manual</code> under <code>convert-to-screen</code>.

To construct custom X resources for your CAPI/Motif application, consult app-defaults/Lispworks which illustrates resources you may wish to change in your application.

3.2.2.2 X resources for non-focus completion windows

The special window described in "Non-focus completion" on page 104 has interface with name "non-focus-list-prompter". This name can be used to define resources specific to the non-focus completion window. The completion list is a list-panel and the filter is a text-input-pane.

3 General Considerations

4

Creating Common Windows

So far you have only seen two types of CAPI element: the interface (which is the top level CAPI element, and is present in any CAPI window) and the push-button. This section shows how you can use the CAPI to create other common windowing elements you are likely to need.

Before trying out the examples in this chapter, define the functions test-callback and hello in your Listener. The first displays the list of arguments it is given, and returns nil. The second just displays a message.

We will use these callbacks in future examples.

4.1 Generic properties

Because CAPI elements are just like CLOS classes, many elements share a common set of properties. This section describes the properties that all the classes described in this chapter inherit.

4.1.1 Scroll bars

The CAPI lets you specify horizontal or vertical scroll bars for any subclass of the simple-pane element (including all of the classes described in this chapter).

Horizontal and vertical scroll bars can be specified using the keywords :horizontal-scroll and :vertical-scroll. By default, both :vertical-scroll and :horizontal-scroll are nil.

4.1.2 Background and foreground colors

All subclasses of the simple pane element can have different foreground and background colors, using the :background and :foreground keywords. For example, including

```
:background :blue
:foreground :yellow
```

in the make-instance of a text pane would result in a pane with a blue background and yellow text.

4.1.3 Fonts

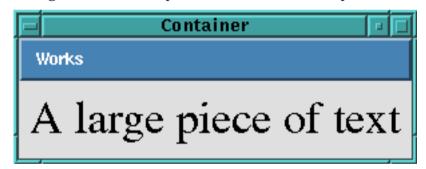
The CAPI interface supports the use of other fonts for text in title panes and other CAPI objects, such as buttons, through the use of the :font keyword. If the CAPI cannot find the specified font it reverts to the default font. The :font keyword applies to data following the :text keyword. The value is a graphics ports gp:font-description object specifying various attributes of the font.

On systems running X Windows, the *lsfonts command can be used to list which fonts are available. The X logical font descriptor can be explicitly passed as a string to the :font initarg, which will convert them.

Here is an example of a title-pane with an explicit font:

Here is an example of using :font to produce a title pane with larger lettering. Note that the CAPI automatically resized the pane to fit around the text.

Figure 4.1 An example of the use of font descriptions



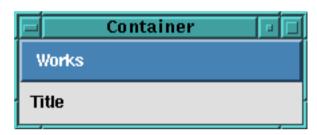
4.2 Specifying titles

It is possible to specify a title for a window, or part of a window. Several of the examples that you have already seen have used titles. There are two ways that you can create titles: by using the title-pane class, or by specifying a title directly to any subclass of titled-object.

4.2.1 Title panes

A title pane is a blank pane into which text can be placed in order to form a title.

Figure 4.2 A title pane



4.2.2 Specifying titles directly

You can specify a title directly to all CAPI panes, using the :title keyword. This is much easier than using title-panes, since it does not necessitate using a layout to group two elements together.

Any class that is a subclass of titled-object supports the :title keyword. All of the standard CAPI panes inherit from this class. You can find all the subclasses of titled-object by graphing them using the class browser.

4.2.2.1 Window titles

Specify a title for a CAPI window by supplying the :title initarg for the interface, and access it with interface-title.

Further control over the title of your application windows can be acheived by using set-default-interface-prefix-suffix and/or specializing interface-extend-title as illustrated in "Controlling the interface title" on page 87.

4.2.2.2 Titles for elements

The position of any title can be specified by using the :title-position keyword. Most panes default the title-position to :top, although some use :left.

You can place the title in a frame (like a groupbox) around its element by specifying :title-position :frame.

You may specify the font used in the title via the keyword :title-font.

The title of a titled-object, and its font, may be changed interactively with the use of setf, if you wish.

1. Create a push button by evaluating the code below:

2. Now evaluate the following:

```
(apply-in-pane-process
button #'(setf titled-object-title) "Press here: " button)
```

As soon as the form is evaluated, the title of the pane you just created changes.

3. Lastly evaluate the following:

```
(apply-in-pane-process
button #'(setf titled-object-title-font)
(gp:merge-font-descriptions
(gp:make-font-description :size 42)
(gp:convert-to-font-description
button
(titled-object-title-font button))) button)
```

Notice how the window automatically resizes in steps 2 and 3, to make allowance for the new size of the title.

4.3 Displaying and entering text

There are a variety of ways in which an application can display text, accept text input or allow editing of text by the user. Display panes show non-edit-

4 Creating Common Windows

able text, text input panes are used for entering short pieces of text, and editor panes are commonly used for dealing with large amounts of text such as files. Rich text panes are available on Cocoa and Windows, supporting formatted text.

4.3.1 Display panes

Display panes can be used to display text messages on the screen. The text in these messages cannot be edited, so they can be used by the application to present a message to the user. The :text keyword can be used to specify the message that is to appear in the pane.

1. Create a display pane by evaluating the code below:

Figure 4.3 A display pane

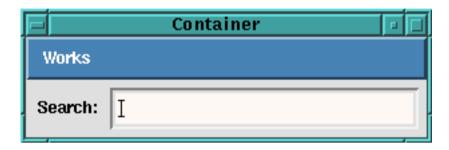


Note that the window title, which defaults to "Container" for windows created by contain, may appear truncated.

4.3.2 Text input panes

When you want the user to enter a line of text — for instance a search string — a text input pane can be used.

Figure 4.4 A text input pane



Notice that the default title position for text input panes is :left.

You can place text programmatically in the text input pane by supplying a string for the :text initarg, or later by calling (setf text-input-pane-text) in the appropriate process.

You can add toolbar buttons for easier user input via the :buttons initarg. This example allows the user to enter the filename of an existing Lisp source file, either directly or by selecting the file in a dialog raised by the Browse File button. There is also a Cancel button, but the default OK button is not displayed:

For a larger quantity of text use multi-line-text-input-pane.

4.3.3 Editor panes

Editor panes can be created using the editor-pane element.

The Common LispWorks Editor, as described in the *Common LispWorks User Guide* and the *LispWorks Editor User Guide*, uses editor-pane.



Figure 4.5 An editor pane

Note: when you supply the :buffer-name initarg and/or the :text initarg with positive length, then the editor-pane initially displays a new buffer containing that text and/or with the specified buffer name. If you do not supply one of those arguments, then the editor-pane displays some existing editor buffer chosen at random. See the LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual for details.

The cursor in an editor-pane blinks on and off under the control of the editor-pane-blink-rate mechanism.

4.4 Stream panes

There are three subclasses of editor-pane which handle Common Lisp streams

4.4.1 Collector panes

A collector pane displays anything printed to the stream associated with it. Background output windows, for instance, are examples of collector panes.

4.4.2 Interactive streams

An interactive stream is the building block on which listener-pane is built.

4.4.3 Listener panes

The listener-pane class is a subclass of interactive-stream, and allows you to create interactive Common Lisp sessions. You may occasionally want to include a listener pane in a tool (as, for instance, in the Common LispWorks Debugger).

4.5 Miscellaneous button elements

A variety of different buttons can be created for use in an application. These include push buttons, which you have already seen, and check buttons. Button panels can also be created, and are described in Chapter 5, "Choices".

4.5.1 Push buttons

You have already seen push buttons in earlier examples. The <code>:enabled</code> keyword can be used to specify whether or not the button should be selectable when it is displayed. This can be useful for disabling a button in certain situations.

The following code creates a push button which cannot be selected.

These setf expansions enable and disable the button:

```
(apply-in-pane-process
  offbutton #'(setf button-enabled) t offbutton)
(apply-in-pane-process
  offbutton #'(setf button-enabled) nil offbutton)
```

All subclasses of the button class can be disabled in this way.

4.5.2 Check buttons

Check buttons can be produced with the check-button element.

1. Enter the following in a Listener:

Figure 4.6 A check button



Notice the use of :retract-callback in the example above, to specify a callback when the element is deselected.

Like push buttons, check buttons can be disabled by specifying :enabled nil.

4.5.3 Radio buttons

Radio buttons can be created explicitly although they are usually part of a button panel as described in Chapter 5, *Choices*. The :selected keyword is used to specify whether or not the button is selected, and the :text keyword can be used to label the button.

4 Creating Common Windows

Figure 4.7 An explicitly created radio button



Although a single radio button is of limited use, having an explicit radio button class gives you greater flexibility, since associated radio buttons need not be physically grouped together. Generally, the easiest way of creating a group of radio buttons is by using a button panel, but doing so means that they will be geometrically, as well as semantically, connected.

5

Choices

Some elements of a window interface contain collections of items, for example rows of buttons, lists of filenames, and groups of menu items. Such elements are known in the CAPI as *collections*.

In most collections, items may be selected by the user — for example, a row of buttons. Collections whose items can be selected are known as *choices*. Each button in a row of buttons is either checked or unchecked, showing something about the application's state — perhaps that color graphics are switched on and sound is switched off. This selection state came about as the result of a *choice* the user made when running the application, or default choices made by the application itself.

The CAPI provides a convenient way of producing groups of items from which collections and choices can be made. The abstract class collection provides a means of specifying a group of items. The subclass choice provides groups of selectable items, where you may specify what initial state they are in, and what happens when the selection is changed. Subclasses of collection and choice used for producing particular kinds of grouped elements are described in the sections that follow.

All the choices described in this chapter can be given a print function via the :print-function keyword. This allows you to control the way in which items in the element are displayed. For example, passing the argument

'string-capitalize to: print-function would capitalize the initial letters of all the words of text that an instance of a choice displays.

Some of the examples in this chapter require the functions test-callback and hello which were introduced in Chapter 4, "Creating Common Windows".

5.1 Choice classes

This section discusses the immediate subclasses of choice which can be used to build button panels. If you have a group of several buttons, you can use the appropriate button-panel element to specify them all as a group, rather than using push-button or check-button to specify each one separately. There are three such elements altogether: push-button-panel, check-button-panel and radio-button-panel. The specifics of each are discussed below.

5.1.1 Push button panels

The arrangement of a number of push buttons into one group can be done with a push-button-panel. Since this provides a panel of buttons which do not maintain a selection when you click on them, push-button-panel is a choice that does not allow a selection. When a button is activated it causes a :selection-callback, but the button does not maintain the selected state.

Here is an example of a push button panel:

```
(make-instance 'push-button-panel
               :items '(one two three four five)
               :selection-callback 'test-callback
               :print-function 'string-capitalize)
```

(contain *)

Figure 5.1 A push button panel



The layout of a button panel (for instance, whether items are listed vertically or horizontally) can be specified using the <code>:layout-class</code> keyword. This can take two values: <code>'column-layout</code> if you wish buttons to be listed vertically, and <code>'row-layout</code> if you wish them to be listed horizontally. The default value is <code>'row-layout</code>. If you define your own layout classes, you can also use these as values to <code>:layout-class</code>. Layouts, which apply to many other CAPI objects, are discussed in detail in Chapter 6, "Laying Out CAPI Panes".

5.1.2 Radio button panels

A group of radio buttons (a group of buttons of which only one at a time can be selected) is created with the radio-button-panel class. Here is an example of a radio button panel:

(contain radio)

Figure 5.2 A radio button panel



5.1.3 Check button panels

A group of check buttons can be created with the check-button-panel class. Any number of check buttons can be selected.

Here is an example of a check button panel:

```
(contain
  (make-instance
  'check-button-panel
  :items '("Red" "Green" "Blue")))
```

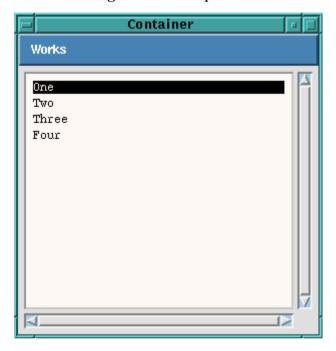
Figure 5.3 A check button panel



5.2 List panels

Lists of selectable items can be created with the list-panel class. Here is a simple example of a list panel:

Figure 5.4 A list panel



Notice how the items in the list panel are passed as symbols, and a print-function is specified which controls how those items are displayed on the screen.

Any item on the list can be selected by clicking on it with the mouse.

By default, list panels are single selection — that is, only one item in the list may be selected at once. You can use the :interaction keyword to change this:

You can add callbacks to any items in the list using the :selection-callback keyword.

5.2.1 List interaction

If you select different items in the list, only the last item you select remains highlighted. The way in which the items in a list panel interact upon selection can be controlled with the :interaction keyword.

The list produced in the example above is known as a single-selection list because only one item at a time may be selected. List panels are :single-selection by default.

There are also multiple-selection and extended-selection lists available. The possible interactions for list panels are:

- :single-selection only one item may be selected
- :multiple-selection more than one item may be selected
- :extended-selection see Section 5.2.2

To get a particular interaction, supply one of the values above to the :interaction keyword, like this:

```
(contain
  (make-instance
  'list-panel
  :items '("Red" "Green" "Blue")
  :interaction :multiple-selection))
```

Note that :no-selection is not a supported choice for list panels. To display a list of items with no selection possible you should use a display-pane.

5.2.2 Extended selection

Application users often want to make single and multiple selections from a list. Some of the time they want a new selection to deselect the previous one, so that only one selection remains — just like a :single-selection panel. On other occasions, they want new selections to be added to the previous ones — just like a :multiple-selection panel.

The :extended-selection interaction combines these two interactions. Here is an extended-selection list panel:

```
(contain
  (make-instance
   'list-panel
   :items '("Item" "Thing" "Object")
   :interaction :extended-selection))
```

Before continuing, here are the definitions of a few terms. The action you perform to select a single item is called the *selection gesture*. The action performed to select additional items is called the *extension gesture*. There are two extension gestures. To add a single item to the selection, the extension gesture is a click of the left button while holding down the Control key. For selecting a range of items, it is a click of the left button whilst holding down the Shift key.

5.2.3 Deselection, retraction, and actions

As well as selecting items, users often want to deselect them. Items in multiple-selection and extended-selection lists may be deselected.

In a multiple-selection list, deselection is done by clicking on the selected item again with either of the selection or extension gestures.

In an extended-selection list, deselection is done by performing the extension gesture upon the selected item. (If this was done using the selection gesture, the list would behave as a single-selection list and all other selections would be lost.)

Just like a selection, a deselection — or *retraction* — can have a callback associated with it.

For a multiple-selection list pane, there may be the following callbacks:

selection-callback — called when a selection is made

:retract-callback — called when a selection is retracted

Consider the following example. The function set-title changes the title of the interface to the value of the argument passed to it. By using this as the callback to the check-button-panel, the title of the interface is set to the current selection. The retract-callback function displays a message dialog with the name of the button retracted.

1. Display the example window:

Figure 5.5 The example check button panel before the callback.



2. Try selecting one of the check buttons. The window title will change:

Figure 5.6 The example check button panel after the callback.



3. Now de-select the button. Notice that the *retract-callback* is called.

For an extended-selection list pane, there may be the following callbacks:

- :selection-callback called when a selection is made
- :retract-callback called when a selection is retracted
- :extend-callback called when a selection is extended

Also available in extended-selection and single-selection lists is the action callback. This is called when you double-click on an item.

:action-callback — called when a double-click occurs

5.2.4 Selections

List panels — all choices, in fact — can have selections, and you can set them from within Lisp. This is useful for providing default settings in a choice, or when a user selection has an effect on other settings than just the one they made.

The selection is represented as a vector of offsets into the list of the choice's items, unless it is a single-selection choice, in which case it is just represented as an offset.

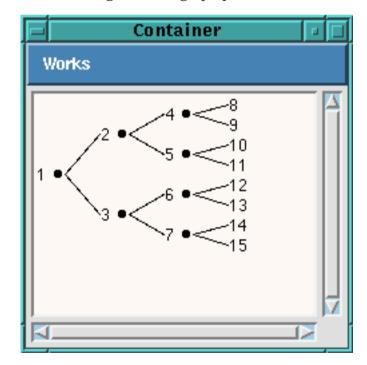
The initial selection is controlled with the initarg :selection. The accessor choice-selection is provided.

5.3 Graph panes

Another kind of choice is the graph-pane. This is a special pane that can draw graphs, whose nodes and edges can be selected, and for which callbacks can be specified, as usual.

Here is a simple example of a graph pane. It draws a small rooted tree:

Figure 5.7 A graph pane



The graph pane is supplied with a :children-function which it uses to calculate the children of the root node, and from those children it continues to

calculate more children until the termination condition is reached. For more details of this, see the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual*.

graph-pane provides a gesture which expands or collapses a node, depending on it current state. Click on the circle alongside the node to expand or collapse it.

You can associate selection, retraction, extension, and action callbacks with any or all elements of a graph. Here is a simple graph pane that has an action callback on its nodes.

First we need a pane for displaying the callback messages in. This is done by executing the following code:

```
(defvar *the-collector*
  (contain (make-instance 'collector-pane)))
```

Then, define the following four callback functions:

Now create an extended selection graph pane which uses each of these callbacks, the callback used depending on the action taken:

The selection callback function is called whenever any node in the graph is selected.

The extension callback function is called when the selection is extended by middle clicking on another node (thus selecting it too).

The retract callback function is called whenever an already selected node is deselected.

The action callback function is called whenever an action is performed on a node (that is, whenever it gets a double-click, or **Return** is pressed while the node is selected).

5.4 Option panes

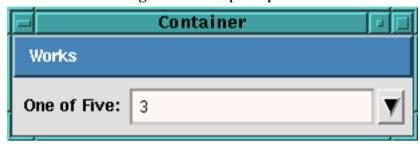
Option panes, created with the option-pane class, display the current selection from a single-selection list. When you click on the option pane, the list appears and you can make another selection from it. Once the selection is made, it is displayed in the option pane.

The appearance of the option-pane list varies between platforms. a drop-down list box on Microsoft Windows; a combo box on Motif, and a popup list on Mac OS.

Here is an example option pane, which shows the choice of one of five numbers. The initial selection is controlled with :selected-item.

```
(contain
  (make-instance
  'option-pane
  :items '(1 2 3 4 5)
  :selected-item 3
  :title "One of Five:"))
```

Figure 5.8 An option pane



5.5 Text input choice

A text-input-choice class is provided which allows arbitrary text input augmented with a choice like an option-pane.

5.6 Menu components

Menus (covered in Chapter 8) can have components that are also choices. These components are groups of items that have an interaction upon selection just like other choices. The :interaction keyword is used to associate radio or check buttons with the group — with the values :single-selection and :multiple-selection respectively. By default, a menu component has an interaction of :no-selection.

See "Grouping menu items together" on page 64 for more details.

5.7 General properties of choices

The behaviors you have seen so far are mostly general properties of choices rather than being specific to a particular choice. These general properties are summarized below.

5.7.1 Interaction

All choices have an interaction style, controlled by the :interaction initarg. The radio-button-panel and check-button-panel are simply button-panels with their interactions set appropriately. The interaction possibilities are listed below

Set :interaction to :single-selection to force single selection. Only one item may be selected at a time: selecting an item deselects any other selected item.

Set:interaction to the value:multiple-selection to create a multiple selection choice element. This lets you select as many items as you want. A selected item may be deselected by clicking on it again.

Set:interaction to the value:extended-selection to create an extended selection element. This is a combination of the other two: Only one item may be selected, but the selection may be extended to more than one item.

Set:interaction to the value:no-selection to force no interaction. Note that this option is not available for list panels. To display a list of items with no selection you should use a display pane instead.

Specifying an interaction that is invalid for a particular choice causes a compilation error.

The accessor choice-interaction is provided for inspecting a choice's interaction.

5.7.2 Selections

All choices have a selection. This is a state representing the items currently selected. The selection is represented as a vector of offsets into the list of the choice's items, unless it is a single-selection choice, in which case it is just represented as an offset.

The initial selection is controlled with the initarg :selection. The accessor choice-selection is provided.

Generally, it is easier to refer to the selection in terms of the items selected, rather than by offsets, so the CAPI provides the notion of a *selected item* and

the *selected items*. The first of these is the selected item in a single-selection choice. The second is a list of the selected items in any choice.

The accessors choice-selected-item and choice-selected-items and the initargs:selected-item and:selected-items provide access to these conceptual slots.

5.7.3 Callbacks

All choices can have callbacks associated with them. These callbacks are activated when the application user makes a selection, and different sorts of gesture can have different sorts of callback associated with them.

The following callbacks are available: <code>:selection-callback</code>, <code>:retract-callback</code> (called when a deselection is made), <code>:extend-callback</code>, and <code>:action-callback</code> (called when a double-click occurs). What makes one choice different from another is that they permit different combinations of these callbacks. This is a consequence of the differing interactions. For example, you cannot have an <code>:extend-callback</code> in a radio button panel, because you cannot extend selection in one.

Callbacks pass data to the function they call. There are default arguments for each type of callback. Using the <code>:callback-type</code> keyword allows you to change these defaults. Example values are <code>:interface</code> (which causes the interface to be passed as an argument to the callback function), <code>:data</code> (which causes the value of the selected data to be passed) and <code>:none</code> (whereby no arguments are passed). Also there is a variety of composite <code>:callback-type</code> values, such as <code>:data-interface</code> (which causes two arguments, the data and the interface, to be passed). See the <code>callbacks</code> entry in the <code>LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual</code> for a complete description of <code>:callback-type</code> values.

The following example uses a push button and a callback function to display the arguments it receives.

```
(defun show-callback-args (arg1 arg2)
  (display-message "The arguments were ~S and ~S" arg1 arg2))
```

Try changing the :callback-type to other values.

If you do not use the :callback-type argument and you do not know what the default is, you can define your callback function with lambda list (&rest args) to account for all the arguments that might be passed.

Specifying a callback that is invalid for a particular choice causes a compiletime error.

Laying Out CAPI Panes

So far, you have seen how you can create a variety of different window elements using the CAPI. Up to now, though, you have only created interfaces which contain one of these elements. The CAPI provides a series of layout elements which allow you to combine several elements in a single window. This chapter provides an introduction to the different types of layout available and the ways in which each can be used.

Layouts are created just like any other CAPI element, by using make-instance. Each layout must contain a description of the CAPI elements it contains, given as a list to the :description keyword.

A layout is used to group any instances of simple-pane and its subclasses (for instance all the elements you met in the last chapter), and pinboard object and its subclasses (discussed in Chapter 11, "Creating Your Own Panes"). Once again, you should make sure you have defined the test-callback function before attempting any of the examples in this chapter. Its definition is repeated here for convenience.

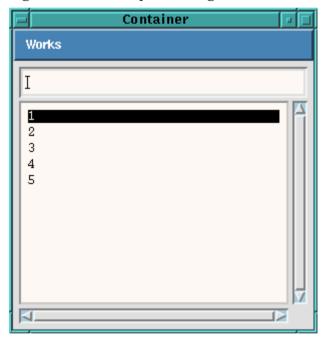
6.1 Organizing panes in columns and rows

You will frequently need to organize a number of different elements in rows and columns. The column-layout and row-layout elements are provided to make this easy.

The following is a simple example showing the use of column-layout.

```
(contain (make-instance 'column-layout
         :description (list
                      (make-instance 'text-input-pane)
                      (make-instance 'list-panel
                              :items '(1 2 3 4 5)))))
```

Figure 6.1 An example of using column-layout



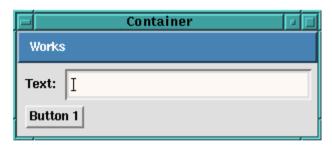
1. Define the following elements:

```
(setq button1 (make-instance 'push-button
                             :data "Button 1"
                             :callback 'test-callback))
```

These will be used in the examples throughout the rest of this chapter.

To arrange any number of elements in a column, create a layout using columnlayout, listing the elements you wish to use. For instance, to display title, followed by text and button1, enter the following into a Listener:

Figure 6.2 A number of elements displayed in a column



To arrange the same elements in a row, simply replace column-layout in the example above with row-layout. If you run this example, close the column layout window first: each CAPI element can only be on the screen once at any time.

Layouts can be given horizontal and vertical scroll bars, if desired; the keywords :horizontal-scroll and :vertical-scroll can be set to t or nil, as necessary.

When creating panes which can be resized (for instance, list panels, editor panes and so on) you can specify the size of each pane relative to the others by listing the proportions of each. This can be done via either the :y-ratios keyword (for column layouts) or the :x-ratios keyword (for row layouts).

```
(contain (make-instance 'column-layout
          :description (list
                       (make-instance 'display-pane)
                       (make-instance 'editor-pane)
                       (make-instance 'listener-pane))
          :y-ratios '(1 5 3)))
```

You may need to resize this window in order to see the size of each pane.

Note that the heights of the three panes are in the proportions specified. The :x-ratios initarg will adjust the width of panes in a row layout in a similar way.

It is also possible to specify that some panes are fixed at their minimum size whilst others in the same row or column adjust proportionately when the interface is resized:

```
(contain
 (make-instance
  'column-layout
 :description
  (list
   (make-instance 'editor-pane
                  :text "Resizable"
                  :visible-min-height '(:character 1))
   (make-instance 'editor-pane
                  :text "Fixed"
                  :visible-min-height '(:character 1))
   (make-instance 'editor-pane
                  (format nil "Resizable~%Resizable")
                  :visible-min-height '(:character 3)))
  :y-ratios '(1 nil 3)
 ))
```

To arrange panes in your row or column layout with constant gaps between them, use the :gap initarg:

To create resizable spaces between panes in your row or column layout, use the special value nil in the layout description:

6.2 Other types of layout

Row and column layouts are the most basic type of layout class available in the CAPI, and will be sufficient for many things you want to do. A variety of other layouts are available as well, as described in this section.

6.2.1 Grid layouts

Whereas row and column layouts only allow you to position a pane horizontally *or* vertically (depending on which class you use), grid layouts let you specify both, thus allowing you to create a complete grid of different CAPI panes.

6.2.2 Simple layouts

Simple layouts control the layout of only one pane. Where possible, the pane is resized to fit the layout. Simple layouts are sometimes useful when you need to encapsulate a pane.

6.2.3 Pinboard layouts

Pinboard layouts allow you to position a pane anywhere within a window, by specifying the *x* and *y* integer coordinates of the pane precisely. They are a means of letting you achieve any effect which you cannot create using the other available layouts, although their use can be correspondingly more complex. They are discussed in more detail in Chapter 11, "Creating Your Own Panes".

6.3 Combining different layouts

You will not always want to arrange all your elements in a single row or column. You can include other layouts in the list of elements used in any layout, thus enabling you to specify precisely how panes in a window should be arranged.

For instance, suppose you want to arrange the elements in your window as shown in Figure 6.3. The two buttons are shown on the right, with the text input pane and a message on the left. Immediately below this is the editor pane.

Message Button1

Text Button2

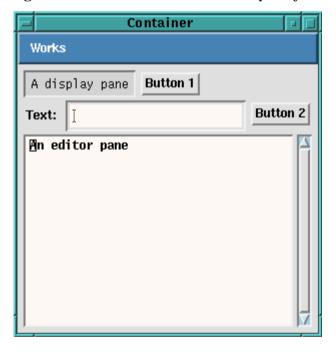
Editor

Figure 6.3 A sample layout

The layout in Figure 6.3 can be achieved by creating two row layouts: one containing the display pane and a button, and one containing the text input pane

and the other button, and then creating a column layout which uses these two row layouts and the editor.

Figure 6.4 An instantiation of the sample layout



As you can see, creating a variety of different layouts is simple. This means that it is easy to experiment with different layouts, allowing you to concentrate on the interface design, rather than its code.

However, remember than each instance of a CAPI element must not be used in more than one place at the same time.

6.4 Constraining the size of layouts

The size of a layout (often referred to as its *geometry*) is calculated automatically on the basis of the size of each of its children. The algorithm used takes account of *hints* provided by the children, and from the description of the layout itself. Hints are specified via the panes' initargs when they are created. The various pane classes have useful default values for these initargs.

6.4.1 Default Constraints

If you do not specify any hints, the CAPI calculates the on-screen geometry based on its default constraints. With this geometry the various elements are displayed with adequate space in the window.

This is designed to work regardless of variable factors such as the user's configuration, for example specifying large font sizes. It is often wrong to constrain CAPI elements to fixed pixel sizes, as these constraints may lead to poorer layouts in some configurations.

6.4.2 Width and Height Constraints

In the CAPI, there are three kinds of constraint: external, visible and internal. The following hints are recognized by all layouts:

External constraints control the size that the pane takes up in its parent:

```
:external-min-width — the minimum width of the child in its parent
:external-max-width — the maximum width of the child in its parent
:external-min-height — the minimum height of the child in its parent
:external-max-height — the maximum height of the child in its parent
```

Visible constraints control the size of the part of the pane that you can see:

```
:visible-min-width — the minimum visible width of the child.
:visible-max-width — the maximum visible width of the child.
:visible-min-height — the minimum visible height of the child.
:visible-max-height — the maximum visible height of the child.
```

Internal constraints control the size of region used to display the contents of the pane:

```
:internal-min-width — the minimum width of the display region.
:internal-max-width — the maximum width of the display region.
:internal-min-height — the minimum height of the display region.
:internal-max-height — the maximum height of the display region.
```

Initargs:min-width,:max-width,:min-height and:max-height are deprecated. They are synonyms for the visible constraints:visible-min-width and so on.

Each external size is the same as the visible size plus the borders.

For a non-scrolling pane, the internal constraints are the same as the visible constraints.

For a scrolling pane, the internal constraints control the size of region over which you can scroll and the visible constraints control the size of the viewport. Usually the internal constraints are computed by the widget. Here is an

illustration of the external, internal and visible sizes in a scrolling pane. *ABCD* is the external size, abcd is the visible size, and ABCD is the internal size:

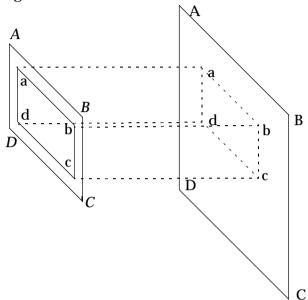


Figure 6.5 External, visible and internal sizes:

6.4.3 Constraint Formats

Hints can take arguments in a number of formats, which are described in full in the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual*. When given a number, this should be an integer and the layout is constrained to that number of pixels. A constraint can also be specified in terms of character widths or heights, as shown in the next section.

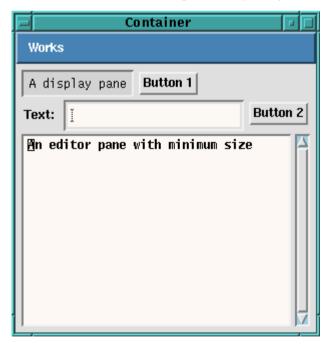
6.4.3.1 Character contraints

In "Combining different layouts" on page 48, you created a window with five panes, by combining row and column layouts. Now consider changing the definition of the editor pane so that it is required to have a minimum size. This would be a sensible change to make, because editor panes need to be large enough to work with comfortably.

Now display a window similar to the last example, but with the editor2 editor pane. Note that it is only the decription of the top-level column layout which differs. Before entering the following into the listener, you should close all the windows created in this chapter in order to free up the instances of button1, button2 and so forth.

You will not be able to resize the window any smaller than this:

Figure 6.6 The result of resizing the sample layout



6.4.3.2 Changing the constraints

If you need to alter the constraints on an existing element, use the function set-hint-table. See how the interface above resizes after this call:

```
(apply-in-pane-process
'set-hint-table editor2 '(:visible-min-width (:character 100)))
```

6.4.3.3 String constraints

To make a pane that is wide enough to accomodate a given string, use the :visible-min-width hint with a (:string string) constraint.

In this example we also supply :visible-max-width t, which fixes the maximum visible width to be the same as the minimum visible width. Hence the pane is wide enough, but no wider:

```
(defvar *text* "Exactly this wide")
(capi:contain
 (make-instance 'capi:text-input-pane
                :text *text*
                :visible-min-width `(:string ,*text*)
                :visible-max-width t
                :font (gp:make-font-description
                       :size (+ 6 (random 30)))))
```

Note that the width constraint works regardless of the font used.

6.5 Advanced pane layouts

Until now you have used layouts for CAPI elements in which the constituents were displayed in fixed positions set out by the CAPI. In this chapter we will be looking at a number of ways in which users can select the layout and display of CAPI elements in an interface once an instance of the interface has been displayed.

The portable techniques are the use of dividers, switchable layouts and tab layouts. On Microsoft Windows, there is also Multiple-Document Interface (MDI).

Throughout this section we will be using three predefined panes, which you should define before proceeding.

6.5.1 Switchable layouts

A switchable layout allows you to place CAPI objects on top of one another and determine which object is displayed on top through Lisp code, possibly linked to a button or menu option through a callback. Switchable layouts are set up using a switchable-layout element in a make-instance. As with the other layouts, such as column-layout and row-layout, the elements to be organized are given as a list to the :description keyword. Here is an example:

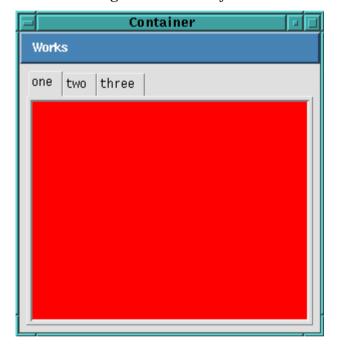
Note that the default pane to be displayed is the red pane, which was the first pane in the description list. The two panes can now be switched between using switchable-layout-visible-child:

```
(apply-in-pane-process
  switching-panes #'(setf switchable-layout-visible-child)
  green-pane switching-panes)
(apply-in-pane-process
  switching-panes #'(setf switchable-layout-visible-child)
  red-pane switching-panes)
```

6.5.2 Tab layouts

In its simplest mode, a tab layout is similar to a switchable layout, except that each pane is provided with a labelled tab, like the tabs on filing cabinet folders or address books. If the tab is clicked on by the user, the pane it is attached to is pulled to the front. Don't forget to close the switchable layout window created in the last example before displaying this:

Figure 6.7 A tab layout



The example needs the :print-function to be car, or else the tabs will be labelled with the object numbers of the panes as well as the title provided in the list.

However, a tab layout can also be used in a non-switchable manner, with each tab responding with a callback to alter the appearance of only one pane. In this mode the <code>:description</code> keyword is used to describe the main layout of the tab pane. In the following example the tabs alter the choice of starting node for one graph pane, by using a callback to the <code>graph-pane-roots</code> accessor:

6.5.3 Dividers

Sometimes you may wish to have two or more panes presented in a column layout, with a horizontal divider between them. This is to allow the user the option of resizing one pane into the space of the other. By clicking on the bar between the two panes produced in the layout below, and then dragging it up or down the panes are resized.

Dividers can also be placed between panes in a row-layout or even combinations of row and column layouts.

6.5.4 Multiple-Document Interface (MDI)

In LispWorks for Windows, the CAPI supports MDI through the class document-frame. See the entry for document-frame in the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual*.

MDI is not supported on other platforms.

6 Laying Out CAPI Panes

7

Modifying CAPI Windows

An interface or its children can be altered in many ways. This chapter describes APIs for the most common of these.

Note: By default, each CAPI interface runs in its process. It is important to understand that an on-screen interface and its elements must be accessed only in the process of that interface. In most circumstances the user alters the interface by a callback inside the interface, which will automatically happen in the correct process. However, calls from other processes (including other CAPI interfaces) should use execute-with-interface, execute-with-interface-if-alive or apply-in-pane-process. See the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual* for details of these functions.

7.1 Initialization

If necessary you can run code after your interface's windows have been created but before they are displayed on screen. Do this by supplying *create-callback* for your interface. For example:

Also, if you need to run code at display time you may define a :before or :after method on the generic function interface-display. Your method will run just before or just after your interface is displayed on screen.

7.2 Resizing

Programmatic resizing can be done using the function set-top-level-interface-geometry. For example, to double the width of an interface about its center:

```
(setf interface (contain (make-instance 'interface)))
```

Use the mouse or window manager-specific gesture to resize the interface, then evaluate:

All resize operations are subject to the constraints. The constraints can be altered programmatically as described in "Changing the constraints" on page 54.

7.3 Scrolling

Programmatic scrolling is implemented with the generic function scroll. This example shows vertical scrolling in a list-panel:

Elsewhere this manual shows how an editor-pane can be scrolled using editor commands.

7.4 Swapping panes and layouts

The class switchable-layout is useful when your interface has several panes of which exactly one should be visible at any time. The class tab-layout provides similar functionality in a Window-system specific way. See "Advanced pane layouts" on page 54

To change to another layout, use (setf pane-layout):

To change the panes within a layout, use (setf layout-description):

Note: you must not reuse already-displayed panes in a CAPI layout.

7.5 Setting the data in a pane

Use only the documented functions such as the accessors (setf editor-pane-text) and (setf collection-items) and so on. For details, see the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual* entry for the particular pane class and its superclasses.

7.6 Iconifying and restoring windows

You can iconify an interface window as follows:

```
(setf (top-level-interface-display-state interface) :iconic)
```

You can also make it be hidden, maximized or restore it to normal, and you have the option to create it in one of these states initally. For details see the documentation for top-level-interface-display-state in the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual*.

7.7 Destroying

To destroy a CAPI interface, call the generic function destroy.

Creating Menus

You can create menus for an application using the menu class.

You should make sure you have defined the test-callback and hello functions before attempting any of the examples in this chapter. Their definitions are repeated here for convenience.

8.1 Creating a menu

A menu can be created in much the same way as any of the CAPI classes you have already met.

1. Enter the following into a Listener:

```
(make-instance 'menu
   :title "Foo"
   :items '("One" "Two" "Three" "Four")
   :callback 'test-callback)
```

```
(make-instance 'interface
   :menu-bar-items (list *))
(display *)
```

This creates a CAPI interface with a menu, **Foo**, which contains four items. Choosing any of these items displays its arguments. Each item has the callback specified by the :callback keyword.

A submenu can be created simply by specifying a menu as one of the items of the top-level menu.

2. Enter the following into a Listener:

```
(make-instance 'menu
   :title "Bar"
   :items '("One" "Two" "Three" "Four")
   :callback 'test-callback)

(make-instance 'menu
   :title "Baz"
   :items (list 1 2 * 4 5)
   :callback 'test-callback)

(contain *)
```

This creates an interface which has a menu, called **Baz**, which itself contains five items. The third item is another menu, **Bar**, which contains four items. Once again, selecting any item returns its arguments.

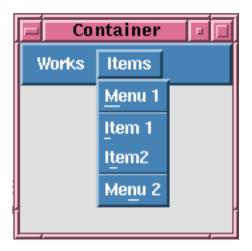
Menus can be nested as deeply as required using this method.

8.2 Grouping menu items together

The menu-component class lets you group related items together in a menu. This allows similar menu items to share properties, such as callbacks, and to be visually separated from other items in the menus. Menu components are actually choices.

Here is a simple example of a menu component. This creates a menu called **Items**, which has four items. **Menu 1** and **Menu 2** are ordinary menu items, but **Item 1** and **Item 2** are created from a menu component, and are therefore grouped together in the menu.

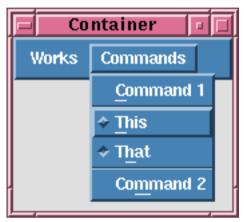
Figure 8.1 A menu



Menu components allow you to specify, via the :interaction keyword, selectable menu items — either as multiple-selection or single-selection items. This is like having radio buttons or check boxes as items in a menu, and is a popular technique among many GUI-based applications.

The following example shows you how to include a panel of radio buttons in a menu.

Figure 8.2 Radio buttons included in a menu

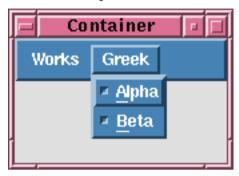


The menu items **This** and **That** are radio buttons, only one of which may be selected at a time. The other menu items are just ordinary commands, as you saw in the previous examples. Note that the CAPI automatically groups the items which are parts of a menu component so that they are separated from other items in the menu.

This example also illustrates the use of more than one callback in a menu, which of course is the usual case when you are developing real applications. Choosing either of the radio buttons displays one message on the screen, and choosing either Command1 or Command2 returns the arguments of the callback.

Checked menu items can be created by specifying :multiple-selection to the :interaction keyword, as illustrated below.

Figure 8.3 An example of checked menu items



Note how the items in the menu component inherit the callback given to the parent, eliminating the need to specify a separate callback for each item or component in the menu.

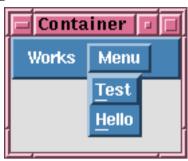
Within a menu or component, you can specify alternatives for a main menu item that are invoked by modifer keys. For more information see "Alternative menu items" on page 70..

8.3 Creating individual menu items

The menu-item class lets you create individual menu items. These items can be passed to menu-components or menus via the :items keyword. Using this class, you can assign different callbacks to different menu items.

(contain group)

Figure 8.4 Individual menu items



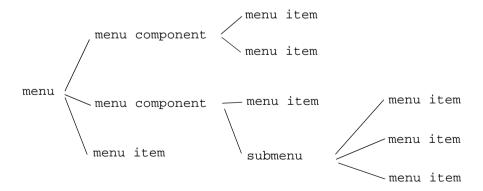
Remember that each instance of a menu item must not be used in more than one place at a time.

8.4 The CAPI menu hierarchy

The combination of menu items, menu components and menus can create a hierarchical structure as shown schematically in Figure 8.5 and graphically in Figure 8.6. This menu has five elements, one of which is itself a menu (with three menu items) and the remainder are menu components and menu items. Items in a menu inherit values from their parent, allowing similar elements to share relevant properties whenever possible.

```
(defun menu-item-name (data)
  (format nil "Menu Item ~D" data))
(defun submenu-item-name (data)
  (format nil "Submenu Item ~D" data))
(contain
 (make-instance
  'menu
  :items
  (list
   (make-instance 'menu-component
                  :items '(1 2)
                  :print-function 'menu-item-name
   (make-instance 'menu-component
                  :items
                  (list 3
                         (make-instance
                          'menu
                          :title "Submenu"
                          :items '(1 2 3)
                          :print-function
                          'submenu-item-name))
                  :print-function 'menu-item-name)
   (make-instance 'menu-item
                  :data 42))
  :print-function 'menu-item-name))
```

Figure 8.5 A schematic example of a menu hierarchy



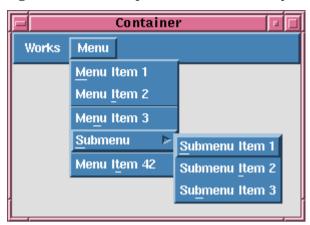


Figure 8.6 An example of a menu hierarchy

8.5 Alternative menu items

Menus can include "alternative" items, which are invoked if some modifiers are held while selecting the "main" item. The modifiers are defined by the <code>:accelerator</code> initarg of the item, which also allows the item to be invoked by a keyboard accelerator key if specified. On Cocoa, the title and accelerator of the alternative item appear when the appropriate modifier(s) are pressed.

A menu item becomes an alternative to an immediately previous item when it is made with initarg :alternative t. Each alternative item must have the same parent as its previous item. That is, they are within the same menu and menu component, as described in "Grouping menu items together" on page 64. More than one alternative item can be supplied for a given main item by putting them consecutively in the menu. The main item is the item preceding the first alternative item.

The main item and its alternative items forms a group of items. The accelerators of all items in the group must consist of the same key, but with different modifiers. If there is no need for an accelerator key, the main item should not have no accelerator and the alternative items should have accelerators with Null as the key, for example "Shift-Null".

When the menu is displayed, only one item from the group will be shown. On Windows and Linux, the main item is always displayed. Cocoa displays the item with the least number of modifiers initially, so to get a consistent crossplatform behavior, the main item should have the least number of modifiers. On Cocoa, pressing modifier keys that match alternative items changes the title and accelerators displayed for the item.

When the user selects an item with the modifiers pressed, the appropriate alternative item is selected.

To make a menu-item an alternative item, pass the initarg :alternative t and a suitable value for the initarg :accelerator.

There is an example illustrating alternative menu items in

examples/capi/elements/accelerators.lisp

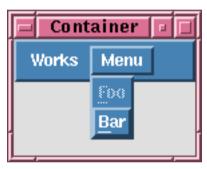
8.6 Disabling menu items

A function can be specified via the :enabled-function initarg, that determines whether or not the menu, menu item, or menu component is enabled. By default, a menu object is always enabled.

Consider the following example:

```
(defvar *on* nil)
(contain
 (make-instance 'menu
                 :items
                 (list
                  (make-instance
                  'menu-item
                  :title "Foo"
                  :enabled-function
                 #'(lambda (menu) *on*))
                 (make-instance
                  'menu-item
                  :title "Bar"))))
```

Figure 8.7 A menu with a disabled menu item



Changing the value of *on* between t and nil in the Listener, using setq, results in the menu item changing between the enabled and disabled states.

8.7 Popup menus for panes

The CAPI tries to display a popup menu for a pane when the :post-menu gesture is entered by the user (mouse-right-click or Shift+F10 on Microsoft Windows and Motif, control-click on Mac OS). See below for the special case of output-pane.

It first tries to get a menu for the pane. There are two mechanisms by which it can get a menu: which is tried depends on the value of pane-menu.

 If the pane's initarg pane-menu is not :default in the call to makeinstance, then its value is used. If the value is a function or a fbound symbol, it is called with four arguments: the pane, data (this is the

selected object if there is a selection), x, y. It should return a menu. If it is not a function or a fbound symbol, it should be a menu, which is used directly. The :pane-menu mechanism is useful when the menu needs to be dependent on the location of the mouse inside the pane, or when each pane requires a unique menu. In other cases, the other mechanism is more useful.

2. If pane-menu is :default (this the default value), CAPI calls the generic function make-pane-popup-menu with two arguments: the pane and its interface. The result should be a menu.

If the chosen mechanism does not produce a menu, the CAPI does not do anything in response to :post-menu.

The system definition of make-pane-popup-menu calls pane-popup-menu-items with the pane and the interface, and if this returns non-nil list, it calls make-menu-for-pane to make the menu. You can define make-pane-popup-menu methods that specialize on your pane or interface classes, but in most cases it is more useful to add methods to pane-popup-menu-items. make-menu-for-pane is used to generate the menu, and it makes the menu such that by default all setup callbacks are done on the pane itself, rather than on the interface. make-pane-popup-menu is useful when the application needs a menu with the same items as the items on the popup menu, typically to add it to the menu bar.

In output-pane, you control the input behaviour using the *input-model*. By default, the system assigns :post-menu and :keyboard-post-menu (Shift+F10) to a callback that raises a menu as described above, but your code can override this in the *input-model*.

Defining Interface Classes

So far we have looked at various components for building interfaces. The CAPI provides all these and more, but instead of continuing with our exploration of the various classes provided, let us see how what we have learned so far can be combined into a single, non-trivial interface class.

9.1 The define-interface macro

The macro define-interface is used to define subclasses of interface, the superclass of all CAPI interface classes.

It is an extension to defclass, which provides the functionality of that macro as well as the specification of the panes, layouts, and menus from which an interface is composed. It takes the same arguments as defclass, and supports the additional options :panes, :layouts, :menus, and :menu-bar.

If you specify :panes but no :layouts, then on creating your interface the CAPI will create a column-layout and arrange the panes in it in the order they are defined. For real applications you will need some control over how the panes are laid out, and this is supplied via the :layouts option.

Each component of the interface is named in the code, and a slot of that name is added to the class created. When an instance of the class is made, each component is created automatically and placed in its slot.

To access a pane, layout or menu in an instance of your interface class you can define an accessor, like viewer-pane in the example below, or simply use with-slots.

When defining a component, you can use other components within the definition simply by giving its name. You can refer to the interface itself by the special name capi:interface.

9.2 An example interface

Here is a simple example of interface definition done with define-interface:

An instance of this interface can be displayed as follows:

```
(make-instance 'demo)
(display *)
```

At the moment the buttons do nothing, but they will eventually do the following:

- Open File will bring up a file prompter and allow you to select a filename from a directory. Later on, we will add an editor pane to display the chosen file's contents.
- **Page Down** will scroll downwards so that you can view the lower parts of the file that cannot be seen initially.

 Page Up will scroll upwards so that you can return to parts of the file seen before.

Figure 9.1 A demonstration of a CAPI interface



Later on, we will specify callbacks for these buttons to provide this functionality.

The (:default-initargs :title "Demo") part at the end is necessary to give the interface a title. If no title is given, the default name is "Untitled CAPI Interface".

Note: the define-interface form could be generated by the Interface Builder tool in the Common LispWorks IDE. See the *Common LispWorks User Guide* for details. As the interface becomes more complex, you will find it more convenient to edit the definition by hand.

9.2.1 How the example works

Examine the define-interface call to see how this interface was built. The first part of the call to define interface is shown below:

```
(define-interface demo ()
    ()
```

This part of the macro is identical to defclass — you provide:

- The name of the interface class being defined
- The superclasses of the interface (defaulting to interface)
- The slot descriptions

The interesting part of the define-interface call occurs after these defclass-like preliminaries. The remainder of a define-interface call lists all elements

9

that define the interface's appearance. Here is the :panes part of the definition:

Two arguments — the name and the class — are required to produce a pane. You can supply slot values as you would for any pane.

Here is the :layouts part of the definition:

Three arguments — the name, the class, and any child layouts — are required to produce a layout. Notice how the children of the layout are specified by using their component names.

The interface information given so far is a series of specifications for panes and layouts. It could also specify menus and a menu bar. In this case, three buttons are defined. The layout chosen is a row layout, which displays the three buttons side by side at the top of the pane.

9.3 Adapting the example

The :panes and :layouts keywords can take a number of panes and layouts, each specified one after the other. By listing several panes, menus, and so on, complicated interfaces can be constructed quickly.

To see how simply this is done, let us add an editor pane to our interface. We need this to display the text contained in the file chosen with the **Open File** button.

The editor pane needs a layout. It could be added to the row-layout already built, or another layout could be made for it. Then, the two layouts would have to be put inside a third to contain them (see Chapter 6, *Laying Out CAPI Panes*).

The first thing to do is add the editor pane to the panes description. The old panes description read:

The new one includes an editor pane named viewer.

This specifies the editor pane, with a stipulation that it must be at least 8 characters high. This allows you to see a worthwhile amount of the file being viewed in the pane.

Note the use of :reader, which defines a reader method for the interface which returns the editor pane. Similarly, you can also specify writers or accessors. If you omit accessor methods, it is still possible to access panes and other elements in an interface instance using with-slots.

The interface also needs a layout for the editor pane in the layouts section. The old layouts description read:

The new one reads:

This creates another row-layout for the new pane and then encapsulates the two row layouts into a third column-layout called main-layout. This is used as the default layout, specified by setting the :layout initarg to main-layout in the :default-initargs section. If there is no default layout specified, define-interface uses the first one listed.

By putting the layout of buttons and the layout with the editor pane in a column layout, their relative position has been controlled: the buttons appear in a row above the editor pane.

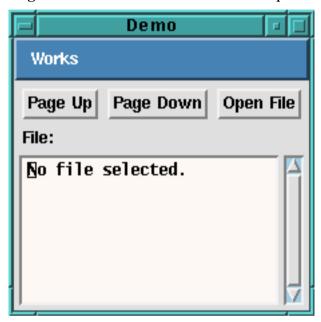
The code for the new interface is now as follows:

```
(define-interface demo ()
 ()
 (:panes
  (page-up push-button
           :text "Page Up")
  (page-down push-button
             :text "Page Down")
 (open-file push-button
             :text "Open File")
  (viewer editor-pane
          :title "File:"
          :text "No file selected."
          :visible-min-height '(:character 8)
          :reader viewer-pane))
 (:layouts
   (main-layout column-layout
                '(row-of-buttons row-with-editor-pane))
  (row-of-buttons row-layout
                   '(page-up page-down open-file))
  (row-with-editor-pane row-layout
                         '(viewer)))
 (:default-initargs :title "Demo"))
```

Displaying an instance of the interface by entering the line of code below produces the window in Figure 9.2:

(display (make-instance 'demo))

Figure 9.2 A CAPI interface with editor pane



9.3.1 Adding menus

To add menus to your interface you must first specify the menus themselves, and then a menu bar of which they will be a part.

Let us add some menus that duplicate the proposed functionality for the buttons. We will add:

- A File menu with a Open option, to do the same thing as Open File
- A Page menu with Page Up and Page Down options, to do the same things as the buttons with those names

The extra code needed in the define-interface call is this:

9 Defining Interface Classes

Menu definitions give a slot name for the menu, followed by the title of the menu, a list of menu item descriptions, and then, optionally, a list of keyword arguments for the menu.

In this instance the menu item descriptions are just strings naming each item, but you may wish to supply initialization arguments for an item — in which case you would enclose the name and those arguments in a list.

The menu bar definition simply names all the menus that will be on the bar, in the order that they will appear. By default, of course, the environment may add menus of its own to an interface — for example the **Works** menu in the LispWorks IDE.

The code for the new interface is:

```
(define-interface demo ()
  ()
  (:panes
   (page-up push-button
            :text "Page Up")
   (page-down push-button
              :text "Page Down")
   (open-file push-button
              :text "Open File")
   (viewer editor-pane
           :title "File:"
           :text "No file selected."
           :visible-min-height '(:character 8)
           :reader viewer-pane))
  (:layouts
    (main-layout column-layout
                 '(row-of-buttons row-with-editor-pane))
    (row-of-buttons row-layout
                    '(page-up page-down open-file))
    (row-with-editor-pane row-layout
                          '(viewer)))
  (:menus
   (file-menu "File"
              ("Open"))
   (page-menu "Page"
              ("Page Up" "Page Down")))
  (:menu-bar file-menu page-menu)
  (:default-initargs :title "Demo"))
```

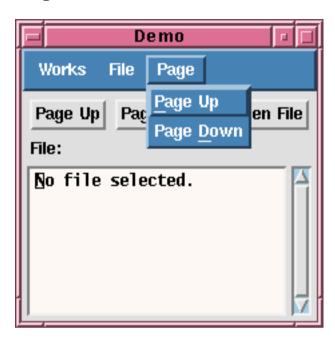


Figure 9.3 A CAPI interface with menu items

The menus contain the items specified — try it out to be sure.

9.4 Connecting an interface to an application

Having defined an interface in this way, you can connect it up to your program using callbacks, as described in earlier chapters. Here we define some functions to perform the operations we required for the buttons and menus, and then hook them up to the buttons and menus as callbacks.

The functions to perform the page scrolling operations are given below:

```
(defun scroll-up (data interface)
 (call-editor (viewer-pane interface)
              "Scroll Window Up"))
(defun scroll-down (data interface)
 (call-editor (viewer-pane interface)
              "Scroll Window Down"))
```

The functions use the generic function call-editor which calls an editor command (given as a string) on an instance of an editor-pane. The editor commands Scroll Window Up and Scroll Window Down perform the necessary operations for Page Up and Page Down respectively.

The function to perform the file-opening operation is given below:

```
(defun file-choice (data interface)
  (let ((file (prompt-for-file "Select A File:")))
    (when file
      (setf (titled-object-title (viewer-pane interface))
            (format nil "File: ~S" file))
      (setf (editor-pane-text (viewer-pane interface))
            (with-open-file (stream file)
              (let ((buffer
                     (make-array 1024
                                  :element-type
                                  (stream-element-type stream)
                                 :adiustable t
                                  :fill-pointer 0)))
                (do ((char (read-char stream nil nil)
                           (read-char stream nil nil)))
                    ((null char))
                  (vector-push-extend char buffer))
                (subseq buffer 0)))))))
```

This function prompts for a filename and then displays the file in the editor pane.

The function first produces a file prompter through which a file may be selected. Then, the selected file name is shown in the title of the editor pane (using titled-object-title). Finally, the file name is used to get the contents of the file and display them in the editor pane (using editor-pane-text).

The correct callback information for the buttons is specified as shown below:

All the buttons and menu items operate on the editor pane viewer. A reader is set up to allow access to it.

The correct callback information for the menus is specified as shown below:

In this case, each item in the menu has a different callback. The complete code for the interface is listed below — try it out.

```
(define-interface demo ()
  (:panes
      (page-up push-button
               :text "Page Up"
               :selection-callback 'scroll-up)
      (page-down push-button
                 :text "Page Down"
                 :selection-callback 'scroll-down)
      (open-file push-button
                 :text "Open File"
                 :selection-callback 'file-choice)
      (viewer editor-pane
              :title "File:"
              :text "No file selected."
              :visible-min-height '(:character 8)
              :reader viewer-pane))
   (:layouts
     (main-layout column-layout
                  '(row-of-buttons row-with-editor-pane))
     (row-of-buttons row-layout
                     '(page-up page-down open-file))
     (row-with-editor-pane row-layout
                            '(viewer)))
   (:menus
     (file-menu "File"
                (("Open"))
                :selection-callback 'file-choice)
     (page-menu "Page"
                (("Page Up"
                  :selection-callback 'scroll-up)
                 ("Page Down"
                  :selection-callback 'scroll-down))))
   (:menu-bar file-menu page-menu)
   (:default-initargs :title "Demo"))
```

9.5 Controlling the interface title

You can add dynamic control of window titles using the functions illustrated in the section.

Firstly we add a counter to the title of new demo windows:

10

Prompting for Input

A dialog is a window that receives some input from the user and returns it to the application. For instance, if the application wants to know where to save a file, it could prompt the user with a file dialog. Dialogs can also be cancelled, meaning that the application should cancel the current operation.

In order to let you know whether or not the dialog was cancelled, CAPI dialog functions always return two values. The first value is the return value itself, and the second value is the dialog returned normally and mil if the dialog was cancelled.

On Cocoa you can control whether a CAPI dialog is application-modal or window-modal. In the latter case the user can work with the application's other windows while the dialog is on screen.

The CAPI provides both a large set of predefined dialogs and the means to create your own. This chapter takes you through some example uses of the predefined dialogs, and then shows you how to create custom built dialogs.

The last section briefly describes a way to get input for completions via a special non-modal window.

10.1 Some simple dialogs

The simplest form of dialog is a message dialog. The function displaymessage behaves very much like format.

(display-message "Hello world")

Figure 10.1 A message dialog



```
(display-message
             "This function is ~S"
             'display-message)
```

Figure 10.2 A second message dialog



Another simple dialog asks the user a question and returns t or nil depending on whether the user has chosen yes or no. This function is confirm-yesor-no.

```
(confirm-yes-or-no
    "Do you own a pet?")
```

Figure 10.3 A message dialog prompting for confirmation



For more control over such a dialog, use the function prompt-for-confirmation. See the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual* for details.

10.2 Prompting for values

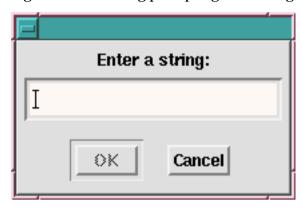
The CAPI provides a number of different dialogs for accepting values from the user, ranging from accepting strings to accepting whole Lisp forms to be evaluated.

10.2.1 Prompting for strings

The simplest of the CAPI prompting dialogs is prompt-for-string which returns the string you enter into the dialog.

```
(prompt-for-string
 "Enter a string:")
```

Figure 10.4 A dialog prompting for a string



An initial value can be placed in the dialog by specifying the keyword argument:initial-value.

10.2.2 Prompting for numbers

The CAPI also provides a number of more specific dialogs that allow you to enter other types of data. For example, to enter an integer, use the function prompt-for-integer. Only integers are accepted as valid input for this function.

```
(prompt-for-integer
"Enter an integer:")
```

There are a number of extra options which allow you to specify more strictly which integers are acceptable. Firstly, there are two arguments :min and :max which specify the minimum and maximum acceptable integers.

```
(prompt-for-integer
"Enter an integer:"
:min 10 :max 20)
```

If this does not provide enough flexibility you can specify a function that validates the result with the keyword argument :ok-check. This function is passed the current value and must return non-nil if it is a valid result.

```
(prompt-for-integer
"Enter an integer:"
:ok-check 'oddp)
```

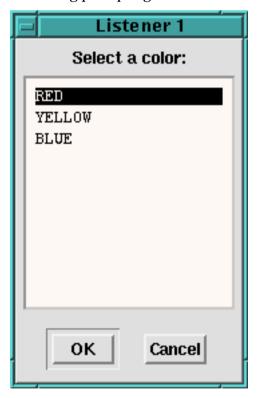
Try also the function prompt-for-number.

10.2.3 Prompting for an item in a list

If you would like the user to select an item from a list of items, the function prompt-with-list should handle the majority of cases. The simplest form just passes a list to the function and expects a single item to be returned.

```
(prompt-with-list
'(:red :yellow :blue)
"Select a color:")
```

Figure 10.5 A dialog prompting for a selection from a list



You can also specify the interaction style that you would like for your dialog, which can be any of the interactions accepted by a choice. The specification of the interaction style to this choice is made using the keyword argument :interaction:

```
(prompt-with-list
 '(:red :yellow :blue)
 "Select a color:"
 :interaction :multiple-selection)
```

By default, the dialog is created using a list-panel to display the items, but the keyword argument :choice-class can be specified with any choice pane. Thus, for instance, you can present a list of buttons.

```
(prompt-with-list
  '(:red :yellow :blue)
  "Select a color:"
  :interaction :multiple-selection
   :choice-class 'button-panel)
```

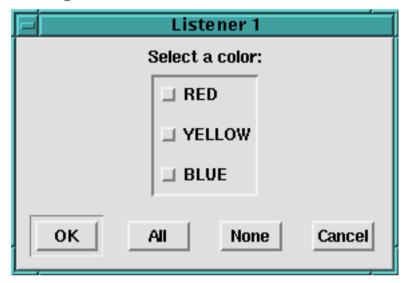
Figure 10.6 Selection from a button panel



Finally, as with any of the prompting functions, you can specify additional arguments to the pane that has been created in the dialog. Thus to create a column of buttons instead of the default row, use:

```
(prompt-with-list
  '(:red :yellow :blue)
  "Select a color:"
  :interaction :multiple-selection
  :choice-class 'button-panel
  :pane-args
  '(:layout-class column-layout))
```

Figure 10.7 Selection from a column of buttons



10.2.4 Prompting for files

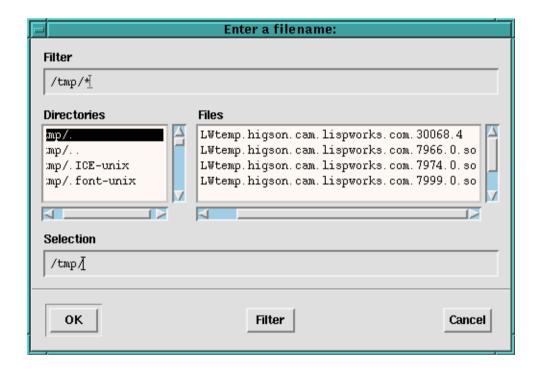
To prompt for a file, use the function prompt-for-file:

```
(prompt-for-file
  "Enter a file:")
```

You can also specify a starting pathname:

```
(prompt-for-file
  "Enter a filename:"
  :pathname "/tmp/")
```

Figure 10.8 Selection of a file



Try also the function prompt-for-directory.

10.2.5 Prompting for fonts

To obtain a gp:font object from the user call prompt-for-font.

10.2.6 Prompting for colors

To obtain a color specification from the user call prompt-for-color.

10.2.7 Prompting for Lisp objects

The CAPI provides a number of dialogs specifically designed for creating Lisp aware applications. The simplest is the function prompt-form which accepts an arbitrary Lisp form and optionally evaluates it.

```
(prompt-for-form
  "Enter a form to evaluate:"
  :evaluate t)
(prompt-for-form
  "Enter a form to evaluate:"
  :evaluate nil)
```

Another useful function is prompt-for-symbol which prompts the user for an existing symbol. The simplest usage accepts any symbol, as follows:

```
(prompt-for-symbol
  "Enter a symbol:")
```

If you have a list of symbols from which to choose, then you can pass promptfor-symbol this list with the keyword argument :symbols.

Finally, using :ok-check you can accept only certain symbols. For example, to only accept a symbol which names a class, use:

Cocoa programmers will notice that the dialog sheet displayed by this form, like all those in this chapter so far, prevents input to other LispWorks windows while it is displayed. For information about creating dialog sheets which are not application-modal, see "Window-modal Cocoa dialogs" on page 97.

10.3 Window-modal Cocoa dialogs

By default, CAPI dialogs on Cocoa use sheets which are application-modal. This means that the application waits until the sheet is dismissed and does not allow the user to work with its other windows until then.

This section describes how to create CAPI dialogs which are window-modal on Cocoa. This is done with portable code, so Windows and Motif programmers may wish to code their CAPI dialogs as described in this section, which would ease a future port to the Cocoa GUI.

10.3.1 The :continuation argument

All CAPI dialog functions take a keyword argument continuation. This is a function which is called with the results of the dialog.

You do not need to construct the continuation argument yourself, but rather call the dialog function inside with-dialog-results.

10.3.2 A dialog which is window-modal on Cocoa

To create a dialog which is window-modal on Cocoa, call the dialog function inside the macro with-dialog-results as in this example:

```
(with-dialog-results (symbol okp)
   (prompt-for-symbol
    "Enter a class-name symbol:"
     :ok-check #'(lambda (symbol)
                   (find-class symbol nil)))
  (when okp
   (capi:display-message "symbol is ~S" symbol)))
```

On Microsoft Windows and Motif, this displays the dialog, calls display-message when the user clicks **OK**, and then returns. The effect is no different to what you saw in "Prompting for Lisp objects" on page 97.

On Cocoa, this creates a sheet and returns. display-message is called when the user clicks **OK**. The sheet is window-modal, unlike the sheet you saw in "Prompting for Lisp objects" on page 97.

For more details, see the page for with-dialog-results in the LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual.

10.4 Dialog Owners

When a dialog appears, it should be "owned" by some window. The main effect of this "ownership" is that the dialog is always in front of the owner window. When either the dialog or the owner is raised, the other follows.

All CAPI functions which display a dialog allow you to specify the owner.

10.4.1 The default owner

When a dialog is displayed and the owner is not supplied or is given as mil, the CAPI tries to identify the appropriate owner. In particular, in the case where a dialog pops up in a process in which a CAPI interface is displayed, by default the CAPI uses this interface as the owner window. This case covers most situations.

10.4.2 Specifying the owner

If the default is not appropriate, then the programmer needs to supply the owner. This *owner* argument can be any CAPI pane that is currently displayed, and the top level interface of the pane is used as the actual owner. A CAPI pane owner must be running in the current process (see the *process* argument to display). Creating cross-process ownership can lead to deadlocks.

The *owner* can also be a screen object, which tells the system on which screen to put the dialog, but none of the windows will be the dialog's owner.

The *owner* can be supplied by the keyword argument :owner in functions such as display-dialog and print-dialog. Other functions such as prompt-for-string and prompt-for-file can be supplied an owner in the :popup-args list as a pair :owner *owner*.

10.5 Creating your own dialogs

The CAPI provides a number of built-in dialogs which should cover the majority of most peoples needs. However, there is always the occasional need to create custom built dialogs, and the CAPI makes this very simple, using the function <code>display-dialog</code> which displays any CAPI interface as a dialog, and the functions <code>exit-dialog</code> and <code>abort-dialog</code> as the means to return from such a dialog.

10.5.1 Using display-dialog

Here is a very simple example that displays a **Cancel** button in a dialog, and when that button is pressed the dialog is cancelled. Note that display-dialog

must receive an interface, so an interface is created for the button by using the function make-container.

```
(display-dialog
 (make-container
  (make-instance
    'push-button
    :text "Press this button to cancel"
    :callback 'abort-dialog)
   :title "My Dialog"))
```

Figure 10.9 A cancel button



The function abort-dialog cancels the dialog returning the values mil and nil, which represent a return result of nil and the fact that the dialog was cancelled, respectively. Note also that abort-dialog accepts any values and just ignores them.

The next problem is to create a dialog that can return a result. Use the function exit-dialog which returns the value passed to it from the dialog. The example below shows a simple string prompter.

```
(display-dialog
  (make-container
   (make-instance
    'text-input-pane
    :callback-type :data
    :callback 'exit-dialog)
   :title "Enter a string:"))
```

Both of these examples are very simple, so here is a slightly more complicated one which creates a column containing both a text-input-pane and a Cancel button.

Note that this looks very similar to the dialog created by prompt-for-string except for the fact that it does not provide the standard **OK** button.

It would be simple to add an **OK** button in the code above, but since almost every dialog needs these standard buttons, the CAPI provides a higher level function called <code>popup-confirmer</code> that adds the standard buttons for you. Also it arranges for the **OK** and **Cancel** buttons to respond to the <code>Return</code> and <code>Escape</code> keys respectively. <code>popup-confirmer</code> is discussed in the next section.

10.5.2 Using popup-confirmer

The function popup-confirmer is a higher level function provided to add the standard buttons to user dialogs, and it is nearly always used in preference to display-dialog. In order to create a dialog using popup-confirmer, all you need to do is to supply a pane to be placed inside the dialog along with the buttons and the title. The function also expects a title, like all of the prompter functions described earlier.

```
(popup-confirmer
  (make-instance
  'text-input-pane
  :callback-type :data
  :callback 'exit-dialog)
  "Enter a string")
```

A common thing to want to do with a dialog is to get the return value from some state in the pane specified. For instance, in order to create a dialog that prompts for an integer the string entered into the text-input-pane would need to be converted into an integer. It is possible to do this once the dialog has returned, but popup-confirmer has a more convenient mechanism. The func-

tion provides a keyword argument, :value-function, which gets passed the pane, and this function should return the value to return from the dialog. It can also indicate that the dialog cannot return by returning a second value which is non-nil.

In order to do this conversion, popup-confirmer provides an alternative exit function to the usual exit-dialog. This is called exit-confirmer, and it does all of the necessary work on exiting.

You now have enough information to write a primitive version of promptfor-integer.

```
(defun text-input-pane-integer (pane)
 (let* ((text
         (text-input-pane-text pane))
        (integer
         (parse-integer
          text
          :junk-allowed t)))
   (or (and (integerp integer) integer)
       (values nil t))))
(popup-confirmer
  (make-instance
   'text-input-pane
   :callback 'exit-confirmer)
  "Enter an integer:"
  :value-function 'text-input-pane-integer)
```

Figure 10.10 A example using popup-confirmer



Note that the dialog's **OK** button never becomes activated, yet pressing Return once you have entered a valid integer *will* return the correct value. This is because the **OK** button is not being dynamically updated on each keystroke in the text-input-pane so that it activates when the text-input-pane contains a valid integer. The activation of the **OK** button is recalculated by the function redisplay-interface, and the CAPI provides a standard callback, :redisplay-interface, which calls this as appropriate.

Thus, to have an **OK** button that becomes activated and deactivated dynamically, you need to specify the change-callback for the text-input-pane to be :redisplay-interface.

```
(popup-confirmer
  (make-instance
   'text-input-pane
   :change-callback :redisplay-interface
   :callback 'exit-confirmer)
"Enter an integer:"
:value-function 'text-input-pane-integer)
```

Note that the **OK** button now changes dynamically so that it is only ever active when the text in the text-input-pane is a valid integer.

Note that the Escape key activates the Cancel button - this too was set up by popup-confirmer.

The next thing that you might want to do with your integer prompter is to make it accept only certain values. For instance, you may only want to accept negative numbers. This can be specified to popup-confirmer by providing a validation function with the keyword argument :ok-check. This function receives the potential return value (the value returned by the value function) and it must return non-nil if that value is valid. Thus to accept only negative numbers we could pass minusp as the :ok-check.

```
(popup-confirmer
(make-instance
  'text-input-pane
  :change-callback :redisplay-interface
  :callback 'exit-confirmer)
"Enter an integer:"
  :value-function 'text-input-pane-integer
  :ok-check 'minusp)
```

10.6 Non-focus completion

'Non-focus completion' allows the user to select from a list of possible completions displayed in a special non-modal window which does not grab the input focus. The user can continue typing her input to reduce the number of possible completions, or use certain gestures including up, Down and Return which operate on the special window.

10.6.1 In-place completion

The LispWorks IDE uses this functionality to display the special window near the cursor position, which is called in-place completion.

Set the Global Preferences... > Use in-place completion option to use in-place completion.

10.6.2 Programmatic control of non-focus completion

You can add this functionality to your application as described in this section.

10.6.2.1 Text input panes

A text-input-pane is made to do non-focus completion by passing either of these keyword arguments:

:file-completion with value t or a pathname designator, or

:non-focus-completion-function with value a suitable function designator

You can add a filter to the non-focus window by passing the keyword argument :non-focus-filter. Additionally you can control the functionality for file completion by passing :directories-only and :ignore-file-suffices. The keyword arguments:complete-do-action and:gesture-callbacks also interact with non-focus completion.

The non-focus completion can be invoked explicitly for a text-input-pane by calling text-input-pane-non-focus-complete.

See the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual* for details.

10.6.2.2 Editor panes

An editor-pane is made to do non-focus completion when your code calls the function editor:complete-with-non-focus.

10.6.2.3 Other CAPI panes

You can also implement non-focus completion on arbitrary CAPI panes by calling prompt-with-list-non-focus.

11

Creating Your Own Panes

The CAPI provides a wide range of built-in panes, but it is still fairly common to need to create panes of your own. In order to do this, you need to specify both the input behavior of the pane (how it reacts to keyboard and mouse events) and its output behavior (how it displays itself). The class output-pane is provided for this purpose.

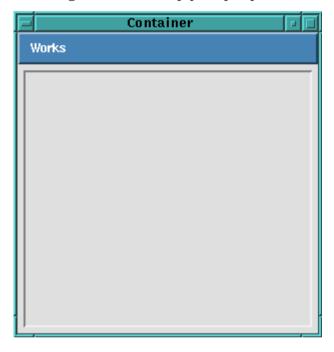
An output-pane is a fully functional graphics port. This allows it to use all of the graphics ports functionality to create graphics, and it also has a powerful input model which allows it to receive mouse and keyboard input.

11.1 Displaying graphics

The following is a simple example demonstrating how to create an outputpane and then how to draw a circle on it.

```
(setq output-pane
    (contain
         (make-instance 'output-pane)
         :best-width 300
         :best-height 300))
```

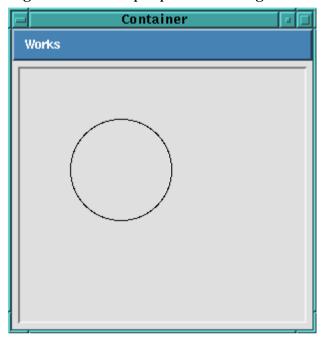
Figure 11.1 An empty output pane



Now you can draw a circle in the empty output pane by using the graphics ports function draw-circle. Note that the drawing function must be called in the process of the interface containing the output pane:

```
(capi:apply-in-pane-process
  output-pane 'gp:draw-circle output-pane 100 100 50)
```

Figure 11.2 An output pane containing a circle



Notice that this circle is not permanently drawn on the output-pane, and when the window is next redisplayed it vanishes. To prove this to yourself, force the window to be redisplayed (for example by iconifying or resizing it). At this point, you can draw the circle again yourself but it will not happen automatically.

```
(capi:apply-in-pane-process
  output-pane 'gp:draw-circle output-pane 100 100 50)
```

In order to create a permanent display, you need to provide a function to the output-pane that is called to redraw sections of the output-pane when they are exposed. This function is called the *display-callback*, and it is automatically called in the correct process. When the CAPI needs to redisplay a region of an output-pane, it calls that output pane's *display-callback* function, passing it the output-pane and the region in question.

For example, to create a pane that has a permanent circle drawn inside it, do the following:

Notice that the callback in this example ignores the region that needs redrawing and just redraws everything. This is possible because the CAPI clips the drawing to the region that needs redisplaying, and hence only the needed part of the drawing gets done. For maximum efficiency, it would be better to only draw the minimum area necessary.

The arguments :best-width and :best-height specify the initial width and height of the interface. More detail can be found in the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual*.

Now that we can create output panes with our own display functions, we can create a new class of window by using defclass as follows.

```
(defclass circle-pane (output-pane)
  ()
  (:default-initargs
    :display-callback 'draw-a-circle))
(contain
  (make-instance 'circle-pane))
```

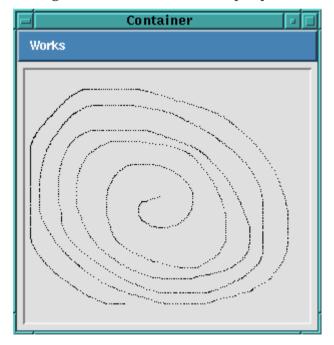
11.2 Receiving input from the user

You now know enough to be able to create new classes of window which can display arbitrary graphics, but to be able to create interactive windows you need to be able to receive events. The CAPI supports this through the use of an input model, which is a mapping of events to the callbacks that should be run when they occur.

When the event callback is called, it gets passed the output-pane and the *x* and *y* integer coordinates of the mouse pointer at the time of the event. A few events also pass additional information as necessary; for example, keyboard events also pass the key that was pressed.

For example, we can create a very simple drawing pane by adding a callback to draw a point whenever the left button is dragged across the pane. This is done as follows:

Figure 11.3 An interactive output pane



The input model above seems quite complicated, but it is just a list of event to callback mappings, where each one of these mappings is a list containing an event specification and a callback. An event specification is also a list containing keywords specifying the type of event required. See the manual page for

output-pane in the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual* for the full *input-model* syntax..

11.3 Creating graphical objects

A common feature needed by an application is to have a number of objects displayed in a window and to make events affect the object underneath the cursor. The CAPI provides the ability to create graphical objects, to place them into a window at a specified size and position, and to display them as necessary. Also a function is provided to determine which object is under any given point so that events can be dispatched correctly.

These graphical objects are called *pinboard objects*, as they can only be displayed if they are contained within a pinboard-layout. To define a pinboard-object, you define a subclass of drawn-pinboard-object and specify a drawing routine for it (and you can also specify constraints on the size of your object). You can then make instances of these objects and place them into layouts just as if they were ordinary panes. You can also place these objects inside layouts as long as there is a pinboard-layout higher up the layout hierarchy that contains the panes.

Note: pinboard-objects are implement as graphics on a native window. Compare this with simple-pane and its subclasses, where each instance is itself a native window. A consequence of this is that simple-panes do not work well within a pinboard-layout, since they always appear above the pinboard-objects. For example, to put labels on a pinboard, use item-pinboard-object rather than display-pane or title-pane.

Here is an example of the built-in pinboard object class item-pinboard-object which displays its text like a title-pane. Note that the function contain always creates a pinboard-layout as part of the wrapper for the object to be contained, and so it is possible to test the display of pinboard-objects in just the same way as you can test other classes of CAPI object.

```
(contain
  ;; CONTAIN makes a pinboard-layout if needed, so we don't
  ;; need one explicitly in this example.
  ;; You will need an explicit pinboard-layout if you define
  ;; your own interface class.
  (make-instance
  'item-pinboard-object
  :text "Hello world"))
```

Figure 11.4 A pinboard object



There is another example illustrating item-pinboard-object in the file

examples/capi/graphics/pinboard-object-text-pane.lisp

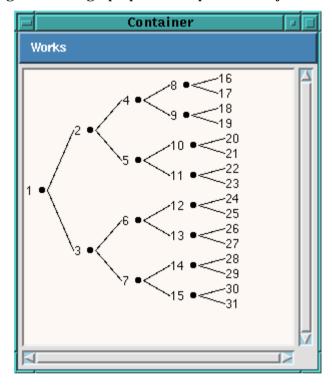
11.3.1 The implementation of graph panes

One of the major uses the CAPI itself makes of pinboard-objects is to implement graph panes. The graph-pane itself is a pinboard-layout and it is built using pinboard-objects for the nodes and edges. This is because each node (and sometimes each edge) of the graph needs to react individually to the user. For instance, when an event is received by the graph-pane, it is told which pinboard object was under the pointer at the time, and it can then use this information to change the selection.

Create the following graph-pane and notice that every node in the graph is made from an item-pinboard-object as described in the previous section and that each edge is made from a line-pinboard-object.

```
(contain
  (make-instance
   'graph-pane
   :roots '(1)
   :children-function 'node-children)
:best-width 300 :best-height 400)
```

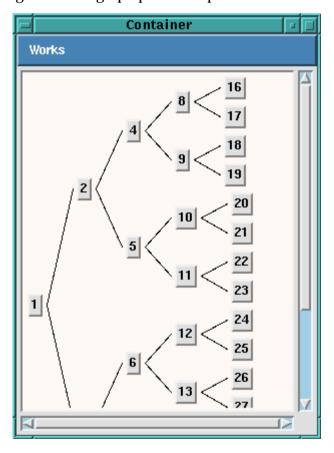
Figure 11.5 A graph pane with pinboard object nodes



As mentioned before, pinboard-layouts can just as easily display ordinary panes inside themselves, and so the graph-pane provides the ability to specify the class used to represent the nodes. As an example, here is a graph-pane with the nodes made from push-buttons.

```
(contain
  (make-instance
    'graph-pane
    :roots '(1)
    :children-function 'node-children
    :node-pinboard-class 'push-button)
:best-width 300 :best-height 400)
```

Figure 11.6 A graph pane with push-button nodes

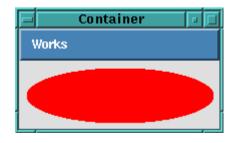


11.3.2 An example pinboard object

To create your own pinboard objects, the class drawn-pinboard-object is provided, which is a pinboard-object that accepts a display-callback to display itself. The following example creates a new subclass of drawn-pinboard-object that displays an ellipse.

```
(defun draw-ellipse-pane (gp pane
                             width height)
  (with-geometry pane
    (let ((x-radius
           (1- (floor %width% 2)))
          (y-radius
           (1- (floor %height% 2))))
      (gp:draw-ellipse
       gp
       (1+ (+ %x% x-radius))
       (1+ (+ %y% y-radius))
       x-radius y-radius
       :filled t
       :foreground
       (if (> x-radius y-radius)
           :red
         :yellow)))))
(defclass ellipse-pane
     (drawn-pinboard-object)
  ()
  (:default-initargs
   :display-callback 'draw-ellipse-pane
   :visible-min-width 50
   :visible-min-height 50))
(contain
 (make-instance 'ellipse-pane)
 :best-width 200
 :best-height 100)
```

Figure 11.7 An ellipse-pane class

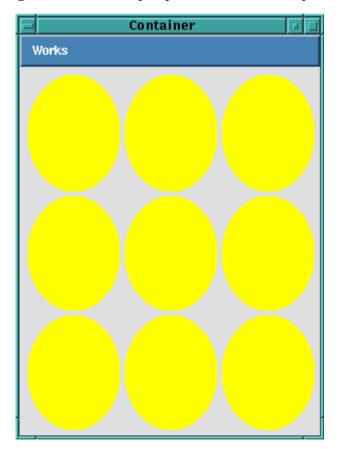


The with-geometry macro is used to set the size and position, or geometry, of the ellipse drawn by the draw-ellipse-pane function. The fill color depends

on the radii of the ellipse - try resizing the window to see this. See the *Lisp-Works CAPI Reference Manual* for more details of drawn-pinboard-object.

Now that you have a new ellipse-pane class, you can create instances of them and place them inside layouts. For instance, the example below creates nine ellipse panes and place them in a three by three grid.

Figure 11.8 Nine ellipse-pane instances in a layout



12

Graphics Ports

12.1 Introduction

Graphics Ports allow users to write source-compatible applications for different host window systems. Graphics Ports are the destinations for drawing primitives. They are implemented with a generic host-independent part and a small host-specific part.

Graphics Ports implement a set of drawing functions and a mechanism for specifying the graphics state to be used in each drawing function call. There are four categories of graphics ports: on-screen, pixmap, printer, and metafile.

On-screen ports correspond to visible windows. Pixmap ports can be used for double-buffering graphics whereby you draw to the off-screen pixmap port and then copy the contents to the screen with pixblt. Printer ports are used for drawing to a printer. Metafile ports are used for recording drawing operations so that they can be realized later.

The off-screen ports (pixmap, printer and metafile) are usually created transiently by a modification of an on-screen port using with-pixmap-graphics-port, with-print-job or with-external-metafile respectively. The onscreen port is modified so that drawing is redirected as appropriate.

See the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual* for full reference entries on all the Graphics Ports functions, macros, classes and types.

12.1.1 The package

All graphics port symbols are interned in and exported from the graphicsports package, nicknamed gp.

12.1.2 The system

The graphics ports system is available in the default LispWorks image. All symbols in the gp package are available to you as soon as you start LispWorks.

12.1.3 Creating instances

Pixmap graphics ports are usually required only temporarily and the macro with-pixmap-graphics-port allocates one for you from a cache of such objects.

12.2 Features

The main features of graphics-ports are:

- 1. Each port has a "graphics state" which holds all the information about drawing parameters such as line thickness, fill pattern, line-end-style and so on. A graphics state object can also be created independently of any particular graphics port.
- 2. The graphics state contents can either be enumerated in each drawing function call, bound to values for the entirety of a set of calls, or permanently changed.
- 3. The graphics state includes a transform which implements generalized coordinate transformations on the port's coordinates.
- **4.** Off-screen ports can compute the horizontal and vertical bounds of the results of a set of drawing function calls, thus facilitating image or pixmap generation.

12.3 Graphics state

The graphics-state object associated with each port holds values for parameters as shown below.

Note: the graphics state parameters *stipple*, *pattern*, *fill-style*, *mask-x* and *mask-y* are supported only on X11/Motif.

Table 12.1 Parameters held in a graphics-state object

| Parameter Name | Default Value | Allowed Values |
|------------------|-------------------------|---|
| transform | the unit trans- form | Anything returned by the transform functions. (See below) |
| foreground | :black | A color spec, pixel, or symbol |
| background | :white | A color spec, pixel, or symbol |
| operation | boole-1 | Boole constants (Chapter 12 of the ANSI standard) |
| stipple | nil | A bitmap or nil |
| pattern | nil | A pixmap of same depth as port, or nil |
| fill-style | :solid | <pre>:solid, :opaque-stippled, :stippled Or :tiled</pre> |
| thickness | 1 | number |
| scale-thickness | t | nil Or t |
| dashed | nil | nil or t |
| dash | '(4 4) | A list of two or more integers |
| line-end-style | :butt | :butt, :round Or :projecting |
| line-joint-style | :miter | :bevel, :miter Or :round |
| mask | nil | nil or a list of the form (x y width height) |
| mask-x | 0 | integer |
| mask-y | 0 | integer |
| font | nil | nil or a valid font |

transform

An object which determines the coordinate transformation applying to the graphics port. The default value leaves the port coordinates unchanged from those used by the host window system — origin at top left, X increasing to the right and Y increasing down the screen. Section 12.4 on page 124 describes these objects.

foreground

Determines the foreground color used in drawing functions. A color can be a pixel value, a color name symbol, a color name string or a color object. Using pixel values results in better performance.

background

Determines the background color used in drawing functions which use a stipple. Valid values are the same as for *foreground*.

operation

Determines the color combination used in the drawing primitives. Valid values are 0 to 15, being the same logical values as the op arg to the Common Lisp function boole. Section 12.5 on page 126 shows how to use operation.

Note: Graphics State *operation* is not supported by Cocoa/Core Graphics so this slot or argument is ignored on Cocoa.

stipple

A 1-bit pixmap ("bitmap") or nil. The bitmap is used in conjunction with the fill-style when drawing. Here, nil means that all pixels are drawn in the foreground color. A stipple is not transformed by the transform parameter. Its origin is assumed to coincide with the port's. The stipple is tiled across the drawing. stipple is ignored if a pattern is given. If no fill-style is given, or it is specified as :solid, when a Stipple is given, then fill-style defaults to :opaque-stippled.

fill-style

One of :solid :opaque-stippled or :stippled. Its value determines how the drawing is done. The default value :solid means that the foreground is used everywhere. : opaque-stippled means that the stipple bitmap is used with stipple 1s giving the foreground and

Os the background. :stippled means that the stipple bitmap is used with foreground where there are 1s and where the are 0s, no drawing is done. If you specify a stipple but no fill-style, or a fill-style of :solid, it defaults to :opaque-stipple.

pattern

A pixmap the same depth as the port. It is used as the source of color for drawing instead of the foreground and background parameters. A pattern is not transformed by the transform parameter. The pattern is tiled across the drawing. When pattern is specified, the stipple value is ignored.

thickness

The thickness of lines drawn. If scale-thickness is non-nil, the value is in port (transformed) coordinates, otherwise it is in pixels.

scale-thickness

If non-nil means interpret the thickness parameter in transformed port coordinates, otherwise interpret it in pixels.

dashed

If non-nil draws a dashed line using *dash* as the mark-space specifier.

dash

If non-mil should be a list of integers specifying the alternate mark and space sizes for dashed lines. The mark and space values are interpreted in pixels only.

line-end-style

One of :butt :round or :projecting and specifies how to draw the ends of lines.

line-joint-style

One of :bevel :miter :round and specifies how to draw the areas where the edges of polygons meet.

mask

Either nil or a list of the form (xy width height), defining a rectangle inside which the drawing is done. The mask is not tiled. A mask is not transformed by the transform parameter.

mask-x

An integer specifying where in the port the X coordinate of the mask origin is to be considered to be. The value is in window coordinates.

mask-y An integer specifying where in the port the Y coordi-

nate of the mask origin is to be considered to be. The

value is in window coordinates.

font Either mil or a valid font name or font object to be used

by the draw-character and draw-string functions. A valid font is a portable font description. See Section 12.7

on page 127.

12.3.1 Setting the graphics state

The graphics state values associated with a drawing function call to a graphics port are set by one of three mechanisms.

1. Enumeration in the drawing function call. For example:

```
(draw-line port 1 1 100 100
:thickness 10
:scale-thickness nil
:foreground :red)
```

2. Bound using the with-graphics-state macro. For example:

3. Set by the set-graphics-state function. For example:

The first two mechanisms change the graphics state temporarily. The last one changes it permanently, effectively altering the "default" state.

12.4 Graphics state transforms

Coordinate systems for windows generally have the origin (0,0) positioned at the upper left corner of the window with X positive to the right and Y positive downwards. This is the "window coordinates" system. Generalized coordinates are implemented using scaling, rotation and translation

operations such that any Cartesian coordinates can be used within a window. The Graphics Ports system uses a transform object to achieve this.

12.4.1 Generalized points

An (x, y) coordinate pair can be transformed to another coordinate system by scaling, rotation and translation. The first two can be implemented using 2 x 2 matrices to hold the coefficients:

If the point P is (a, b) and it is transformed to the point Q(a', b')

$$P \Rightarrow Q \text{ or } (a, b) ? (a', b')$$

 $a' = pa + rb, b' = qa + sb.$

$$Q = PM$$
, where $M = \begin{bmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{bmatrix}$

Translation can be included in this if the points *P* and *Q* are regarded as 3-vectors instead of 2-vectors, with the 3rd element being unity:

$$Q = PM$$

$$= (a \ b \ 1) \qquad \begin{vmatrix} p \ q \ 0 \\ r \ s \ 0 \\ u \ v \ 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

The coefficients *u* and *v* specify the translation.

So, the six elements (p, q, r, s, u, and v) of the 3 x 3 matrix contain all the transformation information. These elements are stored in a list in the graphics state slot transform.

Transforms can be combined by matrix multiplication to effect successions of translation, scaling and rotation operations.

Functions are provided in Graphics Ports which apply translation, scaling and rotation to a transform, combine transforms by pre- or post-multiplication, invert a transform, and so on.

12.4.2 Drawing functions

The scan-line conversions of the drawing functions are very much host-dependent. In other words, you cannot assume that, for example (draw-point port \mathbf{x} \mathbf{y}) has exactly the same effect on all machines. Some machines might put pixels down and to the right of integer coordinates (x y) while others may center the pixel at (x y).

X11/Motif note: The *stipple, pattern, mask-x,* and *mask-y* slots of the graphics state are also used.

See also the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual* entries for draw-circle (which draws a circle) and draw-ellipse (which draws an ellipse) and other drawing functions.

12.5 Graphics state operation

The value in the operation slot of the graphics state determines how the foreground color is combined with the existing color for each pixel that is drawn.

The allowed values of *operation* are the values of the Common Lisp constants boole-1, boole-and and so on. These are the allowed values of the first argument to the Common Lisp function boole. See the specification of boole in the ANSI Common Lisp standard for the full list of operations.

The color combination corresponds to the logical operation defined there, as if by calling

(boole operation new-pixel screen-pixel)

For example, passing :operation boole-andc2 provides a graphics state where graphics ports drawing functions draw with the bitwise AND of the foreground color and the complement of the existing color of each pixel.

Note: Graphics State *operation* is not supported by Cocoa/Core Graphics so this slot is ignored on Cocoa.

12.6 Pixmap graphics ports

Pixmap graphics ports are drawing destinations which exist only as pixel arrays whose contents are not directly accessible. They can be drawn to using the draw-thing functions, and their contents can be copied onto other graphics ports. However this copying can be meaningless unless the conversion of colors uses the same color device on both ports. Because color devices are associated with regular graphics ports (Windows) rather than pixmap graphics ports, you have to connect a pixmap graphics port to a regular graphics port for color conversion. This is the purpose of the <code>owner</code> slot in <code>pixmap-graphics-port-mixin</code>. The conversion of colors to pixel values is done in the same way as for regular graphics ports, but the pixmap graphics port's owner is used to find a color device. You can draw to pixmap graphics ports using pre-converted colors to avoid color conversion altogether, in which case a null color owner is OK for a pixmap graphics port.

12.6.1 Relative drawing in pixmap graphics ports

Many of the drawing functions have a *relative* argument. If non-nil, it specifies that when drawing functions draw to the pixmap, the extremes of the pixel coordinates reached are accumulated. If the drawing strays beyond any edge of the pixmap port (into negative coordinates or beyond its width or height), then the drawing origin is shifted so that it all fits on the port. If the drawing extremes exceed the total size available, some are inevitably lost. If *relative* is nil, any part of the drawing which extends beyond the edges of the pixmap is lost. If *relative* is nil and *collect* non-nil, the drawing bounds are collected for later reading, but no relative shifting of the drawing is performed. The collected bounds are useful when you need to know the graphics motion a series of drawing calls causes. The *rest* args are host-dependent. They usually include a :width and :height pair.

12.7 Portable font descriptions

Portable font descriptions are designed to solve the following problems:

- Specify enough information to uniquely determine a real font.
- Query which real fonts match a partial specification.

• Allow font specification to be recorded and reused in a later run.

All the functions described below are exported from the gp package.

You can obtain the names of all the fonts which are available for a given pane by calling list-all-font-names, which returns a list of partially-specified font descriptions.

Portable font descriptions are used only for lookup of real fonts and for storing the parameters to specify when doing a font lookup operation. To draw text in a specified font using the Graphics Ports drawing functions, supply in the graphics state a font object as returned by find-matching-fonts and find-best-font.

12.7.1 Font attributes and font descriptions

Font attributes are properties of a font, which can be combined to uniquely specify a font on a given platform. There are some portable attributes which can be used on all platforms; other attributes are platform specific and will be ignored or signal errors when used on the wrong platform.

Font descriptions are externalizable objects which contain a set of font attributes. When using a font description in a font lookup operation, missing attributes are treated as wildcards (as are those with value :wild) and invalid attributes signal errors. The result of a font lookup contains all the attributes needed to uniquely specify a font on that platform.

The :stock font attribute is special: it can be used to reliably look up a system font on all platforms.

Font descriptions can be manipulated using the functions merge-font-descriptions and augment-font-description.

These are the current set of portable font attributes and their portable types:

Table 12.2 Set of portable font attributes

| Attribute | Possible values | Comments |
|-----------|-----------------|--------------------------|
| :family | string | Values are not portable. |

| Attribute | Possible values | Comments |
|-----------|--|--------------------------------------|
| :weight | (member :normal :bold) | |
| :slant | (member :roman :italic) | |
| :size | (or (eql :any) (integer 0 *)) | :any means a scalable font |
| :stock | <pre>(member :system-font :system- fixed-font)</pre> | Stock fonts are guaranteed to exist. |
| :charset | keyword | |

Table 12.2 Set of portable font attributes

12.7.2 Fonts

Fonts are the objects which are actually used in drawing operations. They are made by a font lookup operation on a pane, using a font description as a pattern.

Examples of font lookup operations are find-best-font and find-matching-fonts.

12.8 Working with images

Graphics Ports supports drawing a wide range of image types via your code. Also, several CAPI classes support the same image types.

To draw an image with Graphics Ports, you need an image object which is associated with an instance of capi:output-pane (or a subclass of this). You can create a image object from:

- A file of recognized image type
- A registered image identifier (see "Registering images")
- An external-image object
- An on-screen port

Draw the image to the pane by calling draw-image. Certain images ("Plain Images") can be manipulated via the Image Access API. The image should be freed by calling free-image when you are done with it.

capi:image-pinboard-object, capi:button, capi:list-view, capi:tree-view and capi:toolbar all support images. These classes handle the drawing and freeing for you.

12.8.1 Supported image types

Graphics Ports supports Bitmaps and compressed bitmaps (BMP and DIB files). It uses Operating System-specific libraries to support a range of other image types as follows:

OS Library Supported Image Types

Microsoft Windows GIF, JPEG, PNG, TIFF, EMF

Mac OS X Cocoa GIF, JPEG, TIFF, PICT and many others.

Also EPS, PDF

X/Motif imlib GIF, JPEG, PNG, TIFF, XPM, PGM, PPM

Table 12.3

Functions which load images from a file attempt to identify the image type from the file type. Files of type bmp and dib are loaded by LispWorks code, files of other types are loaded by the Operating System-specific library.

Note: LispWorks 4.3 and previous versions supported only Bitmap images.

Note: On X/Motif LispWorks uses the freeware imlib library which seems to be in all Linux distributions. However it is not in some UNIX systems, so you may need to install it.

Note: On Microsoft Windows LispWorks additionally supports Windows Icon files - see load-icon-image below.

12.8.2 External images

An External Image is an intermediate object. It is a representation of a graphic but is not associated with a port and cannot be used directly for drawing.

An object of type external-image is created by reading an image from a file, or by externalizing an image object, or by copying an existing external-image. Or, if you have the image bitmap data, you can create one directly as in the examples/capi/buttons/button.lisp example.

The external-image contains the bitmap data, potentially compressed. You can copy external-image objects, or write them to file, or compress the data.

You cannot query the size of the image in an external-image object directly. To get the dimensions without actually drawing it on screen see...

12.8.2.1 Transparency

An External Image representing an image with a color map can specify a transparent color. When converted and drawn, this color is drawn using the background color of the port.

You can specify the transparent color by

You can use an image tool such as the Gimp (www.gimp.org) to figure out the transparent color index.

Note: *transparent-color-index* works only for images with a color map - those with 256 colors or less.

12.8.2.2 Converting an external image

Convert an external-image to an object of type image ready for drawing to a port in several ways as described in "Loading images". Such conversions are

cached but you can remove the caches by clear-external-image-conversions.

You an also convert an image to an external-image by calling externalize-image.

12.8.3 Registering images

One way to load an image is via a registered image identifier.

To establish a registered image identifer call register-image-translation:

You can then do:

```
(gp:load-image port 'info-image)
```

to obtain the image object.

12.8.4 Loading images

To create an image object suitable for drawing on an given pane, use one of convert-external-image, read-and-convert-external-image, load-image, make-image-from-port, make-sub-image Or load-icon-image.

Images need to be freed after use. When the pane that an image was created for is destroyed, the image is freed automatically. However if you want to remove the image before the pane is destroyed, you must make an explicit call free-image. If the image is not freed, then a memory leak will occur.

Another way to create an image object is to supply a registered image identifier in a CAPI class that suports images. For example you can specify an *image* in a capi:image-pinboard-object. Then, an image object is created implicitly when the pinboard object is displayed and freed implicitly when the pinboard object is destroyed.

In all cases, the functions that create the image object require the pane to be already created. So if you are displaying the image when first displaying your window, take care to create the image object late enough, for example in the

:create-callback of the interface or in the first :display-callback of the pane.

12.8.5 Querying image dimensions

To obtain the pixel dimensions of an image, load the image using load-image and then use the readers image-width and image-height. The first argument to load-image must be a pane in a displayed interface.

To query the dimensions before displaying anything you can create and "display" an interface made with the :display-state :hidden initarg. Call load-image with this hidden interface and your external-image object, and then use the readers image-width and image-height.

12.8.6 Drawing images

The function to draw an image is draw-image.

This must be called in the same process as the pane. Use capi:apply-in-pane-process Or capi:execute-with-interface if necessary.

12.8.7 Image access

You can read and write pixel values in an image via an Image Access object, but only if the image is a Plain Image. You can ensure you have a Plain Image by using the result of

```
(load-image pane image :force-plain t)
```

To read and/or write pixel values, follow these steps:

- Start with a Graphics Port (for example a capi:output-pane) and an image object associated with it, which is a Plain Image. See above for how to create an image object.
- 2. Construct an Image Access object by calling make-image-access.
- 3. To read pixels from the image, first call image-access-transfer-from-image on the image access object. This notionally transfers all the pixel data from the window system into the access object. It might do nothing if the window system allows fast access to the pixel data directly. Then

- call image-access-pixel with the coordinates of each pixel. The pixel values are like those returned from color:convert-color and can be converted to RGB using color:unconvert-color if required.
- 4. To write pixels to the image, you must have already called imageaccess-transfer-from-image. Then call (setf image-access-pixel) with the coordinates of each pixel to write, and then call image-accesstransfer-to-image on the Image Access object. This notionally transfers all the pixel data back to the window system from the access object. It might do nothing if the window system allows fast access to the pixel data directly.
- 5. Free the image access object by calling free-image-access on it.

There is an example that demonstrates the uses of Image Access objects in: examples/capi/graphics/image-access.lisp

12.8.8 Creating external images from Graphics Ports operations

To create an external-image object from an on-screen window, use with-pixmap-graphics-port as in this example:

```
(defun record-picture (output-pane)
  (gp:with-pixmap-graphics-port
      (port output-pane
            400 400
            :clear t
            :background :red)
    (gp:draw-rectangle port 0 0 200 200
                       :filled t
                       :foreground :blue)
    (let ((image (gp:make-image-from-port port)))
      (gp:externalize-image port image))))
```

Here output-pane must be a displayed instance of capi:output-pane (or a subclass). The code does not affect the displayed pane.

If you do not already display a suitable output pane, you can create an invisible one like this:

Note: There is no reason to create and destroy the invisible interface each time a new picture is recorded, so for efficiency you could cache the interface object and use it repeatedly.

13

The Color System

13.1 Introduction

The LispWorks Color System allows applications to use keyword symbols as aliases for colors in Graphics Ports drawing functions. They can also be used for backgrounds and foregrounds of windows and CAPI objects.

For example, the call

```
(gp:draw-line my-port x1 y1 x2 y2
    :foreground :navyblue)
```

uses the keyword symbol :navyblue for the color of the line.

Colors are looked up in a color database. The LispWorks image is delivered with a large color database already loaded (approximately 660 entries.) The color database contains color-specs which define the colors in terms of a standard color model. When the drawing function is executed, the color-spec is converted into a colormap index (or "pixel" value).

The LispWorks Color System has facilities for:

- Defining new color aliases in one of several color models
- Loading the color database from a file of color descriptions
- · Converting color specifications between color models

Defining new color models

It is accessible from the color package, and all symbols mentioned in this chapter are assumed to be external to this package unless otherwise stated. You can qualify them all explicitly in your code, for example color:aproposcolor-names.

However it is more convenient to create a package which has the color package on its package-use-list:

```
(defpackage "MY-PACKAGE"
  (:add-use-defaults t)
  (:use "COLOR" "CAPI")
)
```

This creates a package in which all the color symbols (and for convenience, capi as well) are accessible. To run the examples in this chapter, evaluate the form above and then:

```
(in-package "MY-PACKAGE")
```

The color-models available by default are RGB, HSV and GRAY.

13.1.1 Rendering of colors

Some colors do not render exactly as expected in some CAPI classes such as capi:title-pane - it depends on the palette provided by the rendering system.

However, capi:output-pane and its subclasses support non-standard palettes.

13.2 Reading the color database

To find out what colors are defined in the color database, use the functions apropos-color-names. For example:

```
(apropos-color-names "RED") =>
  (:ORANGERED3 :ORANGERED1 :INDIANRED3 :INDIANRED1
  :PALEVIOLETRED :RED :INDIANRED :INDIANRED2
  :INDIANRED4 :ORANGERED :MEDIUMVIOLETRED
  :VIOLETRED :ORANGERED2 :ORANGERED4 :RED1 :RED2 :RED3
  :RED4 :PALEVIOLETRED1 :PALEVIOLETRED2 :PALEVIOLETRED3
  :PALEVIOLETRED4 :VIOLETRED3 :VIOLETRED1 :VIOLETRED2
  :VIOLETRED4)
```

For information about only aliases or only original entries, use apropos-coloralias-names Or apropos-color-spec-names respectively.

To get a list of all color names in the color database, call get-all-color-names.

13.3 Color specs

A color spec is an object which numerically defines a color in some color-model. For example the object returned by the call:

```
(make-rgb 0.0s0 1.0s0 0.0s0) =>
#(:RGB 0.0s0 1.0s0 0.0s0)
```

defines the color green in the RGB color model. (Note that short-floats are used; this results in the most efficient color conversion process. However, any floating-point number type can be used.)

To find out what color-spec is associated with a color name, use the function <code>get-color-spec</code>. It returns the color-spec associated with a symbol. If there is no color-spec associated with *color-name*, this function returns <code>mil</code>. If *color-name* is the name of a color alias, the color alias is dereferenced until a color-spec is found.

Color-specs are made using standard functions make-rgb, make-hsv and make-gray. For example:

```
(make-rgb 0.0s0 1.0s0 0.0s0)
(make-hsv 1.2s0 0.5s0 0.9s0)
(make-gray 0.66667s0)
```

To create a color spec with an alpha component using the above constructors, pass an extra optional argument. For example this specifies green with 40% transparency:

```
(make-rgb 0.0s0 1.0s0 0.0s0 0.6s0)
```

Note that the alpha component is only supported on Cocoa and Windows.

The predicate color-spec-p can be used to test for color-spec objects. The function color-spec-model returns the model in which a color-spec object has been defined.

13.4 Color aliases

You can enter a color alias in the color database using the function define-color-alias. You can remove an entry in the color database using delete-color-translation.

define-color-alias makes an entry in the color database under a name, which should be a symbol. LispWorks by convention uses keyword symbols. The name points to either a color-spec or another color name (symbol):

```
(define-color-alias :wire-color :darkslategray)
```

Attempting to replace an existing color-spec in the color database results in an error. By default, replacement of existing aliases is allowed but there is an option to control this (see the *LispWorks CAPI Reference Manual* entry for define-color-alias).

delete-color-translation removes an entry from the color-database. Both original entries and aliases can be removed:

```
(delete-color-translation:wire-color)
```

As described in Section 13.3 on page 139, the function get-color-spec returns the color-spec associated with a color alias. The function get-color-alias-translation returns the ultimate color name for an alias:

There is a system-defined color alias :transparent which is useful when specified as the *background* of a pane. It is currently supported only on Cocoa. For example:

13.5 Color models

Three color models are defined by default: RGB, HSV and GRAY. RGB and HSV allow specification of any color within conventional color space using three orthogonal coordinate axes, while gray restricts colors to one hue between white and black. All color models contain an optional alpha component, though this is used only on Cocoa and Windows.

| Model | Name | Component: Range |
|-------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| RGB | Red Green Blue | RED (0.0 to 1.0) |
| | | GREEN (0.0 to 1.0) |
| | | BLUE (0.0 to 1.0) |
| | | ALPHA (0.0 to 1.0) |
| HSV | Hue Saturation Value | HUE (0.0 to 5.99999) |
| | | SATURATION (0.0 to 1.0) |
| | | VALUE (0.0 to 1.0) |

ALPHA (0.0 to 1.0)

Table 13.1 Color models defined by default

Table 13.1 Color models defined by default

| Model | Name | Component: Range |
|-------|------|--------------------|
| GRAY | Gray | GRAY (0.0 to 1.0) |
| | | ALPHA (0.0 to 1.0) |

The Hue value in HSV is mathematically in the open interval [0.0 6.0). All values must be specified in floating point values.

You can convert color-specs between models using the available ensure-< model> functions. For example:

```
(setf green (make-rgb 0.0 1.0 0.0)
   => #(:RGB 0.0 1.0 0.0))
(eq green (ensure-rgb green)) => T
(ensure-hsv green) => #(:HSV 3.0 0.0 1.0)
(eq green (ensure-hsv green) => NIL
(ensure-rgb (ensure-hsv green)) => #(:RGB 0.0 1.0 0.0)
(eq green (ensure-rgb (ensure-hsv green))) => NIL
```

Of course, information can be lost when converting to GRAY:

```
(make-rgb 0.3 0.4 0.5) => #(:RGB 0.3 0.4 0.5)
(ensure-gray (make-rgb 0.3 0.4 0.5))
   => #(:GRAY 0.3999965)
(ensure-rgb (ensure-gray
             (make-rgb 0.3 0.4 0.5)))
      => #(:RGB 0.39999965 0.39999965 0.39999965)
```

There is also ensure-color which takes two color-spec arguments. It converts if necessary the first argument to the same model as the second. For example:

```
(ensure-color (make-gray 0.3) green)
    => #(:RGB 0.3 0.3 0.3)
```

ensure-model-color takes a model as the second argument. For example:

```
(ensure-model-color (make-gray 0.3) :hsv)
     => #(:HSV 0 1.0 0.3)
```

The function colors = compares two color-spec objects for color equality.

Conversion to pixel values is done by convert-color.

13.6 Loading the color database

You can load new color definitions into the color database using read-color-db and load-color-database.

Given a color definition file my-colors.db of lines like these:

```
#(:RGB 1.0s0 0.980391s0 0.980391s0) snow
#(:RGB 0.972548s0 0.972548s0 1.0s0) GhostWhite

call

(load-color-database (read-color-db "my-colors.db"))
```

To clear the color database use the form:

```
(setf *color-database* (make-color-db))
```

Warning: You should do this before starting Common LispWorks (that is, before env:start-environment is called) and be sure to load new color definitions for all the colors used in the environment when you do start it. Those colors are determined from the config/colors.db file.

You can remove a color database entry with delete-color-translation.

13.7 Defining new color models

Before using the definition described here, you should evaluate the form:

```
(require "color-defmodel")
```

The macro define-color-models can be used to define new color models for use in the color system.

The default color models are defined by the following form:

For example, to define a new color model YMC and keep the existing RGB, HSV and GRAY models:

You must then define some functions to convert YMC color-specs to other color-specs. In this example, those functions are named

```
make-ymc-from-rgb
make-ymc-from-hsv
make-ymc-from-gray
and
make-rgb-from-ymc
make-hsv-from-ymc
make-gray-from-ymc
```

You can make this easier, of course, by defining the functions

```
make-ymc-from-hsv
make-ymc-from-gray
make-hsv-from-ymc
make-gray-from-ymc
```

in terms of make-ymc-from-rgb and make-rgb-from-ymc.

If you never convert between YMC and any other model, you need only define the function make-rgb-from-ymc.

14

Printing from the CAPI—the Hardcopy API

The CAPI hardcopy API is a mechanism for printing a Graphics Port (and hence a CAPI output-pane) to a printer. It is arranged in a hierarchy of concepts: printers, print jobs, pagination and outputting.

Printers correspond to the hardware accessible to the OS. Print jobs control connection to a printer and any printer-specific initialization. Pagination controls the number of pages and which output appears on which page. Outputting is the operation of drawing to a page. This is accomplished using the standard Graphics Ports drawing functions and is not discussed here.

14.1 Printers

You can obtain the current printer, or ask the user to select one, by using current-printer. You can ask the user about configuration by using the functions page-setup-dialog and print-dialog which display the standard Page Setup and Print dialogs.

You can pass the printer object (as returned by current-printer or print-dialog) to APIs with a *printer* argument, such as with-print-job, page-setup-dialog and print-dialog. The printer object itself is opaque but you can modify the configuration programmatically using set-printer-options.

14.1.1 Standard shortcut keys in printer dialogs

On Cocoa by default the standard shortcuts Command+P and Command+Shift+P invoke Print... and Page Setup... menu commands respectively.

In Microsoft Windows editor emulation by default the standard shortcut Ctrl+P invokes a Print... menu command.

14.2 Printer definition files

On Unix, CAPI uses its own printer definition files to keep information about printers. These files contain a few configuration settings, and the name of the PPD file if applicable (see below for information about PPD files). When a user saves a printer configuration, the system writes such file. Note that because the printer definition file contains the name of the PPD file, it must only be moved between machines with care: the PPD file must exist in the same path.

14.3 PPD files

To fully use the functionality of a Postscript printer on Unix, the system needs a Postscript Printer Description (PPD) file, which is a file in a standard format defined by Adobe. It describes the options the printer has and how to control them.

When a print dialog is presented to the user (either by an explicit call to print-dialog, or by printing), the system uses the PPD file to find what additional options to present, and how to communicate them to the printer.

A PPD file should be supplied by the manufacturer with the printer itself. Otherwise, it is normally possible to obtain the PPD file from the website of the manufacturer. The name of a PPD file should be *printername*.ppd.

When the user configures a new printer, the first thing the system does is to show the user all the PPD files that it can find under the *ppd-directory* (directly, or one level of directories below it). The application should set this variable to the appropriate directory.

If the value of *ppd-directory* is nil, the system looks at the directory obtained by evaluating (sys:lispworks-dir "postscript/ppd").

If the printer does not have a PPD file, the user can still use it by selecting the default button in the print dialog. This means that the system will let the user change only the basic properties of the printer, without using its more complex features.

14.4 Print jobs

A Print job is contained within a use of the macro with-print-job, which handles connection to the printer and sets up a graphics port for drawing to the printer.

14.5 Handling pages—page on demand printing

In Page on Demand Printing, the application provides code to print an arbitrary page. The application should be prepared to print pages in any order. This is the preferred means of implementing printing. Page on Demand printing uses the with-document-pages macro, which iterates over all pages in the document.

14.6 Handling pages—page sequential printing

Page Sequential Printing may be used when it is inconvenient for the application to implement Page on Demand printing. In Page Sequential Printing, the application prints each page of the document in order. Page on Demand printing uses the with-page macro, with each invocation of the with-page macro contributing a new page to the document.

14.7 Printing a page

In either mode of printing, the way in which a page is printed is the same. A suitable transformation must be established between the coordinate system of the output-pane or printer-port object and the physical page being printed. The page is then drawn using normal Graphics Ports operations.

14.7.1 Establishing a page transform

The with-page-transform macro can be used to establish a page transform that maps a rectangular region of the document to the whole page being printed. Any number of invocations of with-page-transform may occur during the printing of a page. For instance, it may be convenient to use a different page transform when printing headers and footers to the page from that used when printing the main body of the page.

A helper function, get-page-area, is provided to simplify the calculation of suitable rectangles for use with with-page-transform. It calculates the width and height of the rectangle in the user's coordinate space that correspond to one printable page, based on the logical resolution of the user's coordinate space in dpi.

For more specific control over the page transform, the printer metrics can be queried using get-printer-metrics and the various printer-metrics accessors such as printer-metrics-height.

Margins and the printable area can be set using set-printer-metrics.

14.8 Other printing functions

On Unix, printers can be added, removed and configured via printer-configuration-dialog. On Microsoft Windows, the equivalent functionality is on the Printer Control Panel.

A simple printing API is available via simple-print-port, which prints the contents of an output-pane to a printer.

The Hardcopy API also provides a means of printing plain text to a printer. The functions print-text, print-file and print-editor-buffer can be used for this.

Index

| | description of 8 |
|---|---|
| | general properties 41 |
| | graph panes 37 |
| | in interfaces 84–87 |
| | used for choices 33–35 |
| A | using callback functions 15 |
| abort-dialog function 99, 100 | :callback-type initarg 41, 100 |
| :accelerator initarg 70 | call-editor function 85 |
| :action-callback initarg 35, 38, 41 | CAPI |
| :alternative initary 70 | basic objects 3 |
| apply-in-pane-process function 11, 59 | description of 1–3 |
| apropos-color-alias-names function 139 | linking code into 8 |
| apropos-color-names function 138 | menu hierarchy 68 |
| apropos-color-spec-names function 139 | using the 6 |
| augment-font-description function 128 | check button panels 30 |
| augment font description function 120 | check buttons 24 |
| В | check-button class 25, 28 |
| | check-button-panel class 28, 30, 34, 40 |
| background graphics state parameter 122 | :children-function initarg 36 |
| :best-height initarg 110 | choice class 27 |
| :best-width initarg 110 | :choice-class initarg 94 |
| boole function 126 | choice-interaction accessor 40 |
| :buffer-name initarg 22 | choices 27–42 |
| button panels | callbacks available 41 |
| orientation 29 | description of 27–42 |
| prompting with 94–95 | general properties 39–42 |
| button-panel class 28 | relationship to menus 39 |
| buttons | choice-selected-item accessor 41 |
| check 24 | choice-selected-items accessor 41 |
| push 24 | choice-selection accessor 35, 40 |
| radio 25 | classes |
| :buttons initarg 21 | collections 28 |
| _ | creating your own 107–118 |
| C | clear-external-image-conversions |
| :callback initarg 21 | function 132 |
| callbacks | CLUE 2 |
| | |

| CLX 2 | display callback 109 |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| collection class 27 | display function 7, 8, 11 |
| collection-items accessor 62 | display panes 20 |
| collections | display-callback initarg 133: |
| description of 27 | display-dialog function 99, 101 |
| collector panes 23 | displaying text on screen 20 |
| collector-pane class 23 | display-message function 9, 90 |
| colors | display-pane class 20, 46 |
| prompting for 96 | document-frame class 57 |
| colors= function 142 | double buffering 119 |
| color-spec-model function 140 | draw-circle function 109 |
| color-spec-p function 140 | draw-image function 130 |
| column-layout class 29, 44, 80 | drawn-pinboard-object class 112, 115, |
| column-layout class 45 | 120 |
| combo box 38 | draw-point function 111 |
| combo boxes 38 | drop-down list box 38 |
| confirm-yes-or-no function 90 | • |
| contain function 7, 11, 112 | E |
| convert-color function 134, 142 | editor panes 22 |
| convert-external-image function 132 | editor-pane class 22, 46, 85, 105 |
| convert-to-screen function 12 | subclasses 23 |
| :create-callback initarg 59, 133 | editor-pane-blink-rate function 23 |
| creating menus 63 | editor-pane-text accessor 62, 85 |
| creating submenus 64 | elements |
| current-printer function 145 | creating your own 107–118 |
| | generic properties of 15–16 |
| D | enabled initarg 24 |
| dash graphics state parameter 123 | enabled finding 24: |
| dashed graphics state parameter 123 | ensure-color function 142 |
| :data callback type 41 | ensure-model-color function 142 |
| :data initarg 8, 24 | evaluate keyword argument 97 |
| :data-interface callback type 41 | event handlers 110–112, ??–112 |
| default settings | execute-with-interface function 11, 59 |
| selections 35 | execute-with-interface-if-alive |
| :default-initargs class option 77, 80 | function 11, 59 |
| defclass macro 75, 77, 110 | exit-confirmer function 102 |
| define-color-alias function 140 | exit-dialog function 99, 100, 102 |
| define-color-models macro 143 | |
| define-interface macro 75 | :extend-callback initarg 35, 38, 41 extended selection |
| arguments supplied to 77 | specifying 40 |
| defpackage function 6 | using on diferent platforms 40 |
| delete-color-translation function | |
| 140, 143 | : extended-selection interaction style $32-33, 40$ |
| :description initarg 44 | extension gesture 33 |
| description of the CAPI 1–3 | external constraints 50 |
| destroy generic function 62 | external image |
| dialogs | dimensions 133 |
| creating your own 99–103 | from displayed window 134 |
| description of 89–103 | from on-screen window 134 |
| in front 98 | width and height 133 |
| modal 97 | external-image class 129 |
| owners 98–99 | externalize-image function 132 |

| :external-max-width initary 50 :external-min-height initary 50 :external-min-height initary 50 :external-min-height initary 50 :external-min-width initary 50 :mage class 129 image-access-transfer-from-image function 133, 134 :image-access-transfer-from-image function 134 image-access-transfer-from-image function 134 image-lasp function 134 image class 129 image-access transfer-from-image function 134 image-l | :external-max-height initarg 50 | hints 50 |
|--|---|-----------------------------------|
| Files prompting for 95–97 fills-style graphics state parameter 122 find-best-font function 128 font graphics state parameter 124 :font initiang 16 fonts 16 attributes 128 lookup 129 prompting for 96 foreground graphics state parameter 122 frame 19 free-image function 130, 132 free-image-access function 134 finetions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15–16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50–53 get-color-anias-translation function 140 get-color-spec function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphpane class 36 implementation of 113 grad-layout class 47 groupbox 19 I image class 129 image-access-transfer-from-image function 134 image-access-transfer-to-image function 134 image-access-transfer-from-image function 134 image-access-transfer-sto-image function 134 image-access-transfer-to-image function 134 image-access-transfer-to-image function 134 image-access-transfer-to-image function 134 image-access-transfer-to-image function 134 image-layeut eintag 11 integrs prompting for 92–93 interaction general properties 40 in lists 32 :interacte callback type 41 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface-atiple accessor 18 interface-atiple accessor 18 interface callback typ | | :horizontal-scroll initarg 16, 45 |
| image class 129 image-access-pixel function 134 image-access-transfer-from-image function 133, 134 image-access-transfer-to-image function 134 image-access function 134 image-access function 134 image-access function 133 image-access function 134 image-access function 134 image-access function 134 image-access function 133 image-access function 134 image-access | — — — | т |
| image-access-pixel function 134 image-access-rixel function 134 image-access-transfer-from-image function 133, 134 image-access-transfer-from-image function 133, 134 image-access-transfer-to-image function 134 image-access-transfer-to-image function 134 image-access-transfer-to-image function 136 image-height accessor 133 image-height accessor 133 image-height accessor 133 image-height accessor 133 image-width accessor 134 image-width accessor 134 image-width accessor 134 image-width accessor 143 image-width accessor 143 image-width accesso | :external-min-width lillidig 50 | <u> </u> |
| files prompting for 95—97 fil11-style graphics state parameter 122 find-best-font function 128 find-matching-fonts function 128 find-matching-fonts function 128 find-matching-fonts function 128 find matching-fonts function 138 fonts 16 fonts 17 font initarg 16 fonts 18 find-matching-fonts function 134 functions sample 19 fonts 10 fonts 10 find matching-fonts function 134 find initiarg 11 integers prompting for 92—93 interaction general properties 40 in lists 32 finteractive-stream class 23 interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive-stream class 23 interactive-stream class 23 interface-class 3, 18, 75 interface-display generic function 60 interface-display generic function 18 interface-display generic function 18 interface-display generic function 60 interface-display generic function 18 interface | F | |
| prompting for 95–97 fill-style graphics state parameter 122 find-best-font function 128 find-matching-fonts function 128 font graphics state parameter 124 :font mittag 16 fonts 16 attributes 128 lookup 129 prompting for 96 foreground graphics state parameter 122 frame 19 free-image function 130, 132 free-image-access function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15–16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50–53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-page-area function 148 get-printer-metrics function 149 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics state 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 function 133, 134 image-access-transfer-to-image function 133 image-height accessor 133 inintial-value initiary 92 :input-model initary 111 integers prompting for 92–93 interaction general properties 40 in lists 32 :interactive streams 23 interactive streams 23 interactive streams 23 interactive streams 23 interactive streams 23 interaction initary 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive streams 23 interaction function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface-display generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface-display generic function 18 interface-display generic function 18 interface-display for 7 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 interface-display for 7 interface-display for 8 interface-display for 8 interface-display for 9 description of 75 layouts, specifying 70 interface-display for 9 description of 75 layout-lass initiag 51 internal-min-height initag 51 internal-min | _ | |
| find-best-font function 128 find-matching-fonts function 128 font graphics state parameter 124 :font initarg 16 fonts 16 attributes 128 lookup 129 prompting for 96 foreground graphics state parameter 122 frame 19 free-image function 130, 132 free-image-access function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15–16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50–53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-alias-translation function 140 get-page-area function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics state 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 tion 134 image-height accessor 133 image-width accessor 133 interaction interg 111 integers prompting for 92–93 interaction initary 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive-stream class 23 interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive-stream class 23 interaction initarg 32, 79, 40, 65, 94 interactive-stream class 23 interaction initarg 32, 79, 40, 65, 94 interaction initar | prompting for 95–97 | |
| find-matching-fonts function 128 font graphics state parameter 124 ifonts 16 attributes 128 lookup 129 prompting for 96 foreground graphics state parameter 122 frame 19 free-image function 130, 132 free-image function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15–16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50–53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-alias-translation function 140 get-color-spec function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state parameters 120 graphics state parameters 124 image-width accessor 133 image-width accessor 133 image-width accessor 133 image-width accessor 133 initial-value initarg 92 interaction general properties 40 in lists 32 interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive-streams class 23 interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive-streams class 23 interaction initarg 37 interface-display generic function 60 interface-display for 65 layouts, specifying 75 layouts, specifying 76 layouts specifying 76 interactive streams 23 interaction in lay 61 interactive streams 24 interactive streams 24 i | | |
| image-width accessor 133 :font initary 16 fonts 16 attributes 128 lookup 129 prompting for 96 foreground graphics state parameter 122 frame 19 free-image function 130, 132 free-image-access function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15–16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50–53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics state parameters 120 graphics state parameters 120 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graphics parameters 120 graphics parameters 120 graphics parameters 120 graphics state parameters 120 graphics state parameters 120 graphics pa | | |
| ifont initarg 16 fonts 16 attributes 128 lookup 129 prompting for 96 foreground graphics state parameter 122 frame 19 free-image function 130, 132 free-image-access function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15—16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50—53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-page-area function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graphics para | 1. | |
| fonts 16 attributes 128 lookup 129 prompting for 96 foreground graphics state parameter 122 frame 19 free-image function 130, 132 free-image-access function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15–16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50–53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graphics parameters 120 graphics parameters 120 graphics parameters 122 graphics parameters 122 graphics parame | <u> </u> | |
| attributes 128 lookup 129 prompting for 96 foreground graphics state parameter 122 frame 19 free-image function 130, 132 free-image-access function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15–16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50–53 get-aclor-names function 139 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state parameters 120 graphics state parameters 120 graphics state 120 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixel parameters 120 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixel parameters 120 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixel parameters 120 graphics ports 119 drawing func | _ | 9 |
| lookup 129 prompting for 96 foreground graphics state parameter 122 frame 19 free-image function 130, 132 free-image-access function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15—16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50—53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H prompting for 92—93 interaction general properties 40 in lists 32 : interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive streams 23 interactive streams 23 : interactive initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive streams 23 : interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive streams 23 : interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive streams 23 : interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive streams 23 : interface class 18 interaction initarg 37 : descriptany generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interactive streams 23 interactive streams 23 interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive streams 23 interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive streams 23 interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive streams 23 interaction initarg 29 interactive streams 23 interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive streams 23 interaction initarg 32 : interface class 23 : interface class 23 : interface class 23 : interface class 23 : interface of success 3 interaction initarg 32 : interface callback type 41 interáce-extend-title generic function 18 interaction initarg 32 | | |
| prompting for 96 foreground graphics state parameter 122 free-image function 130, 132 free-image function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15—16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50—53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 getaph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graph-pane class 36 internal-min-height initarg 51 internal-min-width initarg 51 int | | |
| foreground graphics state parameter 122 frame 19 free-image function 130, 132 free-image-access function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15—16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50—53 get-color-anias-translation function 140 get-color-spec function 139 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H in lists 32 :interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive streams 23 :interface callback type 41 interface class 23 :interface-display generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-min-height initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110—112 H inlsts 32 :interactive streams 23 :interactive streams 23 :interface callsback type 41 interface class 3, 18, 75 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface-extend-title generic function 19 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface-extend-title generic function 19 interface-viel and interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface-extend-title generic function 19 interface-user and interface-extend-title gene | * | |
| frame 19 free-image function 130, 132 free-image-access function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15—16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50—53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-alias-translation function 140 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H interaction initarg 32, 39, 40, 65, 94 interactive-stream class 23 :interface callback type 41 interface class 3, 18, 75 interface-display generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-depti initarg 51 | | |
| free-image function 130, 132 free-image-access function 134 functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15—16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50—53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-alias-translation function 140 get-page-acce function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H interactive streams 23 interactive-stream class 23 interface callback type 41 interface class 3, 18, 75 interface-display generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface-extend-title generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface-display 2, 68 interface-display 2, | | |
| functions sample 15 G generic properties of elements 15—16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50—53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 Interface callback type 41 interface class 3, 18, 75 interface-display generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 title, specifying 78 title, specifying 77 interface-title accessor 18 internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-max-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 item-pinboard-object class 112 :items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110—112 H layout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | | |
| functions sample 15 G Generic properties of elements 15–16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50–53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics state 120 graphics state 120 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 L interface callback type 41 interface class 3, 18, 75 interface-display generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface. defining 75–87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 interfaces defining 75–87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 interfaces interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface-extend-title generic function 19 interface-extend-title generic f | | |
| sample 15 G Generic properties of elements 15—16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50—53 get—al1-color-names function 139 get-color-alias-translation function 140 get-color-spec function 139 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 L interface callback type 41 interface class 3, 18, 75 interface-extend-title generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 81—84 panes, specifying 78 title, specifying 77 interface-title accessor 18 internal constraints 51 :internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-max-width initarg 51 :internal-min-height initarg 51 :internal-min-height initarg 51 :internal-min-height initarg 51 :internal-min-hobject class 112 :items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110—112 H ilayout-class initarg 29 layout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | | • |
| interface class 3, 18, 75 interface class 3, 18, 75 interface class 3, 18, 75 interface-display generic function 60 generic properties of elements 15–16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50–53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 get-page-area function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 interface-display generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75–87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 title, specifying 77 interface-title accessor 18 internal constraints 51 :internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 item-pinboard-object class 112 :items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110–112 L :layout-class initarg 29 layouts | • | |
| G generic properties of elements 15—16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50—53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-alias-translation function 140 get-page-area function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics state 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H hardcopy API 145—148 interface-display generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces. interface-display generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces interface-display generic function 60 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 81—84 panes, specifying 78 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 81—84 panes, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 interfaces interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 79 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 79 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 menus, specifying 79 interface-extend-title generic function 19 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 79 interfaces layouts, specifying 19 interfaces def | sample 10 | |
| generic properties of elements 15–16 geometry of layouts, specifying 50–53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-alias-translation function 140 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 interface-extend-title generic function 18 interfaces defining 75–87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 81–84 panes, specifying 77 interface-title accessor 18 internal constraints 51 :internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-min-height initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :inter | C | |
| geometry of layouts, specifying 50—53 get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 tion 18 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 81—84 panes, specifying 77 interface-title accessor 18 internal constraints 51 :internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-min-height initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 item-pinboard-object class 112 :items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110—112 H ilayout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | | |
| get-all-color-names function 139 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 graphcy 127 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 groupbox 19 H hardcopy API 145—148 interfaces defining 75—87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 81—84 panes, specifying 77 interface-title accessor 18 internal constraints 51 :internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-min-height initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 titems initarg 32, 63, 67 K ilayout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | | |
| get-color-alias-translation function 140 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107-110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H hardcopy API 145-148 defining 75-87 description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 title, specifying 77 interface-title accessor 18 internal constraints 51 :internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-min-height initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 item-pinboard-object class 112 :items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110-112 | | |
| description of 75 get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H description of 75 layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 title, specifying 77 interface-title accessor 18 internal constraints 51 :internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-min-height initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 item-pinboard-object class 112 :items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110—112 L layout-class initarg 29 layouts-description accessor 61 layouts | = | |
| get-color-spec function 139 get-page-area function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107–110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H layouts, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 title, specifying 78 menus, specifying 78 title, specifue specified s | 4.40 | |
| get-page-area function 148 get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H imenus, specifying 78 title, specifying 78 title specifying 78 title, specifying 78 title specific speci | | |
| get-printer-metrics function 148 graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H panes, specifying 78 title, specifying 78 title specifying 78 title specifying 78 title specifies title specifies title specifies thereal constraints 11 thernal-max-height initarg 51 tinternal-max-width initarg 51 tinternal-max-width initarg 51 tinternal-max-width initarg 51 tinternal-max-width initarg 51 titem-pinboard-object class 112 titem-pinboard-objec | | |
| graph panes callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 title, specifying 77 interface-title accessor 18 internal constraints 51 :internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-min-height initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :item-pinboard-object class 112 :items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110—112 L :layout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | | |
| callbacks 37 graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H internal constraints 51 :internal-max-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :item-pinboard-object class 112 :items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110—112 L :layout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | • | |
| graphics creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H internal constraints 51 :internal-max-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initarg 51 :internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-max-width initarg 51 :internal-max-width initarg 51 :internal-max-height initarg 51 :internal-max-width initarg 51 :internal-max-width initarg 51 :internal-min-width initar | O 11 | interface-title accessor 18 |
| creating permanent displays 109 displaying 107-110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H internal-max-height initarg 51 internal-min-height initarg 51 item-pinboard-object class 112 items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110-112 L layout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | • . | internal constraints 51 |
| displaying 107—110 graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H internal-min-height initarg 51 item-pinboard-object class 112 items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110—112 L :layout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | • | :internal-max-height initarg 51 |
| graphics ports 119 drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H internal-min-height initarg 51 item-pinboard-object class 112 items initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110—112 L :layout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | | :internal-max-width initarg 51 |
| drawing functions 126 pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H item-pinboard-object class 112 sitems initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110—112 L slayout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | | :internal-min-height initarg 51 |
| pixmap 127 graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H item-pinboard-object class 112 sitems initarg 32, 63, 67 K key press 110—112 L :layout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | <u> </u> | :internal-min-width initarg 51 |
| graphics state 120 graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 H ilayout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | | |
| graphics state parameters 120 graph-pane class 36 implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 L :layout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 hardcopy API 145—148 key press 110—112 L:layout-class initarg 29 layout-description accessor 61 | | :items initarg 32, 63, 67 |
| implementation of 113 grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 L :layout-class initarg 29 Hardcopy API 145—148 layout-description accessor 61 layouts | | ** |
| grid-layout class 47 groupbox 19 L:layout-class initarg 29 Hayout-description accessor 61 layouts | graph-pane class 36 | K |
| groupbox 19 L :layout-class initarg 29 H layout-description accessor 61 layouts | implementation of 113 | key press 110–112 |
| H :layout-class initarg 29 hardcopy API 145—148 :layout-description accessor 61 layouts | grid-layout class 47 | |
| H layout-description accessor 61 layouts | groupbox 19 | L |
| H layout-description accessor 61 layouts | | :layout-class initarg 29 |
| hardcopy API 145–148 layouts | H | |
| | hardcopy API 145-148 | • |
| | | combining different 48-49 |

| description of 43–53 | :menu-bar-items initarg 64 |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| introduction to 7 | menu-component class 64 |
| specifying geometry 50–53 | menu-component class 3 |
| specifying size of panes in 46 | menu-item class 3, 67 |
| :layouts interface option 75 | menus |
| line-end-style graphics state parame- | components 39 |
| ter 123 | creating 63 |
| line-joint-style graphics state | creating submenus 64 |
| parameter 123 | description of 63–72 |
| Lisp forms | disabling items in 71–72 |
| prompting for 97 | grouping items together 64–67 |
| list function 44 | individual items in 67–68 |
| list items, specifying 31 | menu hierarchy 68 |
| list panels 30 | nesting 64 |
| list-all-font-names function 128 | specifying alternative items 70 |
| listener panes 23 | :menus interface option 75, 81 |
| listener-pane class 23, 46 | merge-font-descriptions function 128 |
| list-panel class 30 | Microsoft Windows |
| lists | Multiple-Document Interface 57 |
| actions in 33 | themes 12 |
| deselection in 33 | :min keyword argument 92 |
| extended selection in 32 | min-height 51 |
| extended selections 33 | min-width 51 |
| interaction in 32 | modal dialogs 97 |
| multiple selection in 32 | Motif |
| prompting with 93–95 | resources 12 |
| retraction in 33 | multi-line-text-input-pane class 21 |
| single selection in 32 | :multiple-selection interaction style 32, |
| load-color-database function 143 | 39, 40, 66 |
| load-icon-image function 130, 132 | 00, 10, 00 |
| load-image function 132 | N |
| 10ad-1mage Idiletion 132 | *** |
| M | :none callback type 41 |
| | :no-selection interaction style 39, 40 |
| make-container function 100 | |
| make-hsv function 139 | 0 |
| make-image-access function 133 | off screen 119 |
| make-image-from-port function 132 | off-screen 119 |
| make-instance function 5 | offscreen 119 |
| make-menu-for-pane function 73 | :ok-check keyword argument 92, 97, 103 |
| make-pane-popup-menu generic function | on screen 119 |
| 73 | on-screen 119 |
| make-rgb function 139 | onscreen 119 |
| make-sub-image function 132 | operation graphics state parameter 122 |
| mask graphics state parameter 123 | option panes 38 |
| mask-x graphics state parameter 123 | option-pane class 38 |
| mask-y graphics state parameter 124 | organizing panes 44 |
| :max keyword argument 92 | output-pane class 72, 107, 138 |
| max-height 51 | <i>,</i> , |
| max-width 51 | P |
| MDI 57 | page-setup-dialog function 145 |
| menu class 3, 63 | : pane-args initarg 95 |
| menu-bar interface option 75, 81 | · Pane arys milars oo |

| panel | prompt-for-number function 93 |
|--|--|
| button layout 29 | prompt-for-string function 91, 99, 101 |
| pane-layout accessor 61 | prompt-for-symbol function 97 |
| panels | prompt-with-list function 93 |
| check button 30 list 30 | prompt-with-list-non-focus function 105 |
| push button 28 | push button panels |
| radio button 29 | creating 28 |
| :pane-menu initarg 73 | push buttons 24 |
| pane-popup-menu-items generic function | push-button class 7, 24, 28 |
| 73 | push-button-panel class 28 |
| panes | |
| accessing 79 | R |
| collector 23 | radio button panels |
| creating your own 107–118 | creating 29 |
| default title position 19 | radio buttons 25 |
| display 20 | radio-button class 26 |
| editor 22 | radio-button-panel class 28, 29, 40 |
| finding 79 | read-and-convert-external-image |
| graphs 36 | function 132 |
| listener 23 | read-color-db function 143 |
| lookup 79 | reader slot option 79: |
| option 38 | redisplay-interface function 103 |
| organizing 44 | register-image-translation function |
| sizing 46 text input 20 | 132 |
| title 18 | Resources |
| :panes interface option 75 | X11/Motif 12 |
| :pathname keyword argument 96 | :retract-callback initarg 25, 34, 38, 41 |
| pattern graphics state parameter 123 | row-layout class 29, 44, 45, 80 |
| pinboard objects 112 | C |
| creating your own 115–118 | S |
| pinboard-layout class 48, 112 | scale-thickness graphics state parameter |
| pinboard-object class 112 | 123 |
| pixblt function 119 | scroll bars |
| popup-confirmer function 101, 102 | programmatic control 61 |
| portable font descriptions 127–128 | specifying 16 |
| print function 27 | scroll generic function 61 |
| print-dialog function 99, 145 | selected initarg 26 |
| print-editor-buffer function 148 | selected-item initarg 38, 41 |
| printer-configuration-dialog func- | :selected-items initarg 41 |
| tion 148 | selection gesture 33 |
| print-file function 148 | :selection initarg 35, 40 |
| :print-function initarg 27 | :selection-callback initarg 28, 32, 33, 38, 41, 86 |
| print-text function 148 | selections 32–35 |
| prompt-for-color function 96 | default settings 35 |
| prompt-for-confirmation function 91 | extending 33 |
| prompt-for-directory function 96 | general properties 40 |
| prompt-for-file function 95, 99 | specifying multiple 40 |
| prompt-for-font function 96 | set-application-themed function 12 |
| prompt-for-integer function 97 | set-default-interface-prefix-suf- |

| fix function 18 | specifying directly 18 |
|---|--|
| setf function 19, 24 | top-level-interface-display-state |
| set-graphics-state function 124 | function 62 |
| set-hint-table function 54 | transform graphics state parameter 122 |
| set-printer-metrics function 148 | |
| set-printer-options function 145 | U |
| set-top-level-interface-geometry | unconvert-color function 134 |
| function 60 | user input 89–103 |
| simple-print-port function 148 | using callback functions 15 |
| single selection | using the CAPI 6 |
| specifying 40 | doing the critical |
| :single-selection interaction style 32, | V |
| 39, 40, 65 | |
| slot 5 | :value-function keyword argument 102 |
| slot-value function 5 | values |
| stipple graphics state parameter 122 | prompting for 91–97 |
| streams | evertical-scroll initarg 16, 45 |
| interactive 23 | visible constraints 50 |
| strings | :visible-max-height initarg 50 |
| prompting for 91 | :visible-max-width initarg 50 |
| subclasses | :visible-min-height initarg 50 |
| finding 18 | :visible-min-width initarg 50 |
| subclasses, finding 18 | *** |
| symbols | W |
| prompting for 97 | window titles 18, 87 |
| | window-modal dialogs 97 |
| T | Windows themes 12 |
| text | Windows XP themes 12 |
| displaying 19 | with-dialog-results ${ m macro~98}$ |
| displaying on screen 20 | with-document-pages macro 147 |
| editing 19 | with-external-metafile macro 119 |
| entering 19 | with-graphics-state macro 124 |
| :text initarg 16, 20, 21, 22 | with-page macro 147 |
| text input panes 20 | with-page-transform macro 148 |
| text-input-pane class 21, 104 | with-pixmap-graphics-port macro 119, |
| text-input-pane-non-focus-com- | 120, 134 |
| plete function 104 | with-print-job macro 119, 145 |
| thickness graphics state parameter 123 | Works menu |
| :title initarg 18, 77 | in CAPI objects 7 |
| title panes 18 | |
| titled-object class 17 | X |
| titled-pane-title accessor 85 | X resources |
| :title-font initarg 19 | fallback resources 12 |
| title-pane class 17, 138 | in delivered applications 12 |
| :title-position initarg 19, 45 | X11 |
| titles | resources 12 |
| changing 19, 87 | :x-ratios initarg 46 |
| changing interactively 19 | 3 |
| for elements 19 | Y |
| for interfaces 18, 87 | - :y-ratios initarg 46 |
| for windows 18, 87 | ., 14010b mmm 5 TV |
| specifying 17, 17–19 | |
| | |