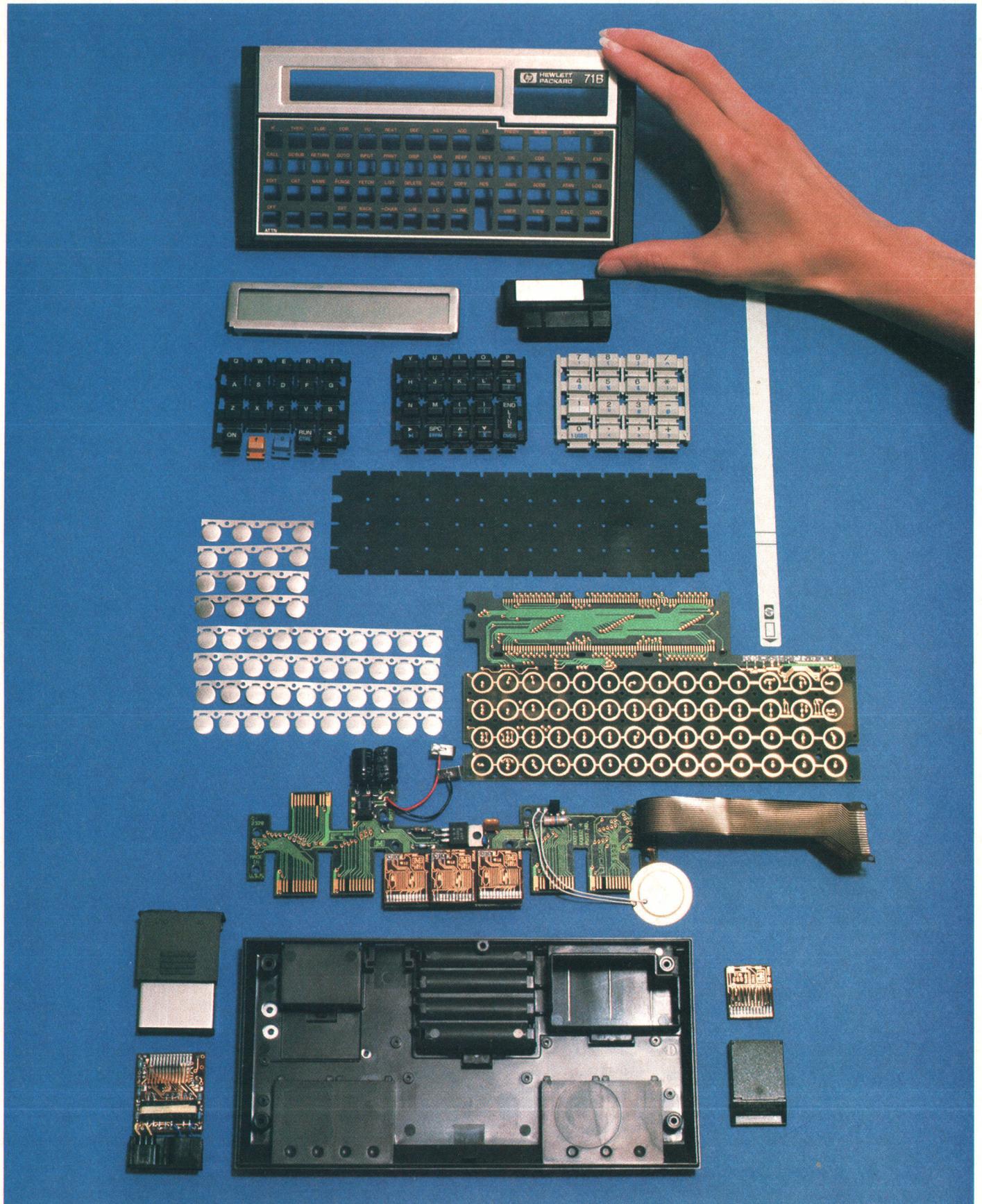


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The thing that most impresses me about the HP-71B Handheld Computer is how much is packed into its small dimensions, both physically and computationally. (The cover photograph illustrates the physical aspect. See page 18 for the identity of the parts.) Instead of trying to tell you about all of its advanced features in this limited space, I'll leave that to the articles in this issue and just mention some of the unusual things in this 9.7×19×2.5-centimeter, 340-gram package.

Unlike most personal computers, which have 8-bit or 16-bit central processing units, the HP-71B has a 4-bit CPU and works with 4-bit nibbles instead of 8-bit bytes. It can address more than a megabyte—half a megabyte—of memory in various combinations of ROM and RAM. Fully loaded with special-purpose software in plug-in ROM modules, it has 17.5K bytes of RAM and 320K bytes of ROM. Maximum RAM is 33.5K bytes with the minimum ROM of 64K bytes. The standard BASIC language has an impressive 240 keywords, but if those aren't enough, you can add to them by means of language extension files. You can redefine the keyboard so that each keystroke means whatever you want it to mean. HP-71B BASIC allows recursive programming, which means that a subprogram can call itself over and over again. With one of the plug-in ROMs, you can override BASIC and program in FORTH, a language that's widely used for microprogram development. There's only a one-line display, but the programmer has full control of it and can even do graphics. To encourage people to take advantage of all of these program development and customization features, a three-volume set of documents tells all about the operating system and architecture. And because the small keyboard is a drawback if you're doing a lot of typing, as you would be for program development, the HP-71B lets you hook it up to a personal computer and use the host's keyboard and display. An optional HP-IL (Hewlett-Packard Interface Loop) module lets you use the HP-71B as a controller in battery-powered systems and allows it to talk to peripherals or other computers.

The HP-71B is the first handheld to implement the proposed IEEE floating-point math standard, which includes such concepts as infinities and NaNs (not-a-number). It's also the first HP handheld to use algebraic instead of reverse Polish notation. (You need an = key for BASIC, so why not?) Finally, to prevent unauthorized access to programs and data, you can lock the HP-71B with your own password. If the user doesn't provide the right password, the computer turns itself off. The only way to circumvent the password is to clear the memory, in which case there's nothing to protect.

-R. P. Dolan

A New Handheld Computer for Technical Professionals

This small computational tool functions both as a BASIC-programmable computer and as an advanced scientific calculator. Equipped with the appropriate modules, it can control instruments, store and retrieve data and programs, perform complex number and matrix calculations, or be used for software development.

by Susan L. Wechsler

SINCE 1971, WHEN HEWLETT-PACKARD introduced its first scientific electronic handheld calculator, the HP-35,¹ HP handheld calculators have steadily increased in capability. The HP-65² could be programmed and had a built-in motor-driven card reader for mass storage. The HP-41C³ added system capabilities; through the addition of plug-in modules, it could control peripherals and extend its computational capabilities. HP's handheld calculators became more than mere computational tools—they became small computers designed for convenient personal use by the technical professional.

The HP-71B Computer (Fig. 1) is the latest entry in this progression of increasingly more powerful handheld products. In addition to retaining almost all of the capabilities

of its predecessors, it also can be programmed in a high-level language, using its powerful built-in BASIC operating system with over 240 keywords. The internal math routines have 12-digit accuracy and conform to the proposed IEEE floating-point math standard.⁴ All of the electronics, the QWERTY-style keyboard with separate numeric keypad, 22-character liquid-crystal display, 64K-byte ROM operating system, 17.5K-byte user RAM, and battery power supply are contained in a $3\frac{7}{8} \times 7\frac{1}{2} \times 1$ -inch pocket-sized package that weighs 12 ounces. (See article on page 17 for a discussion of the packaging techniques used in the HP-71B.)

The HP-71B has four ports for adding RAM or ROM to the mainframe, which has an address space of up to 512K bytes. Currently, 4K bytes of RAM or up to 64K bytes of

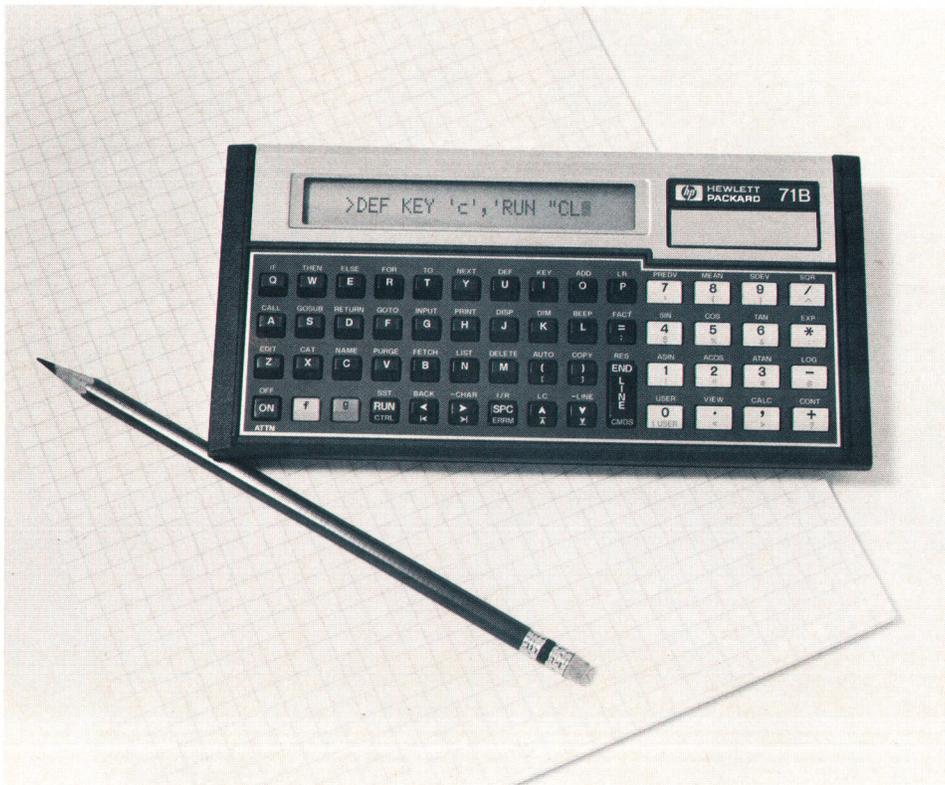


Fig. 1. The HP-71B Computer is HP's latest and most powerful handheld computer. Intended for use by the technical professional, it can be used as a highly advanced algebraic calculator and/or as a computer using a built-in 240-keyword BASIC programming language. Four ports allow addition of more RAM and/or ROM to expand system memory and to enhance the HP-71B's computational power. An optional hand-pulled card reader module can be added for local portable mass storage and an HP-IL module can be added for communication with peripherals and instruments.



Fig. 2. The HP-71B's liquid-crystal display provides a 22-character window into a 96-character line. The pixels forming the characters can be individually read and controlled for program input and special graphics output. Display contrast and optimum viewing angle can also be adjusted for user convenience.

ROM can be added to each port. The HP-71B can be further expanded by adding the optional handpulled 82400A Card Reader Module for mass storage and the 82401A HP-IL Interface Module for communication and control of peripherals such as display monitors, cassette drives, printers, and instruments.⁵

To take full advantage of the capability within its compact package, the machine has two modes. **CALC** mode (see box on page 6) is an algebraic calculator environment that makes intermediate calculations easy. BASIC mode is an environment in which programs can be entered, edited, and run. These two modes share the same variables and both have access to the many built-in math and statistics functions. The statistics functions can handle data for up to fifteen independent variables to calculate means, standard deviations, correlations, linear regression, and predicted values.

In all respects, the HP-71B is intended as a useful tool for the technical professional. The design philosophy was to provide the user with maximum capability wherever possible. An example of this philosophy is the implementation of variables. Variables remain intact until the user explicitly destroys them. Hence, variables set from the keyboard are available for use in programs. Also, the HP-71B implements dynamic variable allocation, meaning that users are freed from having to dimension arrays and allocate string variables at the beginning of their programs. Within a program, a variable can be dimensioned and used as an array, later destroyed (using the DESTROY statement), and then used as a scalar or redimensioned as a larger or smaller array. Dynamic variable allocation allows more ef-

ficient RAM use, since a program can prompt for input before variable allocation. In this way variables can be dimensioned based on current user input demands, eliminating wasteful RAM use based on worst-case (maximum anticipated size) variable allocation.

BASIC Language

While the HP-71B's custom four-bit parallel processor is optimized for fast, accurate BCD (binary-coded decimal) calculations, it is also well suited to minimize RAM requirements for BASIC code tokens. Each token occupies one or more nibbles (a nibble is four bits), a RAM economy more difficult to achieve with byte-oriented processors. HP-71B BASIC allows multistatement lines for further optimization of RAM use.

The BASIC operating system optimizes program branching. Labels allow branching to any statement. Aside from the added convenience and readability of labels, they are maintained as a linked list to reduce search time. When a line number reference is first encountered, the relative offset to the referenced statement is stored so that subsequent branches are faster.

HP-71B BASIC provides a real-time clock and three timers. Many of the programmable statements interact with the clock and timers so that with the addition of the optional 82401A HP-IL Interface Module, the HP-71B is an ideal choice for a low-cost, battery-powered controller.

The implementation of subprograms on the HP-71B helps make it an especially powerful handheld computer. Parameters can be passed to a subprogram by reference or by value. Subprograms can be written in BASIC or HP-71B

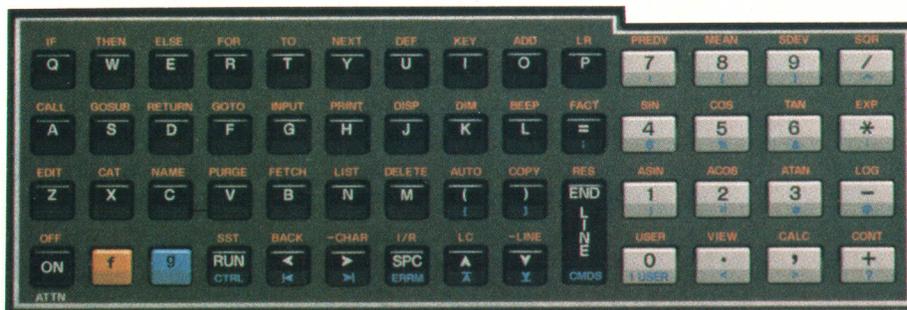


Fig. 3. Keyboard of the HP-71B Computer.

assembly language. (Assembly language subprograms offer increased system access as well as faster execution.) Whether the called subprogram is written in assembly language or BASIC, all variables and execution stacks in the calling environment are preserved.

A useful subprogram feature in the HP-71B is recursive programming. By allowing a subprogram to call itself, some advanced calculations can be done much more easily.

Display

A one-line, liquid-crystal display (Fig. 2) provides a 22-character window into a 96-character line. The display consists of 132 columns of eight dots each, called pixels. Each character displayed uses six columns. The sixth column is blank for character spacing. The display contrast and optimum viewing angle can be adjusted to one of 16 values for user convenience by using the **CONTRAST** command.

The standard character set contains 128 characters and an alternate set of 128 characters can be defined by the user. This character set may reside in RAM or a plug-in ROM, giving applications added flexibility in conveying information through the display.

In addition to increasing the character set, the user can take complete control of the pixels in the display. This allows simple graphics and eye-catching patterns to be displayed. It is also possible to read the pattern of pixels from the display, modify the pattern, and then redisplay it. This allows a number of useful applications to be written in BASIC, including column scrolling and a graphics editor.

To work around the limitations of the small display, special editing keys are included on the keyboard. These keys allow character inserting, replacing, and deleting, scrolling the 96-character line to the left or right, and deleting from the cursor position through the end of the line.

A command stack contains a history of the last five lines entered, so that the display is actually a window into a 96-character-by-5-line field. It is possible, through BASIC, to extend the command stack to 16 lines. The command stack is a major factor in the user friendliness of the HP-71B operating system, in that it allows easy error recovery, reduces user keystrokes, and minimizes dependence on an external monitor for editing large programs. For example, if an operation generates an error, the user can recall several lines to the display to determine what caused the problem. Often, when the problem is recognized, only one or two keystrokes are required to modify previous input, and using the line editing keys, lines are easily edited and reentered. The convenience of this becomes apparent when input lines contain up to 80 or 90 characters.

Keyboard

The HP-71B has a QWERTY-style keyboard for alphanumeric entry and a numeric keypad for convenient entry of numerical data (Fig. 3). To simplify programming and calculations, forty-two typing aids on the keyboard cover the most commonly used BASIC keywords and math and statistics functions. Accessed by using the gold **f** shift key, these typing aids are arranged in logical groupings of program branching, I/O, file management, trigonometry, and statistics keywords. Coupled with the user's ability to

add or substitute typing aids with redefined keys (discussed later), this holds user keystrokes to a minimum.

To further reduce user keystrokes, an implied **DISP** statement was implemented. Implied **DISP** almost eliminates the need to type in the keyword **DISP**, even in statements embedded in multistatement lines.

Customization and Expansion

A major question faced by the design team was how to build a useful handheld computer with maximum potential for expansion and customization. Part of the answer was to use **LEX** (language extension) files to extend and customize the operating system. **LEX** files do this in two ways. First, they provide a means of adding **BASIC** keywords to the operating system. Up to 256 keywords can be added per **LEX** file, in addition to the keywords already available in the base operating system and other **LEX** files. No capability is sacrificed when adding keywords to the machine—the operating system is just further enhanced. Second, **LEX** files can contain machine language routines called poll handlers that have an opportunity to respond when a particular piece of operating system code is executed. For example, poll handlers can be used to take over control of the display and keyboard, add file types to the system, and substitute local language messages for the existing English ones, making it easy to adapt software on the HP-71B to other languages. The challenge to the design team was to provide the hooks, known as polls, in all the key parts of the operating system so that the HP-71B could be customized for virtually any application.

Key Redefinition

Another design decision was to allow the keyboard to be redefined. Every key on the keyboard, along with its shifted definitions, can be redefined, except for the gold **f** and blue **g** shift keys. There are three types of key redefinitions. Two are typing aids. When these redefined keys are pressed, the characters assigned to the key are added to the display contents. One of the typing aids includes an implied **END LINE**, so that whatever the redefined key enters in the display line is then immediately executed. The third type of key redefinition executes the operation assigned to the redefined key without altering the display first. This type of key redefinition is useful for emulating **RPN** (reverse Polish notation) operation, in that a key can be redefined to call a program that reads the display for input and then performs the desired calculation. Then, all the user has to do to use **RPN** is type the input and hit the redefined key.

A keyboard redefinition is stored in a special file, known as a **KEY** file. For each application, a different **KEY** file can be created. These files can be maintained in RAM or stored on a mass storage medium such as a card. A particular **KEY** file can be designated as the current keyboard configuration whenever the corresponding application is being used.

File Management System

The HP-71B has a sophisticated file management system. Its memory can contain multiple files—the number is limited only by the amount of available RAM. The operating system recognizes seven file types (**BASIC**, **DATA**, **SDATA**, **TEXT**, **LEX**, **BIN**, and **KEY**), and allows **LEX** files to support

Calculator Mode for a Handheld Computer

As a computer, the HP-71B speaks BASIC. But how should it behave as a calculator? While BASIC allows the user to evaluate arithmetic expressions freely, experience has shown that this alone is unsatisfactory for experimental calculation—too much is hidden by the process. And RPN (reverse Polish notation), the simple but powerful language used by other HP calculators, seems inappropriate on this machine because its format differs from that used in BASIC expressions.

What's left? One possibility is the display-driven feedback loop used by some other handheld computers. This system is based on reparsing the contents of the machine's display buffer. It is easy to explain to the user and it delivers intermediate results, but all of the digits in those intermediate results must be in the display if accuracy is to be maintained. This is a very annoying property in a scientific calculator.

As a better alternative, the HP-71B uses an operator-precedence parser with value substitution (OP/VS). It accepts standard arithmetic expressions, just as BASIC does, but it evaluates them as they are entered, maintaining 12-digit accuracy regardless of the display setting. Also, it detects syntax errors in a very forgiving way.

A simplified version of this algorithm is presented by the flowcharts shown in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2. The simplified parser outlined in Fig. 1 recognizes expressions composed of integers and binary operators. Functions, monadic operators, and parentheses all add modest complications to the actual algorithm.

The use of OP/VS on the HP-71B Computer is called **CALC** mode. Aside from showing intermediate results, it has several helpful features that set it apart from other calculators:

- **Delimiter anticipation.** Hit the (key and a matching closing parenthesis is automatically entered in the HP-71B's display. Mismatched parentheses cannot occur in **CALC** mode. Also, **CALC** mode knows how many arguments a function requires. When a function name followed by an opening parenthesis is typed in, the correct number of commas are placed in the

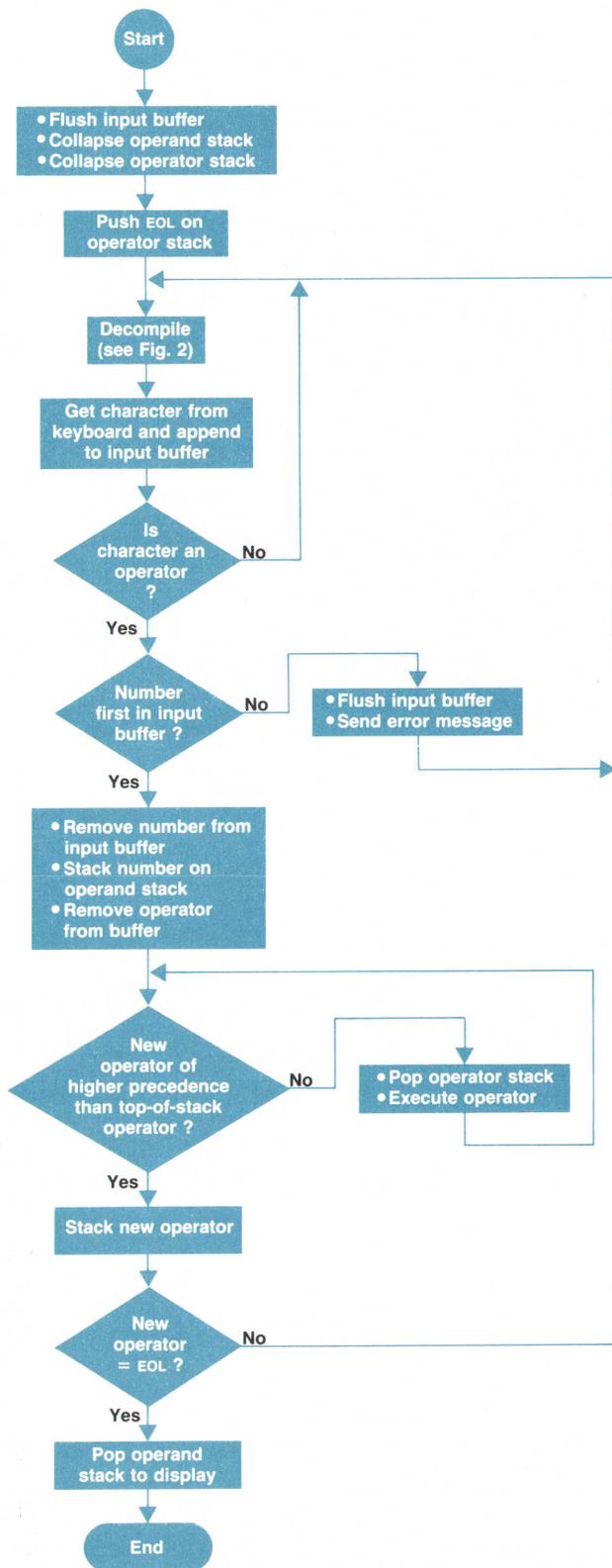


Fig. 1. Flowchart for operator-precedence parser with value substitution (OP/VS).

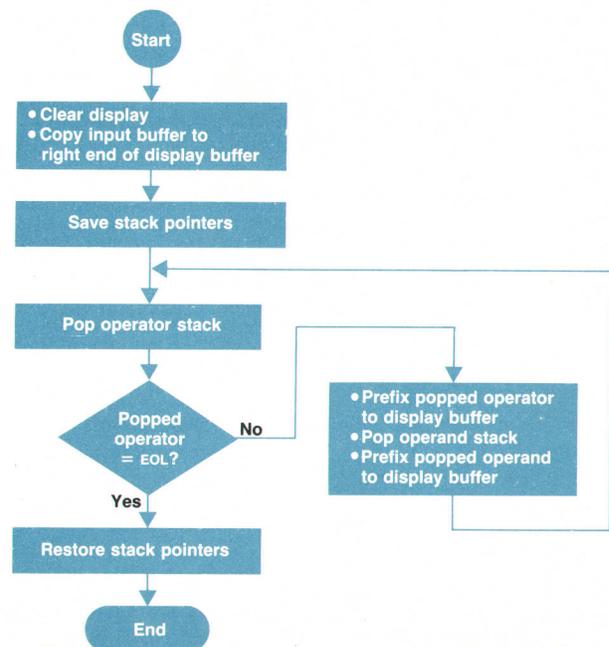


Fig. 2. Decompiler flowchart.

function's argument list in anticipation of the need for them.

- Implied result. For instance, take the case where the user calculates $4 \times 5 + 10$, and then decides to take the sine of this result. **CALC** mode makes this easy, since it understands empty parentheses to mean the previous result. For example, using the HP-71B's typing aid for **SIN** causes **SIN()** to be displayed by the HP-71B's liquid-crystal display; then pressing the **END LINE** key causes the HP-71B to calculate and display the sine of the result of the previous calculation.
- Backward execution. Experimental calculations are tentative; the user frequently wants to undo something and then try something else. Pressing the **BACK** key on the HP-71B's keyboard will undo as many operations as desired, one operation per press of the key—all the way back to the beginning of an expression. This feature was implemented at no cost in

user RAM.

- Command stack, key definitions, and user-defined functions. These features combine to make the HP-71B's **CALC** mode flexible and dynamic.

Acknowledgments

Special thanks to Eric Vogel, Bruce Stephens, and Frank Hall for assistance with the development of **CALC** mode, and to Stan Mintz for insisting that it be done.

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additional types as needed.

The HP-71B gives users the capability to partition the internal and plug-in RAM. Unless configured otherwise, plug-in RAM automatically extends system RAM, which contains not only files, but program control information, saved environments, and variables as well. However, RAM partitioned with the **FREE PORT** command is maintained as a separate, independent entity with its own set of files. RAM maintained in this way is called independent RAM. Once a RAM is freed in this manner, files can be created and edited on that RAM with the same commands that are used to edit a file in system RAM; the operation is transparent to the user. Files can be copied from an independent RAM to system RAM and vice versa. This memory partitioning can speed program execution in a number of ways. When files in memory are referenced with their optional location specifier, file search time is reduced. Having several smaller memory partitions instead of one very large one minimizes time spent moving memory when files change size or are purged. When the files on an independent RAM are no longer required and the RAM is needed to extend system RAM, the **CLAIM PORT** command is used to undo the **FREE PORT** command.

Dynamic memory movement, a complicated process to implement in any machine, was further complicated by the independent RAM capability. Every time files move (purging a file or changing the size of a file), all affected address references must be changed to reflect the new memory layout. To accomplish this, a reference adjust routine is called that adjusts all address references, including those saved on execution stacks (**FOR...NEXT** loops, **GOSUB**) and in saved environments. The algorithm for adjusting addresses had to take into account several factors:

- There can be many different file chains in RAM configured at disjoint addresses.
- Commands executed from the keyboard are executed out of a buffer that immediately follows the main file chain. A command can be a multistatement line in which any one or all of the statements cause files to move.
- A program can call a subprogram in another file, and the calling program can move in memory or even be purged.
- Any statement in a multiline user-defined function can move memory.

Updating addresses was among the bigger software design

challenges in making the user interface to files on independent RAMs friendly and transparent.

The added capability of independent RAMs required that some file commands previously defined for the HP-75 Computer⁶ be extended and that some new commands be added. For example, since files of the same name can exist simultaneously in system RAM and in independent RAM, the file catalog information indicates where in memory a file resides. In addition, all file commands (**COPY**, **PURGE**, **EDIT**, **TRANSFORM**, **CAT**, and **LIST**) allow an optional device specifier to indicate which memory device is being referenced. The **SHOW PORT** command was added to display information on all ROMs and independent RAMs configured in the system.

File Security

Included in the file management system are two levels of file security—secure and private. The **SECURE** statement allows users to protect their files from inadvertent modifications; it guards users against making a mistake they may regret. A secured file cannot be purged or modified, but can be unsecured with the **UNSECURE** statement. On the other hand, making a file private by executing the **PRIVATE** statement prevents people from copying software that they shouldn't have access to. A **PRIVATE** file can only be executed or purged; it cannot be modified or copied. Once a file is made private, it remains so—privacy cannot be undone. However, a **PRIVATE** file can be protected against erasure by using the **SECURE** statement and later unsecured by the **UNSECURE** statement so that it can be purged.

A global protection capability is also available by using the **LOCK** statement. With this statement, a user can prevent unauthorized use of an HP-71B by assigning a password. Then when the HP-71B is turned on, it requests the password, and if the entry is not correct, the HP-71B turns itself off. The password can only be bypassed by clearing all memory, in which case there is nothing left to protect.

The issue of security presented many design challenges. Since the **CLAIM PORT** command destroys any files in the independent RAM, special code was added so that use of the **CLAIM PORT** command results in an error message if any files in the RAM are secured. But the biggest challenge in maintaining file security was related to the implementation of the **PEEK\$** and **POKE** commands. Supporting file security from **BASIC** without **PEEK\$** and **POKE** was easy. However,

HP-IL Interface Module for the HP-71B Computer

The HP 82401A HP-IL Interface Module is designed to complement and extend the HP-71B Computer's capabilities by providing a powerful, flexible I/O structure. HP-IL (Hewlett-Packard Interface Loop) is Hewlett-Packard's standard serial interface for portable, battery-powered computers.¹ Major objectives for this plug-in module were I/O speed, flexibility, and easy integration with the HP-71B electronics and operating system. The module extends the print, display, and file transfer capabilities of the HP-71B, and provides a general I/O capability for use with instruments and other controllers, particularly in portable applications.

The 82401A consists of a plastic case, HP-IL input and output connectors, a custom eight-bit I/O processor, a 16K-byte ROM, and discrete components to reduce EMI (electromagnetic interference) and provide protection against damage caused by ESD (electrostatic discharge). (See Fig. 4 on page 20 for an exploded view of the HP 82401A.) This package plugs into a recess in the back of the HP-71B. A 254-page user manual explains and illustrates the use of the module and its software.

Module Architecture

A block diagram of the 82401A HP-IL Module's architecture is shown in Fig. 1. The module's 8-bit I/O processor, which draws its power from the HP-71B mainframe, handles the HP-IL protocol. This frees the HP-71B's CPU from the chores of driving the loop, thereby enhancing the overall speed of the system. The 16K-byte ROM enclosed within the module provides keyword extensions to the HP-71B BASIC operating system. These keywords allow the user to perform I/O operations such as device control, file transfer, and remote operations. The software in this ROM also provides support for up to three interface loops on the HP-71B. Secondary addressing provides I/O capability for using up to 930 devices on each loop.

The dual-CPU architecture combined with hardware optimized for automatic retransmission of frames in the module's I/O processor makes the HP-71B one of the fastest HP-IL controllers to date, with data transfer rates exceeding 5000 bytes per second.

I/O Processor

The module's I/O processor is an 8-bit CMOS microprocessor with on-chip ROM, RAM, and custom I/O interfaces. A building-block design approach reduced development time and the

amount of external circuitry required to support the module. The major blocks in this microprocessor are the CPU, an 8-bit prescalable timer/counter, an interface to the HP-71B system bus, and an interface to the HP-IL transmitters and receivers.

The I/O processor's firmware allows a higher-level interface to HP-IL than the traditional HP-IL Interface IC.² Rather than interfacing to the loop at a frame-by-frame level, the module's I/O processor enables the HP-71B to send commands such as "Address the loop" or "Find a device of this class." Data and commands are passed between the two CPUs through an eight-byte-wide mailbox, with each CPU controlling four bytes. Hardware-aided handshaking simplifies the message sending process.

The I/O processor provides input and output data buffers, each about 65 bytes long. The I/O processor implements the loop protocol until data is received or requested or an interrupt condition is met. By requesting service on the HP-71B system bus, the I/O processor signals the HP-71B that one of these conditions has occurred. The I/O processor maintains loop integrity—powers up the loop, keeps the frame timeouts—and maintains various loop conditions such as controller, talker, listener, and serial poll responses. With this information tucked away in the I/O processor, it is a natural extension to plug in another I/O processor, enabling multiple HP-IL loops to reside on the HP-71B.

Software

The module's 16K-byte ROM provides 50 keywords that extend the HP-71B BASIC operating system. Some are new keywords, and others are extensions to existing commands. Syntax for the keywords follows the I/O command syntax used on HP Series 80 and Series 200 Computers. File manipulation capabilities in the HP-71B are extended to work with HP-IL mass storage devices such as digital cassette and flexible disc drives. These extensions allow files to be created, purged, read, written, and protected. In addition, conversion between internal BASIC files and TEXT files is extended to HP-IL mass storage devices. Files specified in RUN and CHAIN statements are automatically copied from HP-IL as required.

The COPY keyword has been extended to allow file transfers to and from devices other than mass storage devices. This ability to copy a file to and from an interface (e.g., HP-IL to HP-IB) makes communication with other computers easy.

Start-Up

When the HP-71B is powered up, the 82401A scans the loop, identifying the types and locations of printer and display devices. Automatic PRINTER IS... and DISPLAY IS... assignments route printer and display output to appropriate peripherals, freeing the user from having to configure the machine manually to available peripherals. The display output is tailored to match the type of display device. For example, if a printer is assigned as the DISPLAY IS... device, the display output is sent after the user presses the END LINE key on the HP-71B. This avoids having any of the previous editing sequences appearing in the printout. If the loop is disconnected or the module is removed, output from PRINT and DISP commands reverts to the HP-71B's display.

Addressing

Flexibility in creating an application is enhanced through the implementation of six device specification modes. Two of these modes indicate a specific location of a loop, three modes identify a device by its name or device class, and the last refers to the volume label of a mass storage medium. An example is the specification of a device by describing its class. For instance,

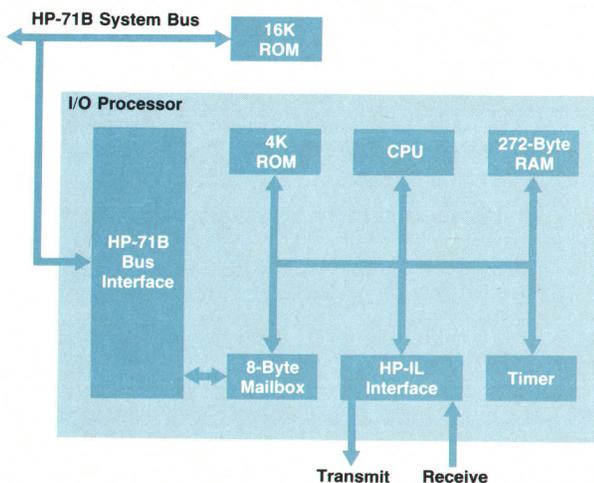


Fig. 1. Block diagram of the architecture of the HP 82401A HP-IB Interface Module for the HP-71B Computer.

the command `COPY BUDGET TO :TAPE` will copy a file `BUDGET` from the HP-71B's RAM to the first HP 82161A Digital Cassette Drive found on the loop. The command `CAT .MAIL` will return catalog information for the first mass storage volume found with a volume label `MAIL`.

Instrument Control

Multiple keywords are provided to simplify finding, polling, and setting up an instrument. All the various formatting options provided by the HP-71B mainframe are available for use with the HP-IL keywords for entering and outputting data. For special applications, the user can control devices at a frame-by-frame level.

The HP-71B can act either as system controller or as a device under the control of another computer on the loop. Keywords provided in the module's ROM allow the user to exchange control with other computers on the loop. An extension of this general capability allows another controller on the loop to give commands to the HP-71B as if they were coming from its keyboard. If the HP-71B is off at the time a command is received by the I/O processor, the HP-71B automatically turns on to process the

command. In addition, the HP-71B has the capability to recognize and respond to interrupts from the HP-IL while it acts as a device. This capability allows small-scale local area networking, resource sharing, and multipoint data collection applications.

Acknowledgment

Steve Chou assisted greatly with the 16K ROM code for the 82401A Module.

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once the decision was made to implement these two keywords, security became very complicated. The execution code for `POKE` contains many special checks to ensure that a protected file stays that way. `POKE` does not alter a protected file, but that alone is not sufficient. For example, the HP-71B file chain is a linked list in which each file header contains an offset to the next file in the chain. Hence, a special check was added to the `POKE` routine to guard against poking into the file length field. Otherwise, poking a larger offset into the length field of an unprotected file could make the following (possibly secured) file look like part of the preceding unprotected file, allowing it then to be poked at will.

Open Machine Concept and Documentation

The HP-71B is designed as an "open machine" to make it easier for others to do customization and expansion. The open machine concept is a statement of the design team's objective to maximize the scope of applications addressable by the HP-71B, acknowledging that individual users and outside vendors will help accomplish this.

To support this concept, a full detailed set of documentation was developed—a three-volume IDS (Internal Design Specification). The first volume contains information pertaining to the operating system design, such as data structures, system RAM configuration, file header layout, explanations of statement parse and decompile, how to write a `LEX` or `BIN` file, and how to write a poll handler. The second volume contains information on every supported entry point in the machine, including entry and exit conditions, subroutine level use, and register use. The third volume contains all the source code and documentation for the entire 64K-byte operating system. The first two volumes include a table of contents and an index.

As mentioned above, the `PEEK$` and `POKE` statements were implemented to allow low-level interaction with the operating system from `BASIC`. This is one of many areas in which Volume I of the IDS can be a valuable resource.

HP-IL

The optional 82401A HP-IL Interface Module (see box on page 8) enables the HP-71B to interface with a variety of peripherals at an enhanced data transfer rate of 5000 bytes per second, which is 25 times the HP-IL data rates on the earlier HP-41C Computer. The function set available in the 82401A eliminates any need for a separate I/O ROM for the HP-71B.

Software

The software pacs currently available for the HP-71B include Finance, Circuit Analysis, Surveying, Text Editor, Curve Fit, Math, and FORTH/Assembler. The Finance Pac has most of the functions of the HP-12C Calculator, with its user interface modeled after the arrangement of the HP-12C's top row of keys.

The Circuit Analysis Pac runs several times faster than previous circuit analysis software written for HP's Series 40 and Series 80 Computers. In addition, it can handle much larger circuits and is designed for use in a portable environment.

The Surveying Pac has a friendly file management system and solves for angular and linear relationships between multiple coordinate points.

The Text Editor Pac allows easy editing of `TEXT` files and provides formatting capability for any HP-IL printer, including ThinkJet. One of the many features of the formatter is the ability to write a single letter or memo and then specify a distribution list so that each document is personalized as it is formatted.

The Curve Fit, Math, and FORTH/Assembler Pacs are discussed in detail in the articles on pages 22, 24, and 37, respectively.

Acknowledgments

Engineers who contributed significantly to the design and implementation of the operating system include Janet Placido, Bruce Stevens, Nathan Meyers, Steve Abell, Steve Chou, Mark Banwarth, and Frank Hall. Stan Blascow, Paul

McClellan, and Joe Tanzini implemented the mathematics and built-in statistics. Richard Carone and Eric Evett were very influential in the operating system design through their guidance as project managers.

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Soft Configuration Enhances Flexibility of Handheld Computer Memory

by Nathan Meyers

SEVERAL IMPROVEMENTS incorporated into the custom CPU of the HP-71B Handheld Computer have considerably enhanced the speed and utility of this processor over those used in earlier HP handheld products. Most notably, a new feature of the bus architecture—soft memory configuration—has greatly increased the flexibility of the system. Soft configuration means that some devices occupying the address space do not have fixed locations; their addresses are assigned to them by the CPU. Putting the responsibility on software for configuring the system allows a tremendous amount of freedom in determining memory layout.

There are two categories of devices that occupy address space: memory (RAM and ROM) and memory-mapped I/O (input/output devices that use a small piece of address space to communicate with the CPU). The HP-71B operating system software is responsible for assigning addresses to all such devices somewhere within the available 512K-byte address space. This task is handled by a 1500-byte routine that executes whenever the computer powers up, cold starts, executes FREE PORT or CLAIM PORT commands, or recovers from a module-pulled condition or an INIT sequence.

The challenge in designing the memory configuration software was to come up with a scheme that would offer flexibility in the RAM/ROM mix, maximize the use of the address space, allow for future device types to be defined, and, of course, work within the electrical constraints of the devices being configured.

Memory Layout

The HP-71B's CPU and all other devices reside in a 1M-nibble (a nibble is half of a byte) address space that ranges from hexadecimal address 00000 to hexadecimal address FFFFF. Certain devices are hard-configured as follows:

| Address Range | Device(s) |
|----------------|------------------------------------|
| 00000 to 1FFFF | Operating system ROMs |
| 2C000 to 2C01F | Card reader interface |
| 2E100 to 2E3FF | Bit-mapped display and timers |
| 2F400 to 2FFFF | RAM in display driver chips (1.5K) |

All other devices are soft-configured in the remaining address space. Specifically, memory-mapped I/O is configured in the space from 20000 to 2C000, extensions to system RAM (memory available to the user) are configured upward from 30000, and ROMs are configured in the space remaining above the end of system RAM (indicated by a pointer called RAMEND).

System RAM begins in the hard-configured RAM (the exact address is a function of system requirements) and extends upward according to how many additional RAMs are available. An HP-71B with nothing plugged into its four ports contains 16K bytes of soft-configurable RAM, so system RAM extends to 37FFF.

System RAM contains a file chain (a linked list of files) and buffer list built upward from low memory, and stacks and variables built downward from high memory, as shown in Fig. 1. Each plug-in ROM contains a file chain that begins +8 nibbles relative to the beginning of the ROM and is structured exactly like the file chain in system RAM. ROMs contain nothing analogous to the variables, stacks, and buffers stored in system RAM.

Electrical Behavior of Devices

Soft-configurable devices have data and control lines to interface to the system bus and two additional lines, DAISY-IN and DAISY-OUT, used to make the configuration scheme work. These lines are used in a serial "daisy chain" to establish an order as shown in Fig. 2.

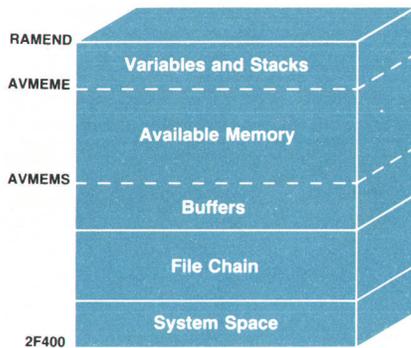


Fig. 1. Organization of HP-71B system RAM in the memory address space. AVMEMS and AVMEME are pointers marking the start and the end of the available RAM address space.

Devices have two configuration states—configured and unconfigured. When configured, a device occupies address space and responds to normal memory-access instructions (i.e., reads and writes). In this state, DAISY-OUT = DAISY-IN. A configured device can be unconfigured by two bus commands: RESET, which unconfigures all devices, and UNCNFG, which unconfigures a device at a specific address.

When a device is unconfigured, it does not occupy address space. In this state, its DAISY-OUT line is held low. The device will respond to only two bus commands, and only when its DAISY-IN line is high: ID, which causes the device to supply a 5-nibble identification, and CONFIG, which causes the device to become configured to a specified address. These daisy-chain conventions ensure that only the first unconfigured device on the chain responds to these commands. By holding DAISY-IN high to the first device, the software obtains the device's identification, then configures it and moves on to the next device. In this way, all devices on a daisy chain are configured.

The ID command is an important part of the configuration scheme, since it identifies the device's type, size, and other pertinent information. The five digits supplied in response to an ID command contain the following information:

- Nibble 0 = $14 - \log_2$ (size in K bytes) for memory (value of 9 to F allowed for RAM, 7 to F allowed for other memory) and = $18 - \log_2$ (size in K bytes) for memory-mapped I/O.
- Nibble 1 is reserved for future use.
- Nibble 2 = device type. 0 = RAM, 1 = ROM, 2 to E = unassigned, and F = memory-mapped I/O.
- Nibble 3 is unassigned if memory. If memory-mapped I/O, 0 identifies the HP-IL mailbox and 1 to F are unassigned.
- Nibble 4's high bit is set if device is last in the daisy chain. A device cannot be configured to just any arbitrary ad-

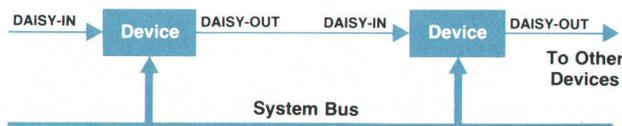


Fig. 2. Soft-configurable devices in the HP-71B are connected in daisy-chain fashion and each device has its own control and data lines connected to the system bus.

dress. Its configuration address must be on a boundary corresponding to its internal address space. That is, a 1K-byte RAM must be configured on a 1K-byte address boundary. Electrically, the upper nine bits of its address serve as a chip select address while the lower eleven bits serve as internal addressing within its 2K-nibble space.

There are six daisy chains, called ports, in the HP-71B (Fig. 3). The first one, port 0, runs through the 16K bytes of built-in system RAM and then to the HP-IL port. DAISY-IN to the first chip in port 0 is tied high. The next four chains are those going to the four module ports in the front of the computer; they are software-switchable lines from the CPU. The last daisy chain, port 5, is a software-switchable line from the CPU to the port for the optional card reader, allowing installation of soft-configurable devices in that port.

Configuration Design Challenges

The configuration software must determine which devices are present, where they should be configured and, most important, how to preserve the integrity of the system when the memory configuration is changed. Some of the major challenges that had to be met during the development of the configuration code are discussed below.

Determining what's out there. The code needs to have a complete inventory of what devices are available before it can decide how to configure the system. To get this information, the software performs an identification prepass, in which it requests each chip's identification and then configures the chip to address 40000. First, all chips in port 0 are identified and configured; this is necessary because the DAISY-IN line to that port cannot be turned off. Once all port 0 chips are configured, the software energizes each successive daisy chain and identifies and configures all chips on that chain. A table is built in hard-configured RAM that will be used to assign addresses later. Configuring all devices to the same address at this time is not a problem as long as the code does not try to access the devices. The chips will later be unconfigured and reconfigured to their assigned addresses.

The table does not contain one entry for every chip. Instead, every sequence of identical chips in a module results in one table entry. A 4K-byte RAM plug-in module, for example, would have a table entry identifying it as containing four 1K-byte chips. An HP-IL module results in two table entries—one for its ROM and one for its electronic interface (mailbox). After the table is built, it is split into three subtables: RAM, ROM, and memory-mapped I/O. Each is handled differently. By processing the chips by device type rather than by port number, the software is fairly insensitive to a plug-in module's exact position. RAMs needn't occupy adjacent ports to work properly. In fact, the port number is not the most important factor in determining a chip's address, as we shall see later.

Extending the user RAM. To be useful, the user RAM must be a contiguous extension of memory from address 30000 (where hard-configured RAM ends). Given the configuration address boundary requirements mentioned above, this presents some difficulty in assigning addresses.

To resolve this difficulty, the RAM subtable is sorted in order of size—largest to smallest. Then addresses are assigned. Since the RAM configuration begins at address 30000 and

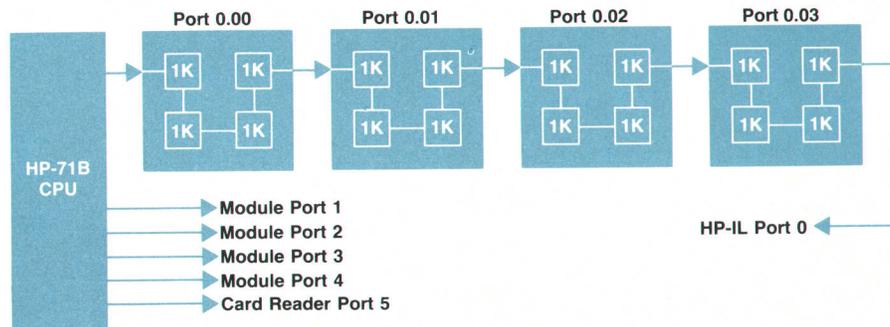


Fig. 3. There are six daisy-chain configurations in the HP-71B labeled as ports 0 through 5 as shown.

since all RAM chips must be 512×2^n bytes ($n = 0, 1, \dots, 6$), this ensures that all RAM chips can be configured contiguously and on legal address boundaries. (The port number is a secondary sort key. Devices with the same chip size are configured in port number order.) For example, suppose an HP-71B Computer contains the following RAMs:

- Port 0: Built-in 16K-byte RAM in 1K-byte chips.
- Port 1: 4K-byte RAM module consisting of four 1K-byte chips.
- Port 2: 16K-byte RAM module consisting of four 4K-byte chips. (This is a theoretical example; at this time there is no such module available.)
- Port 4: 16K-byte module consisting of two 8K-byte chips (also theoretical example).

For this case, addresses will be assigned as follows (remember, this is a nibble-oriented address space):

- 30000 to 33FFF: First chip in port 4
- 34000 to 37FFF: Second chip in port 4
- 38000 to 39FFF: First chip in port 2
- 3A000 to 3BFFF: Second chip in port 2
- 3C000 to 3DFFF: Third chip in port 2
- 3E000 to 3FFFF: Fourth chip in port 2
- 40000 to 407FF: First chip in port 0
- 40800 to 40FFF: Second chip in port 0
-
-
- 47800 to 47FFF: Sixteenth chip in port 0
- 48000 to 487FF: First chip in port 1
- 48800 to 48FFF: Second chip in port 1
- 49000 to 497FF: Third chip in port 1
- 49800 to 49FFF: Fourth chip in port 1

At this early stage of the configuration code, the chips are not yet configured to these addresses. These addresses are merely written into the RAM subtable. The configuring of chips to their assigned addresses occurs after all chips in all subtables are assigned addresses. For continuity, however, this article will continue to discuss the challenges of system RAM configuration before moving on to other types of devices.

Accommodating new RAM plug-ins. What if the user turns off the machine and inserts additional RAM plug-ins? The configuration code must be able to restore system integrity. Therefore, the configuration tables are not thrown away after the system configuration is completed. They are kept in the configuration buffer area in RAM. The tables can then be used to compare the old configuration to the new configuration, and the code can determine what must be

done to restore system integrity. For example, assume that an HP-71B is configured with a 4K-byte plug-in memory module in port 2, and that the memory is occupied as shown in Fig. 4a. Now assume that the user turns off the machine and plugs another 4K-byte module into port 1 and a 16K-byte module consisting of two 8K-byte chips (theoretical device used for illustration purposes) in port 3. Following the configuration rules explained above, the memory will now look as shown in Fig. 4b. Adding RAM introduces "bubbles" into the memory that, in this example, disrupt the integrity of both the file chain and the stack space. To solve this problem, the configuration code compares the old and new configuration tables and determines which RAM devices are new (in new table but not in old table) and which RAM devices are missing (in old table but not in new table). If any devices are missing that were not contained entirely in available memory, the computer performs a cold start (memory reset), since this is an unrecoverable disruption of system integrity. If there are any new devices, the configuration code rearranges the contents of memory to restore integrity. By moving data around, it effectively moves the bubbles into available memory (Fig. 4c). The code is general enough to handle any number of new bubbles and restore system integrity properly.

Devising a method to remove RAM modules nondestructively and having a ROM-like RAM, with an independent file chain similar to plug-in ROMs. These two challenges are mentioned together because they have the same solution. That solution is known as "independent RAM."

An independent RAM (IRAM) is treated like a ROM. It is not configured as part of system RAM, and can therefore be removed without destroying system integrity. It contains a file chain just like a ROM, and any IRAM that can retain data when unplugged (a technological possibility) can be used to transfer programs between machines.

The user can designate any RAM to be an IRAM by executing the FREE PORT command, and can unfix an IRAM with the CLAIM PORT command. Since it is not possible for the software to change a chip's identification (to distinguish an IRAM from a RAM), IRAMs are implemented by writing a special sequence of 8 nibbles to the beginning of a RAM module. When the configuration identification code is executed as described earlier, each RAM module is first configured to address 80000 and the first 8 nibbles are read. If they match the special IRAM sequence, the RAM is treated like a ROM; its table entry goes into the ROM subtable and the module is not configured as system RAM.

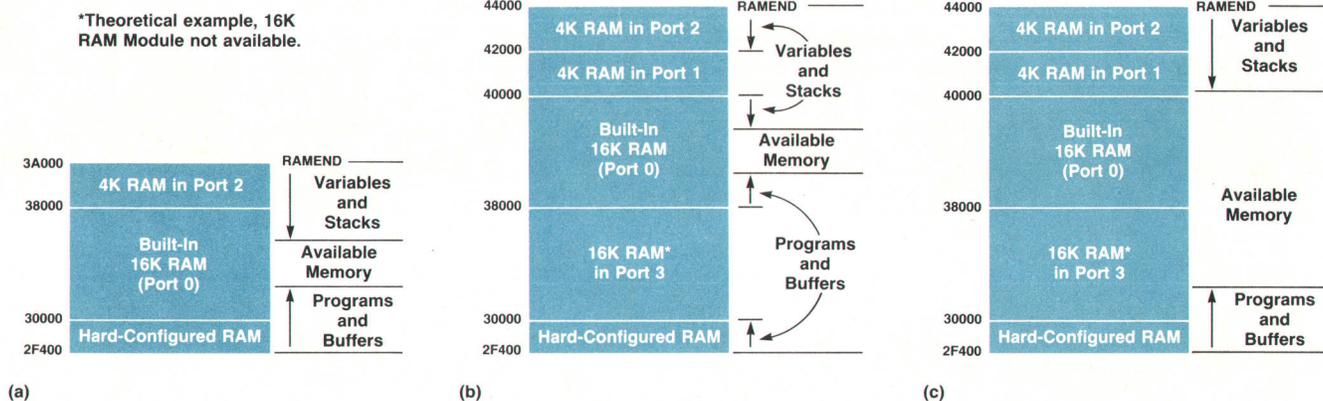


Fig. 4. (a) HP-71B system RAM configuration with a 4K-byte RAM module plugged into port 2. (b) System RAM configuration after another 4K-byte RAM module is plugged into port 1 and a theoretical 16K-byte RAM module (used for illustration purposes) is inserted into port 3. This leaves gaps or bubbles in the address space which are then moved by the configuration software to the available memory address space as shown in (c).

When the user frees a RAM module, the FREE PORT software verifies that there is enough available memory to remove the RAM. If so, it rearranges memory to exclude the designated RAM, writes the 8-nibble IRAM sequence to it, marks the old configuration table to indicate that this RAM was deliberately removed (so that a cold start will not be performed when the RAM is discovered missing) and executes the configuration software.

This ends the discussion of system RAMs. The problems of configuring ROMs and memory-mapped I/O are much more straightforward. As with RAMs, the software builds tables identifying which ROMs and memory-mapped I/O devices are plugged in. The main purpose of these tables is to record where everything is so, for example, the HP-71B's operating system can locate all of the file chains or the 82401A HP-IL Module's software can determine where its mailbox is configured.

Configuring ROMs efficiently in the remaining address space. In all discussion here, "ROM" is shorthand for all memory devices that are not used as system RAM: ROM, IRAM, and any possible future memory types.

Unlike system RAM, ROM has much looser requirements for what goes where. The only restriction is that identical devices in a plug-in be configured together in daisy-chain order. In other words, a 32K-byte ROM module containing two 16K-byte chips must be configured with the chips next to each other in the address space—this keeps the file chain in one piece. There is, however, also a need to use address space efficiently in configuring ROMs. ROMs can get quite large, and 512K bytes of address space is easy to use up. The configuration software handles the problem by sorting the ROM subtable by size (as with RAMs) and configuring from largest to smallest.

Unfortunately, simply configuring upward from RAMEND is usually not possible, since RAMEND will not, in general, occur at a legal configuration address for a large ROM. So the software breaks the ROM configuration into two parts:

1. For large chips (32K bytes and larger), the software configures the module at the highest legal configuration

address that will hold it. So a 96K byte ROM module consisting of three 32K-byte chips will be configured at the highest 32K-byte address boundary that is capable of hosting 96K bytes of contiguous memory without configuring over something else (such as the operating system ROM or other large chips).

2. For small chips (16K bytes or less), modules are configured contiguously in the holes remaining after the large chips are configured.

Configuring memory-mapped I/O devices. These are devices that occupy address space, but are not memory. The HP-IL mailbox is an example; it occupies 8 bytes of address space that the CPU reads from or writes to when performing HP-IL operations. To meet this need, a separate part of the address space (20000 to 2BFFF) is designated for use by memory-mapped I/O. The sizes handled here are very different from those of memory. Memory-mapped I/O devices typically occupy only 8, 16, or 32 bytes of address space. To make efficient use of the available address space, memory-mapped I/O devices are configured in order of their size (as with system RAM).

Configuring everything in daisy-chain order after addresses are assigned. The three subtables are merged and sorted by port number and daisy-chain position. The software then steps through the tables, configuring each device to its assigned address. The subtables are once again separated and saved in the configuration buffer area for future reference.

Acknowledgments

The HP-71B bus architecture, including the feature of soft configuration, was conceived by James P. Dickie and David M. Rabinowitz of HP's Personal Computer Division.

Custom CMOS Architecture for a Handheld Computer

by James P. Dickie

THE ELECTRONICS SYSTEM for the HP-71B Computer is based on seven custom CMOS integrated circuits and a liquid-crystal display (LCD) designed into a package that allows users to customize the HP-71B easily to their needs. A simplified block diagram of the mainframe system is shown in Fig. 1. The system is battery-powered, requiring no power supply, and consists of a CPU and three display drivers mounted on the underside of the keyboard/display printed circuit board. A four-chip 64K-byte ROM hybrid and four 4K-byte RAM hybrids are mounted on the I/O printed circuit board. The four RAM hybrids in combination with the 1.5K bytes of display driver RAM provide 17.5K bytes of built-in RAM. Connections to the four RAM/ROM ports in the front of the HP-71B and the HP-IL (Hewlett-Packard Interface Loop) port in the back of the machine are made via the I/O printed circuit board. The port for the optional card reader connects to the keyboard printed circuit board.

The CPU was designed and optimized for use in handheld computer products. It uses a 64-bit internal word size, operates on a 4-bit data path, and uses 20-bit addresses to provide a 512K-byte address space (the largest available in this size of machine). The large address space eliminates the problem previous systems had in bank-switching ROMs and RAMs to obtain a larger memory space. The instruction set is based on the style of architecture used in the HP-41C Computer¹ and is oriented toward the arithmetic nature of handheld calculators with the capability of both hexadecimal and binary-coded decimal (BCD) arithmetic.

The CPU incorporates two functions normally delegated to support chips—keyboard control and clock generation. The keyboard logic consists of a general-purpose input register (16 lines) with interrupt capability and a general-purpose output register (12 lines). The output register is also used to drive the daisy chains to each port (see article about

memory configuration on page 10) and, in combination with external circuitry, to drive the piezoelectric beeper at one of two selected audio levels.

Three display driver ICs drive the 8-row-by-136-column (including annunciators) liquid-crystal display. One of these three drivers acts as the master and generates the display clock, the voltage reference, and the display-on signal used by the other two display chips (slaves). A 4-bit software-controlled register modifies the display contrast and optimum viewing angle by adjusting the value of the voltage reference signal. The master/slave function and addressing of a display driver chip are selected by two configuration pins that are tied high or low on the printed circuit board. Each driver chip supplies 512 bytes of hard-configured RAM and a 24-bit crystal-controlled oscillator timer with $\frac{1}{512}$ -second resolution. The timers are used by the HP-71B's operating system to implement the real-time clock system.

The optional 82400A Card Reader Module provides the HP-71B Computer with inexpensive mass storage. The handpulled magnetic cards can each record up to 1300 bytes. The card format and modified frequency modulation (MFM) coding are the same as that used by the internal card reader of the HP-75 Computer,² which allows an interchange of TEXT files recorded with the HP-75's LIF 1 format.

The 82400A consists of a two-chip hybrid, the external components for the analog circuit, and a three-coil magnetic head in a self-aligning mount. The analog IC, which is a modification of the IC^{2,3} used by the HP-75's card reader, receives signals from the head and converts them to digital signals. The hybrid digital IC converts the serial MFM coding into data bytes and buffers them for the HP-71B.

The 82401A HP-IL Interface Module (see box on page 8) provides the HP-71B with high-speed I/O and the capability

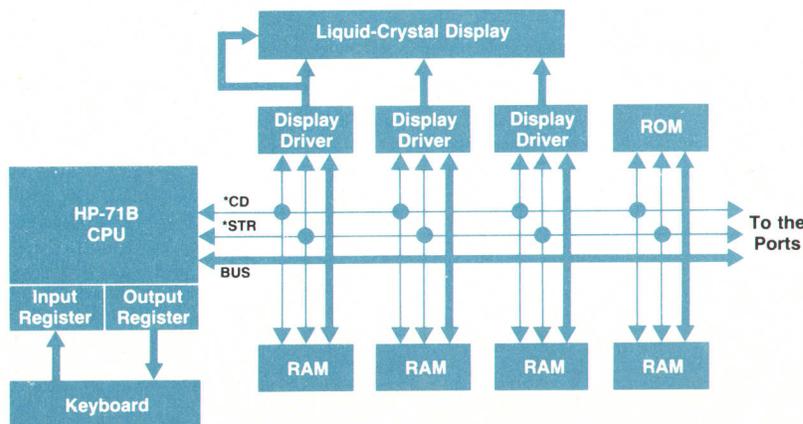


Fig. 1. Simplified block diagram of the HP-71B mainframe system electronics.

to drive the whole line of HP-IL peripherals. This module is the first HP-IL interface that supports the entire HP-IL definition in the base configuration. Using primary addressing, up to 31 peripherals can be controlled, and up to 930 peripherals can be controlled through secondary addressing. The 82401A is designed to allow the HP-71B to be a loop device or controller as well as an interface for up to three loops.

The 82401A consists of a two-chip hybrid containing a 16K-byte ROM and a newly designed I/O processor that allows block communication transfer rates in excess of 5000 bytes/s. Also included are discrete components required for isolation, electrostatic discharge (ESD) protection, and impedance matching.

System Bus

The HP-71B bus structure was developed for use in hand-held computer products. The structure maximizes the performance of the system while minimizing the interconnect required for each system IC or port.

The system bus is a fully multiplexed 4-bit address, instruction, data, and command bus. In addition, there are two control signals—a bus clock *STR (also referred to as strobe) and a command/data signal *CD. The bus commands used by this system are listed in Table I. *STR is driven by the CPU and serves to synchronize all bus transfers. *STR is not a true system clock, since it can remain inactive (high) for cycles when the CPU is busy performing internal operations. The *CD line indicates whether data on the bus is a command (*CD low) or data (*CD high). In addition, memory devices may have two other lines: DAISY-IN and DAISY-OUT. The architecture of this system allows memory to be located dynamically in the overall address space of the CPU (512K bytes) and these two lines are used during the address assignment process (soft configuration, see article on page 10).

All bus operations are initiated by the CPU. The CPU starts a specific transfer on the bus by driving the *CD line low before *STR goes low. While *CD and *STR are low, the CPU drives a command on the bus and all devices in the

Table I
HP-71B System Bus Commands

| Code | Mnemonic | Action |
|------|----------|--|
| 0 | NOP | All devices ignore *STR until a new command is loaded. |
| 1 | ID | The unconfigured device that sees its daisy-chain input high sends its five-nibble identification code on the following data strobes. |
| 2 | PC READ | Read using program counter. The device selected by the system program counter sends data addressed by its local program counter on the following data strobes. All devices increment their local program counters each data strobe. |
| 3 | DP READ | Read using data pointer. The device selected by the system data pointer sends data addressed by its local data pointer on the following data strobes. All devices increment their local data pointers each data strobe. |
| 4 | PC WRITE | Write using program counter. The device selected by the system program counter loads the data on the following strobes into the location addressed by its local program counter. All devices increment their local program counter each data strobe. |
| 5 | DP WRITE | Write using data pointer. The device selected by the system data pointer loads the data on the following data strobes into the location addressed by its local data pointer. All devices increment their local data pointer each data strobe. |
| 6 | LOAD PC | Load program counter. All devices load the data on the following data strobes into their local program counter, low-order nibble first. After all five nibbles are transferred, the command code is automatically changed to 2. |
| 7 | LOAD DP | Load data pointer. All devices load the data on the following data strobes into their local data pointers, low-order nibble first. After all five nibbles are transferred, the command code is automatically changed to 2. |
| 8 | CONFIG | The unconfigured device that sees its daisy-chain input high loads the following five data nibbles into its configuration register, low-order nibble first. |
| 9 | UNCNFG | The device currently addressed by its local data pointer unconfigures itself. The device then responds to CONFIG and ID commands only. The local data pointers must be loaded immediately preceding an UNCNFG command. |
| A | POLL | All chips that require service pull one data line high during the next *STR low. |
| B | | Reserved |
| C | BUSCC | The device currently addressed by its local data pointer performs a specialized operation as defined by the individual device. |
| D | | Reserved |
| E | SHUTDOWN | When the CPU has received a SHUTDN instruction it issues this command and turns off its oscillator. Each device responds based on its own special requirements. |
| F | RESET | All devices reset their configuration flags (if applicable) and perform other local resets based on their own special requirements. |

system latch the command on the rising edge of *STR. This strobe is referred to as a command strobe. The command issued during a command strobe specifies the operation that is to be performed on each succeeding *STR until another command is issued. At all times when data or an address is being transferred, *CD is held high. A strobe issued while *CD is high is referred to as a data strobe.

Addressing

Each device that resides on the HP-71B system bus has two 20-bit address registers—the local program counter and the local data pointer. A device responds to data reads and writes only if its local address register (program counter or data pointer depending on the read or write command) is within its address configuration. Only the address of the first nibble of data to be transferred needs to be sent, since both the program counter and the data pointer are capable of incrementing once each data strobe. This greatly reduces the movement of addresses on the bus. Each device is either permanently addressed (hard-configured) at a specific address or capable of being dynamically located (soft-configured) at many addresses.

A soft-configurable device also has an ID register and a configuration register. The ID register is a 20-bit read-only register programmed to provide device specific information required to identify its classification (RAM, ROM, memory-mapped I/O, etc), memory size, and in some cases, positional information (such as last device in a module). The configuration register is up to 20 bits in length and positions the device within the system memory space. The actual size of this register is determined by the number of upper-order bits required to specify the device completely.

The HP-71B's operating system allows soft-configured devices to have address spaces ranging in size from 8 bytes to 128K bytes. All devices are configured such that the upper-order bits of the local address register are compared with the upper-order bits of the device configuration register (hard or soft). If these bits are identical, the device has an address match and responds to read and write commands. The number of upper-order bits compared is determined by the number required to specify the device's memory size within the total address space. For example, a device with an address space size of 1K bytes (2K nibbles) requires eleven bits of address, leaving the upper nine bits for its configuration address.

Configuration

A soft-configured device powers up unconfigured. When unconfigured, a device only responds to the ID and CONFIG commands and drives its DAISY-OUT line low. The ID command identifies a device before it is configured in the system. If a soft-configured device is unconfigured and sees its DAISY-IN line high, it outputs its five-nibble identification code (low-order nibble first) on the five data strobes that follow the ID command.

A soft-configured device is assigned its configuration address by the CONFIG command. If an unconfigured device sees its DAISY-IN line high, it loads the configuration address issued on the five data strobes immediately following the CONFIG command (low-order nibble first) into its configuration register. A device may latch only the number of high-

order bits it requires as determined by its memory size. On the following command strobe, the device sets its configuration flag.

Once configured, a device no longer responds to either an ID or a CONFIG command, and drives its DAISY-OUT line to the same logic level as its DAISY-IN line. The DAISY-OUT line of one device may be tied to the DAISY-IN line of a second device. In this manner many devices are daisy-chained together so that they are configured individually to different addresses. After being configured, a device waits until the next command strobe to set its configuration flag. This delays the change in its DAISY-OUT line so that the next device on the daisy chain is not configured simultaneously.

A device may be unconfigured by either a RESET or an UNCNFG command. The RESET command simultaneously unconfigures all soft-configured devices in the system. A device responds to an UNCNFG command by clearing its configuration flag if the data pointer is within its address configuration.

A hard-configured device powers up configured to a specific address and does not respond to an ID, CONFIG, or UNCNFG command. A RESET command does not affect its configuration. If the device has a DAISY-OUT line, it is always driven to the same logic level as its DAISY-IN line.

Data Transfers

The CPU reads the contents of a specific address location by first sending a LOAD PC or LOAD DP command followed by the five-nibble address. The address is sent, least-significant nibble first, with the data being latched on the rising edge of *STR. After the last address nibble is loaded, the command automatically changes to a PC READ or DP READ and the addressed device sends one nibble each strobe. The CPU may also perform a read without sending a new address by issuing a PC READ or DP READ command. The addressed device responds by sending one nibble each strobe.

The CPU writes the contents of a specific addressed location in a similar manner. The address need not be loaded before a write operation. A write is performed by issuing a PC WRITE or DP WRITE command followed by the data to be written. If the address is required before the write operation, the CPU issues a LOAD PC or LOAD DP command followed by the five-nibble address. After the address is loaded, the CPU issues a PC WRITE or DP WRITE command and places the data to be written on the bus.

All devices increment their local address registers once each data strobe during read and write operations. It is possible for a read or write operation to begin in one device and cross the address boundary into another device. Currently the CPU reads or writes up to 16 nibbles during an operation, but the architecture allows reading and writing more than 16 nibbles at a time.

Shutdown and Wakeup

The CPU has two fundamental states—operating and standby. To place the CPU in standby mode, a SHUTDOWN instruction is issued. The CPU sends the SHUTDOWN command and on the ensuing cycle stops the system clock (*STR) and its own clock. In standby mode, all CPU-resident

and system memory is preserved.

The CPU is brought out of standby mode either by pulling an input register line high (pressing a key), or by driving the *CD line low. On wakeup the CPU starts its clock and immediately drives *CD low with a NOP command. If the CPU detects that a severe low-voltage condition has occurred while it was in standby mode, the CPU program counter is forced to zero and hexadecimal mode arithmetic is asserted. A LOAD PC is the first command issued after the NOP command and the current CPU program counter value is loaded into all devices' local program counters. At this point, the standard instruction fetch sequence is initiated. If the CPU was awakened by an input register and interrupts are enabled, then a normal interrupt occurs before an instruction fetch.

*CD is driven low to wake up the CPU by a device in the system that needs service while the system is in standby mode. If a device wakes up the CPU and the CPU shuts down without satisfying the device's need for service, the device may not wake up the CPU again until the service request has been satisfied. This avoids a situation where the operating system does not know how to handle a device's service request and therefore is not allowed to shut down.

Service Poll

If a device needs service while the CPU is operating, it must either wait until the CPU executes a service request instruction (SREQ), or if it has the capability, interrupt the CPU using IR14 (available at all ports). The SREQ instruction causes the CPU to issue a POLL command, followed by one data strobe during which the CPU latches the bus data in the manner of a usual read. A device may respond to the service poll by pulling one of the bus lines high. Since the CPU precharges the bus low every cycle before *STR goes low, the data read by the CPU is a binary OR of all device responses.

The following HP-71B devices can wake up the CPU and can respond to a service poll on the bus line shown:

| Device | Bus Line | Service Request |
|----------------|----------|---|
| Display Driver | BUS[0] | Timer underflow |
| HP-IL Chip | BUS[1] | Data available, interrupt, power-on reset, loop service request |
| Card Reader | BUS[2] | FIFO (first in, first out) servicing, error condition. |

Acknowledgments

There were many engineers who made significant contributions to the development of the electronics for the HP-71B. Among these, Dave Rabinowitz made valuable contributions to the bus architecture and CPU definition, Dan Rudolph designed the display driver IC, C. T. Wang designed the RAM IC, Van Walther designed the ROM, John McVey characterized the CPU and pushed it into production, Bob Puckette became our ESD/EMI expert, and Carl Johnson provided overall system support. The HP 82400A Card Reader Module was developed by Megha Shyam, Bill Saltzstein, and Loren Heisey. A family of I/O processors that include the processor for the 82401A HP-IL Interface Module was developed by Dave Rabinowitz, Grant Garner, Don Reid, Dave Serisky, Preston Brown, and Charles Brown.

A special thanks to the many people in HP's Corvallis Components Operation who made significant contributions to the support of the ICs designed. These include Max Schuller, Tim Hublely, Bob Dunlap, Mike Gilsdorf, Dane Rogers, Stan Gibbs, Scott Linn, Jim Hutchins, Joe Szuecs, Von Soutavong, Doug Peck, Gary McDaniel, and the rest of the packaging and fab personnel who made major efforts to help the project succeed.

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Packaging the HP-71B Handheld Computer

by Thomas B. Lindberg

THE PACKAGING OF THE HP-71B COMPUTER is heavily based on the proven designs of the HP Series 10 Calculators and the earlier HP-75 Computer.¹ The styling follows a similar horizontal format, offering a block QWERTY keyboard with a numeric pad on the right side. Fig. 1 shows an exploded view of the HP-71B and identifies many of the components discussed below.

Mainframe

The HP-71B mainframe is formed by two subassemblies: the top case assembly and the bottom case assembly. The two subassemblies are electrically connected by a flexible circuit, which is reflow soldered in place using focused infrared light. As with the HP-75 Computer and the Series 10 Calculators, aluminum overlays in the case halves are

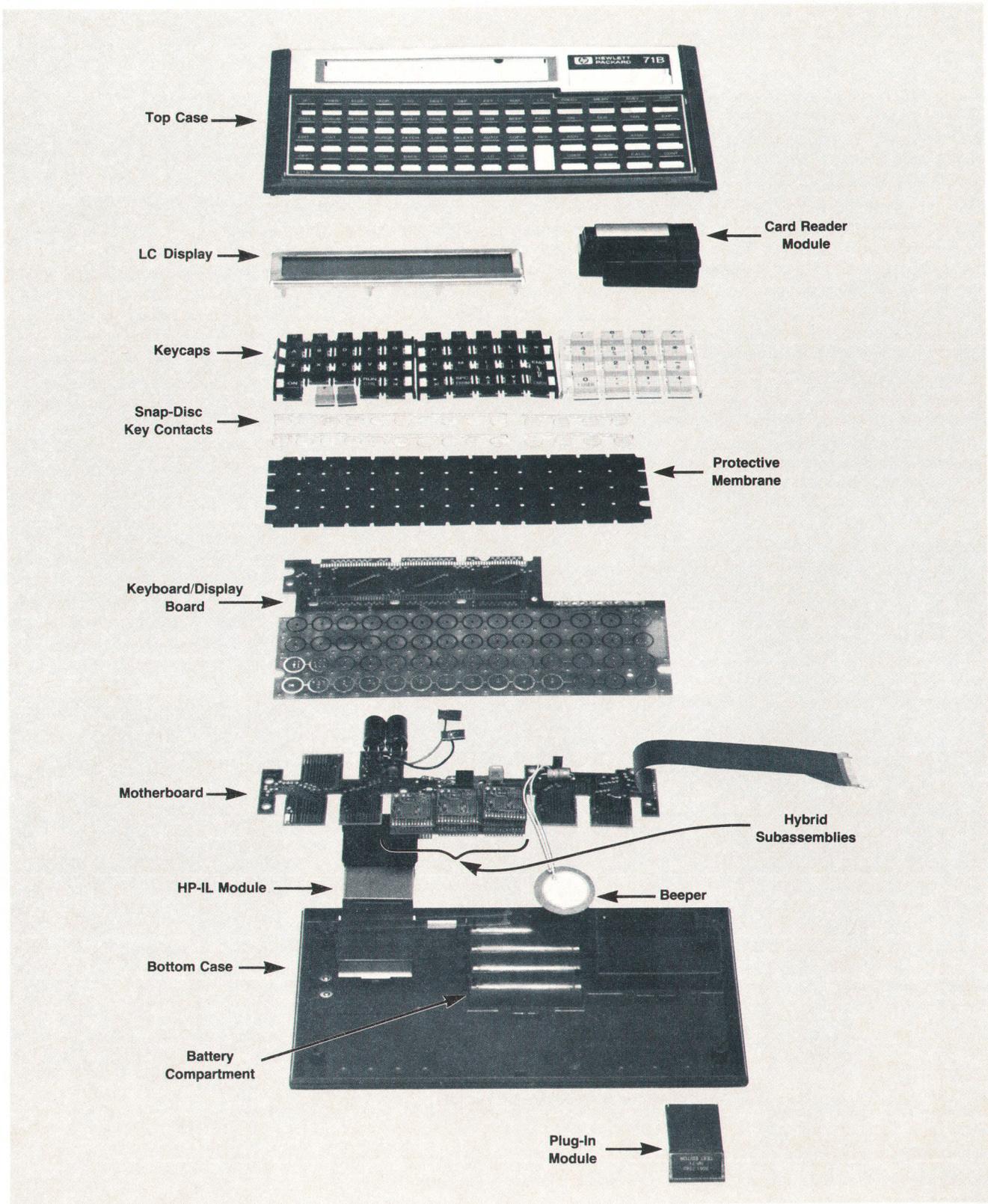


Fig. 1. Exploded view of the HP-71B Computer showing the various packaging features. The mainframe is composed of two subassemblies: the top case assembly and the bottom case assembly. The top case assembly contains the keyboard, display, and CPU and display driver circuitry. The bottom case assembly contains the built-in memory, power circuits, and piezoelectric beeper, and accommodates the optional card reader/recorder and other plug-in modules.

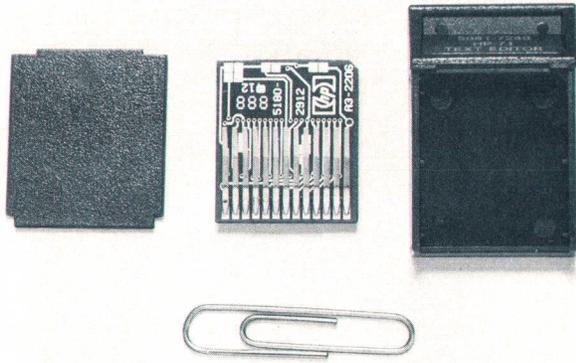


Fig. 2. Exploded view of a typical plug-in module for the HP-71B. The ROM is surface-mounted on the underside of the printed circuit board in the center.

used to provide parallel ground planes for effective shielding of the CMOS circuitry against electromagnetic interference and electrostatic discharge.²

The top case assembly consists of the keyboard and the liquid-crystal display. The CPU, display drivers, and clock circuitry are mounted in this subassembly. The bottom case assembly contains circuitry for handling both ac and battery power, as well as all ROM and RAM. Besides the battery compartment and piezoelectric beeper, the bottom case assembly provides four ROM/RAM module ports, a card reader port, and an HP-IL (Hewlett-Packard Interface Loop) interface module port. When installed, these optional modules are fully contained within the HP-71B's mainframe to maintain its compact silhouette.

The injection-molded keycaps are separated from the underlying key contacts by an elastomer membrane to enhance tactile feedback and to protect the underlying circuitry from dust. The key contacts for the keyboard are based on snap discs connected in a daisy-chain fashion. The display is mounted to the printed circuit board using elastomeric connectors and a rigid stainless-steel clip for mechanical shock protection, a method similar to that used on Series 10 Calculators.

The custom 4-bit chip set plays a significant role in the mechanical packaging. A typical 8-bit computer system would require at least 30 signal lines to connect the standard ICs required. With HP's custom chip set, eleven signals provide the same interconnection function, allowing trace routing and connections to be made with fewer lines. The high-pin-count CPU and display drivers use the same flatpack surface-mounted-device packages developed for the Series 10 Calculators. The low-pin-count RAM, ROM, card recorder, and HP-IL ICs use the hybrid packaging method developed for the HP-41C Handheld Computer.³

In the top case assembly, the display and key contacts cover a major portion of the printed circuit board, restricting the use of discrete components and leading to the application of surface-mounted devices. A total of eleven surface-mounted resistors, capacitors, and inductors plus four ICs packaged in 72-lead flatpacs are placed on this board. Placement is done by a robot using optical registration to improve location tolerances and reduce the need for manual touch-up. Silk-screened polymeric resistors are used for electrostatic discharge protection of the key contacts, an application where these components' loose resistance tolerances do not affect performance.

Twenty IC chips are mounted in the bottom case assembly to provide the HP-71B's built-in 16K RAM and 64K ROM. The memory density requirement in the available 6.1-cm-by-2.6-cm area exceeds the capabilities of dual in-line and/or flatpack packages, and hence requires the use of hybrid packaging. Four ICs each are chip-on-board mounted on the same polyimide hybrid boards designed for use in the plug-in memory modules. These hybrid subassemblies are stacked on the motherboard, with their phosphor-bronze pins inserted like single in-line packages. Other lead components are also loaded before the entire motherboard is drag soldered.

Plug-In Modules

The optional plug-in memory modules presented the challenge of how to stuff a maximum number of memory chips into a rugged package with a total volume less than 6 cubic centimeters. The same hybrid subassemblies used for the mainframe memory are employed with beryllium-copper spring contacts for the electrical connection to the

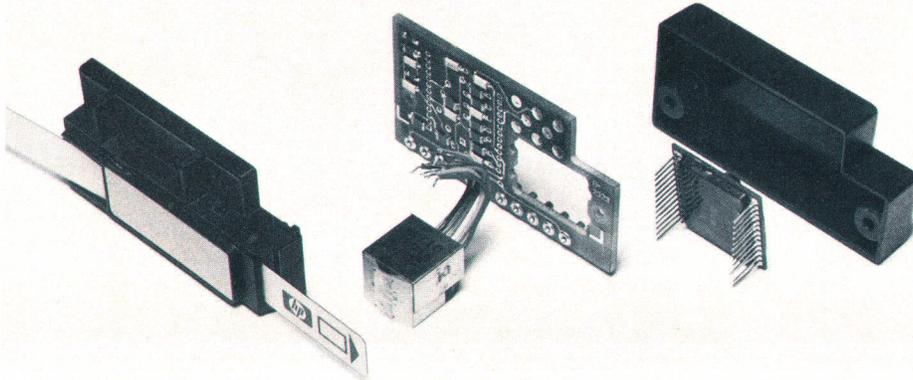


Fig. 3. Exploded view of the optional 82400A Card Reader Module for the HP-71B.

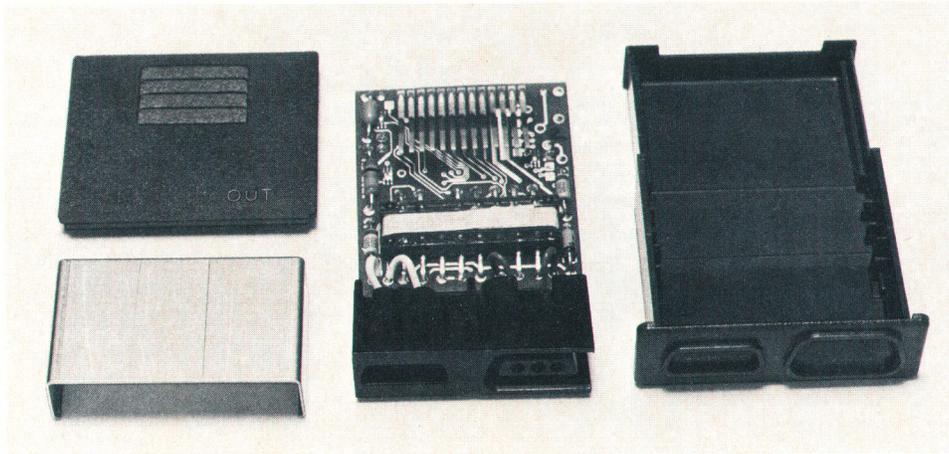


Fig. 4. Exploded view of the 82401A HP-IL Interface Module for the HP-71B.

mainframe. The hybrid subassembly (Fig. 2) with one to four memory chips—up to 4K bytes of RAM or 64K bytes of ROM per module—is encased in plastic by ultrasonic welding.

Card Reader/Recorder

The optional 82400A Card Reader Module (Fig. 3) provides an inexpensive and highly portable mass memory for the HP-71B mainframe. Handpulled magnetic strips (cards) are the storage medium. A one-piece housing that also serves as the card guide allows alignment of the magnetic head without adjustment. Although the basic card reader design was originally developed for the HP-71B, the first version appeared in the HP-75 Computer.⁴ Both designs use the same head and magnetic cards with pre-recorded timing tracks. Battery life is conserved since these tracks eliminate the need for the constant read/write speed previously provided by a motor. In addition, the card bit density of 315 flux reversals/cm is roughly double that of HP's earlier motor-driven readers. The packaging makes extensive use of surface-mounted components, which are placed by a robot and vapor-phase reflow soldered. The entire mass storage device with 20 discrete components, two hybrid-packaged ICs, magnetic head, and connectors occupies a volume less than 35 cubic centimeters.

HP-IL Module

The 82401A HP-IL Interface Module (Fig. 4) provides the interface between the HP-71B's 4-bit mainframe bus and HP's serial loop for interfacing portable devices. Hybrid packaging is necessary to achieve the high functional density. Two ICs are mounted chip-on-board along with eleven lead and surface-mounted components on a 3-cm-by-3.5-cm printed circuit board. The circuit board assembly is enclosed by ultrasonically bonded plastic and a stainless-steel cover. The total module volume is 20 cubic centimeters.

Summary

With the exception of the silk-screened polymeric resistors, none of the design techniques or manufacturing processes are actually new to HP's Portable Computer Division. Instead, the packaging of the HP-71B represents a refinement of the existing technologies. For example, while vapor-phase soldering, snap-disc keyboards, and crimped

liquid-crystal display assemblies have all been previously used at this HP Division, they have not all been used on the same assembly. It is the combination of these technologies that makes the HP-71B Computer the most powerful computing device for its size.

Acknowledgments

There are countless people who made the idea of the HP-71B become a reality. Special appreciation is directed to the following for their major contributions. The industrial design of the product was done by Ed Liljenwall. Russ Paglia, assisted by Marc Baldwin, did the initial mainframe design. The design was further developed by Allen Wright and Jerry Steiger. The memory module design was done by Allen Wright and developed by Jerry Steiger and Dave Smith. The HP-IL module design by Glenn Goldberg was refined by Larry King. The card reader was designed by Tom Hender. Thanks is extended to John Mitchell and his tooling group for their major support during the project.

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Authors

July 1984

3 — New Handheld Computer

Susan L. Wechsler



Susan Wechsler graduated from California State University at Long Beach with a BA degree in mathematics in 1979. She came to HP in 1980 and was a major contributor to the design and implementation of the operating system for the HP-71B Computer. She currently is working on application software for the HP-71B and new calculator R&D. Now living in Corvallis, Oregon, Susan says that she was born in "beautiful downtown" Burbank, California. Her interests include jogging, stained glass, sewing, and canning and drying fruit from her apple, plum, and cherry trees.

10 — Soft-Configured Memory

Nathan Meyers



Joining HP in 1979 after receiving a BA degree in physics from the University of California at San Diego, Nathan Meyers worked on algorithms for the HP-12C Calculator before developing many of the sections for the HP-71B Computer's operating system. He was born in Birmingham, Alabama, and now lives in Corvallis, Oregon. Outside of work he acts in the local community theatre, enjoys flying private planes, and is proud of the fact that he twice achieved immortality by having his captions published for *Electronic Engineering Times*' "Immortal Works" contest.

14 — 4-Bit CMOS Architecture

James P. Dickie



Jim Dickie grew up in Phoenix, Arizona, and first studied electrical engineering at Arizona State University, receiving a BSEE degree in 1976. He continued his studies at Oregon State University for an MSEE degree awarded in 1983. With HP since 1976, he worked on the HP-29C and Series E/C Calculators before

designing the CPU for the HP-71B Computer. Jim is now project manager for the HP-71B and his work on its bus architecture has resulted in one patent application. He is married, has two daughters, and lives in Corvallis, Oregon. Outside of work, he enjoys gardening, running, softball, and sports in general. Most recently, he has become an avid skier.

17 — Packaging Design

Thomas B. Lindberg



Tom Lindberg is an R&D engineer working on packaging and interconnect technology at HP's Portable Computer Division. He joined HP in 1981 after receiving a BS degree in mechanical engineering and material science from the University of California at Davis. His hobbies include composing music and designing simulation games.

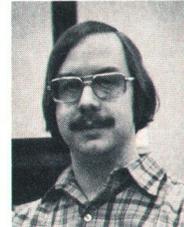
22 — Curve-Fitting ROM

Stanley M. Blascow, Jr.



Currently involved with new calculator R&D at HP's Portable Computer Division, Stan Blascow wrote application software before joining HP in 1979. He studied math at San Diego State University (BA 1969) and at the University of Oregon (MS 1974). He also holds an MS degree in computer science from the University of Oregon awarded in 1977. Stan was born in Albuquerque, New Mexico, and now lives in Corvallis, Oregon. He is interested in jogging, tennis, skydiving, and robotics—he is currently building a robot of his own design.

James A. Donnelly



Jim Donnelly is an R&D software engineer at HP's Portable Computer Division. Before joining HP in early 1981, he ran his own consulting business. Coauthor of two papers, one on helium properties and the other on an automated ratio-transformer bridge, he holds a BS degree in broadcasting awarded by Oregon State University in 1979. Jim is a native of Chicago, Illinois. Now living in Corvallis, Oregon, he enjoys traveling in the American West and northern Europe, music, photography, and cars—he is currently building his first "hot rod."

(Jim's work on new calculator R&D is appropriate since his father owns the first HP-35 Calculator ever sold.)

25 — Advanced Math ROM

Laurence W. Grodd



Currently working on new calculator R&D, Laurence Grodd contributed to the assembly language development system for the HP-75 Computer and led the Math Pac projects for the HP-75 and HP-71B Computers. He has a BS degree (1980) in math and physics and an MS degree (1981) in math awarded by Georgia State University. With HP since 1981, he is a member of the American Mathematical Society, the Mathematical Association of America, and the AAAS. He lives with his wife and two sons in Corvallis, Oregon, and is interested in history, country music, pocket billiards, football, hiking, and camping.

Charles M. Patton



Charles Patton was a mathematics professor at the University of Utah before joining HP as a software applications engineer in 1982. He studied math and physics at Princeton University (BA 1972) and received a PhD degree in math from the State University of New York at Stony Brook in 1977. He is the author of several papers on mathematics, including representation theory of the symplectic group. Charles is a member of the American Mathematical Society and the AAAS.

37 — FORTH/Assembler ROM

Robert M. Miller



Bob Miller was project leader for the plotter module used by the HP-41C Computer, the text formatter used by the HP-75 Computer, and most recently, the FORTH/Assembler Pac for the HP-71B Computer. (He coauthored an article about the plotter module in a 1982 issue of this journal.) Born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Bob studied English at LaSalle College (BA 1973) before he earned a BS degree in computer science from California Polytechnic State University (1980). With HP since early 1981, he lives in Corvallis, Oregon, with his wife and new son. His interests include hiking, swimming, reading, and carpentry.

Module Adds Curve-Fitting and Optimization Capabilities to the HP-71B

by Stanley M. Blascow, Jr. and James A. Donnelly

FITTING OBSERVED DATA to a mathematical model and finding the optimum values for a multivariable function are common engineering needs. To aid the engineer in performing such calculations, a special plug-in ROM module was developed for the HP-71B Computer. The Curve Fit Pac is a hybrid of BASIC and assembly language programs stored in a 32K-byte ROM. Two general capabilities are provided:

- **Curve fit.** Given a user-selected linear or nonlinear model function $F = f(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{P})$ with up to 20 unknown parameters p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k and an arbitrary number of independent variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , and given a set of m data points $x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{in}, y_i$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots, m$), where y is a dependent variable, find the parameter matrix \mathbf{P}^* such that the curve defined by $y = f(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{P}^*)$ gives the best fit to the data.
- **Optimization.** Given a real-valued function $F = f(\mathbf{X})$ of up to 20 variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k , find the locations $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{P} = [p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k]^T$ of local minima or maxima (T indicates the matrix transpose).

The Curve Fit Pac's powerful curve-fitting capabilities are based on a minimization algorithm known as the Fletcher-Powell method.¹ For optimization, this algorithm is applied to the function whose maxima and minima are to be found. For curve-fitting, the algorithm is used to minimize a form of χ^2 (chi-square) function defined by

$$\chi^2(\mathbf{P}) = \sum_{i=1}^m [F_i - y_i]/w_i]^2$$

where F_i is the value of F for the i th data point and the current parameter matrix iterate (i.e., estimate) \mathbf{P} . The values w_i are user-supplied weighting factors and are ideally equal to the standard deviations of the dependent variables y_i , if known. Thus reliable data (small standard deviation) can be weighted more heavily. With equal weights, this equation corresponds to the function that is minimized in the usual least-squares curve-fit method.

A friendly user interface provides for entry, editing, storage, and viewing of data. Options for storing the data files to mass storage devices and for printing the data and results are provided. The user can select one of the 84 built-in mathematical models, or if necessary, can write a BASIC subprogram that specifies a desired model.

Functions not adversely affected by speed considerations (e.g., user interface and I/O) are written in BASIC, while all of the numerical calculations are done in assembly language (to full 15-digit precision) by callable binary subprograms. The seven binary subprograms can be called directly by the user. This permits the user interface to be copied into the HP-71B's RAM and customized while still using the ROM-based numeric routines.

BASIC Programs

- **OPTIMIZE and CFIT.** These programs provide the primary user interface for optimization and curve-fitting applications. Each contains prompts for specifying the function or model to be used, the initial control conditions for the calculation, and an initial guess for the function's or model's parameters. Both programs contain options to print intermediate reports during the calculation, allowing the user to observe the progress of long calculations. In addition, the CFIT program contains a versatile matrix editor for entry and manipulation of experimental data. "Null points" can be added to the array for the purpose of interpolation. These points have no effect on the curve fit. Routines for printing the data and loading from or storing to mass storage devices are also provided.
- **PCENTCHI.** This subprogram provides an evaluation of the statistical χ^2 distribution function. This function is useful for evaluating the appropriateness of a given model, provided that the weights chosen for the data accurately reflect the standard deviations of the dependent variables.
- **MODELS.** This file is a collection of 46 BASIC subprograms which make up part of the library of models for curve fitting. Each subprogram returns the model value and the gradient of the model function, treating the independent variables as fixed.

Binary Subprograms

The binary subprograms are called with parameters (both arrays and simple variables) passed by reference. Results are passed back to the calling routine through the passed parameters. All of the binary routines mentioned below except POLY and LIN use temporary system buffers during execution to store intermediate results. This memory is returned for system use on exit from the subprogram.

- **POLY and LIN.** These subprograms provide for evaluation of all built-in polynomial and linear curve-fit models (through order 19). These binaries have the same syntax as the library of built-in BASIC models. One difference between these two binary subprograms and the built-in BASIC models is that each of these subprograms provides 20 models. The degree is determined by the size of the parameter array.
- **GRADM and GRADF.** These subprograms provide for estimation of the model or function gradient when the model or function subprogram has not provided it. The gradient indicates the rate of change of the value of the model or function when each of the parameters is varied a small amount. It is the vector of partial derivatives of the model or function with respect to the unknown parameters. In the case of a curve-fit model, the unknowns are the model

parameters to be determined. In the case of a function to be optimized, the unknowns are the variables. In either case, the number of unknowns can be as large as 20. CSQ. This subprogram computes the χ^2 value (and the gradient of χ^2) associated with the user's data and selected model type.

FP. This subprogram applies the Fletcher-Powell algorithm to a user-specified function to be optimized (the determination of local minima or local maxima).

FIT. This subprogram applies the Fletcher-Powell algorithm directly to CSQ for the curve-fitting application.

Fletcher-Powell Method

The Fletcher-Powell method is a gradient-based iterative method to find the location of a local minimum of a function of k variables.* That is, $F(\mathbf{X}) = F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$. In this application, k cannot exceed 20. While the Fletcher-Powell method is designed for minimization, the function $G = -F$ is used for maximization.

Given an initial guess for the location $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{P} = [p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k]^T$ of a local minimum, the algorithm produces the next guess \mathbf{P}' , obtained as the result of a "search" along a specified ray emanating from \mathbf{P} in k -space. The manner in which the search direction vector $\mathbf{S}' = \mathbf{P}' - \mathbf{P}$ is determined distinguishes this method from other similar methods. Initially, \mathbf{S}' is in the direction of steepest descent (the direction in which F should be changed to cause the most rapid decrease in F). This direction is the negative gradient of F at \mathbf{P} . Subsequent iterations use a modified search direction based on "historical" data kept in a $k \times k$ matrix \mathbf{H} . This can substantially reduce the number of iterations near critical points. Letting $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{S}' / \|\mathbf{S}'\|$ (\mathbf{S}' normalized to a unit vector), the current iteration is reduced to a one-dimensional minimization of F along the ray $\mathbf{P} + t\mathbf{S}$ for $t > 0$ (t is the step size). This portion of the solution, called LINE-SEARCH, is not part of the Fletcher-Powell algorithm and is implementation-dependent.

The overall procedure terminates successfully when the gradient at the current iterate matrix \mathbf{P} achieves a norm less than a user-specified limit called Grad Limit. This corresponds roughly to the graph of F being sufficiently flat (approaching a minimum) at that location. The procedure terminates unsuccessfully if this condition has not been achieved and the number of iterations exceeds another user-specified limit called No. Iterations. See the box on this page for an example of an optimization problem.

LINE-SEARCH

The task for the LINE-SEARCH portion of the OPTIMIZE subroutine is to minimize $h(t) = F(\mathbf{P} + t\mathbf{S})$ for $t > 0$. The procedure used is a modified cubic fit along the search vector to establish t . The procedure begins by establishing a reasonable search interval $[t_0, t_2]$. Let $m(t) =$ the derivative of $h(t)$ and use the notation:

$$\begin{aligned} h_0 &= h(t_0), m_0 = m(t_0) \\ h_1 &= h(t_1), m_1 = m(t_1) \\ h_2 &= h(t_2), m_2 = m(t_2) \end{aligned}$$

Initially $t_0 = 0$, so that h_0 and $m_0 < 0$ are known. After

*Editor's note: In this discussion, the prime notation for \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{S} indicates successive values, not derivatives.

An Optimization Example

You are designing a box that will be used to mail widgets. You want the box to have dimensions that will contain the largest volume of widgets while still being acceptable for shipment by the postal carrier. The postal restrictions stipulate that the sum of the length and girth (perimeter of the cross section) cannot exceed 100 centimeters. Referring to Fig. 1, and since you will have maximum volume when the length plus girth equals 100, you can use the following equations:

$$L + (2W + 2H) = 100$$

$$\text{Volume } V = WHL = WH(100 - 2H - 2W) \quad (1)$$

All dimensions must be greater than 0, so you can impose the additional constraints: $W + H < 50$, $W > 0$, and $H > 0$.

A plot of the contours of the function V in the W - H plane is shown in Fig. 2. Using the default values for gradient limit, number of LINE-SEARCH tries, and number of iterations, and given an initial guess of 5 for W and 6 for H , the OPTIMIZE procedure proceeds on the path shown in Fig. 2 to the final answers of $W = 16.6667$ cm, $H = 16.6667$ cm, and $V = 9259.259$ cm³. L is then found from the equation $V = VHL$ to be 33.3333 cm.

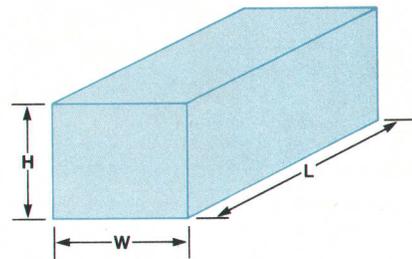


Fig. 1. Postal package dimensions. The girth ($2W + 2H$) plus length (L) cannot exceed 100 cm.

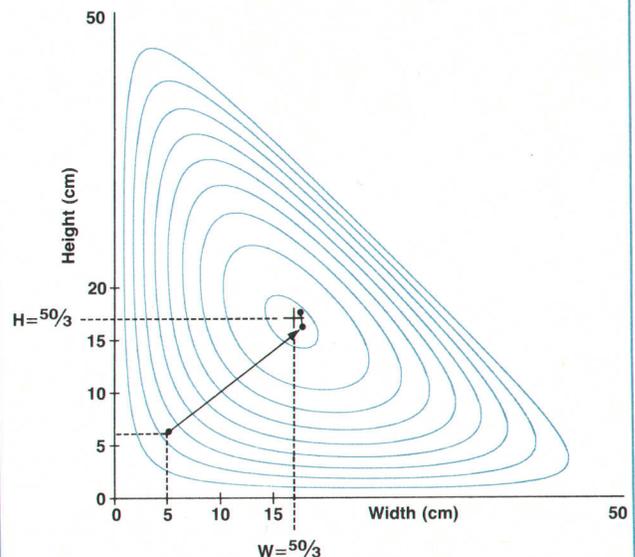


Fig. 2. Plot of constant volume contours for Equation (1). Maximum volume occurs when $H = W = 16.6667$ cm.

a reasonable guess for t_2 , h_2 and m_2 are obtained by sampling. The gradient of F is available from the sampling so that the derivative $m(t)$ can be computed as the dot product:

$$m(t) = [\nabla F(\mathbf{P} + t\mathbf{S})]^T \cdot \mathbf{S}$$

The primary goal is to achieve a sampling interval $[t_0, t_2]$ in which $m_2 > 0$ (corresponding to a sign change in the derivative). When this is achieved,* t_1 —the location of the minimum of a cubic that agrees with h and m at the endpoints—is computed. The values of h_1 and m_1 are computed and if satisfactory,** the LINE-SEARCH procedure terminates and \mathbf{P}' is established as $\mathbf{P} + t_1\mathbf{S}$. If unsatisfactory, results h_1 and m_1 are used to establish a new sampling interval (shifted, expanded, or contracted) and the process continues. The procedure terminates unsuccessfully if a user-supplied limit labeled No. Tries is exceeded.

Design Issues

How to handle errors, which models to select, and how to set up the working environment and user interface were some of the design issues that had to be resolved. For example, to eliminate leaving a user deep within the binary software with no way to recover when an error occurs, a clean interface to the binary subprograms is needed. This is provided by returning to the top program level when an error or exception occurs, with a passed condition code indicating the nature of the error or exception condition.

The models were selected from a survey of published libraries and potential users. The models are provided as BASIC subprograms, with the exception of the polynomial and linear models, which are written in assembly language as binary subprograms.

The architecture of the HP-71B presented many special features for the design of the user interface, in that it has the personality of a calculator, yet the capability of many desktop computers. The user interface is designed to work with multiple files in memory and on mass storage media. The complex procedures often found on larger computers are reduced to simple keystroke procedures that maximize the utility of each keystroke. Functions can be selected with single keystrokes, and entry of numbers is simplified by providing default answers in the display—usually the previous entry for the same question.

While the curve-fit programs are designed to work in a stand-alone environment, the addition of an 82401A HP-IL Interface Module to the HP-71B permits the use of video interfaces, printers, and external mass storage devices. The programs CFIT and OPTIMIZE are designed to alter the nature of the user interface, the questions asked, and the reporting procedures automatically to conform to the current configuration of the HP-71B in the most efficient manner.

Testing the Software

Testing this product proved to be a challenge for a variety of reasons. First, the numerical computation routines are written in assembly language, using the internal 15-digit math routines of the HP-71B. Because of the iterative nature of the Fletcher-Powell and CFIT routines, and the special

*It is possible that this cannot be achieved.

**Satisfactory is defined as when $h_1 < \min(h_0, h_2)$. Thus, no effort or sampling time is expended in an attempt to improve t_1 . Instead, there is a rapid return to the Fletcher-Powell algorithm where a new search direction is chosen.

LINE-SEARCH algorithm, a suitable reference for the results was not to be found. As a result, a software debugger was used to step through the calculations manually, permitting verification of intermediate results kept in system buffers.

The volume of intermediate results to check is extremely large. For example, consider the case where a curve is being fit with a user-written model that has three parameters and does not compute the gradient. Calculation of χ^2 and the gradient of χ^2 will require 80 calls to the user's model if there are 20 data points. If there are four samples taken per iteration of the main calculation loop, a single iteration will require 320 calls to the user's model!

Second, the user interface programs CFIT and OPTIMIZE provide a protective "shell" against invalid data for the binary programs. Because the user may write programs to call the binary subprograms, the error-trapping had to be checked thoroughly. This was done by writing a series of interface programs to simulate calls by user programs.

Third, the HP-71B implements the IEEE proposal for handling math exceptions. All programs, BASIC or assembler, had to be tested to ensure that overflow, underflow, and extended default numbers such as ∞ (infinity) and NaN (not-a-number) work properly. The complex data types provided by the HP-71B's Math Pac also had to be tested.

Fourth, the HP-71B's operating system allows the user to select settings not usually possible on other computers, including key redefinitions, display speed, width settings, numeric display modes, maintenance of global variables (analogous to storage registers in a calculator), flags, and files. This working environment is very important to people who use their portable machines daily. The CFIT and OPTIMIZE programs alter many of these system settings during the course of execution, but restore the settings upon exit. Extensive testing was done to ensure that this working environment was preserved under all conditions. The functionality of the user interface was extensively evaluated and optimized for use in the portable environment.

Fifth, the memory in the HP-71B can be managed in a number of different ways. It is possible to fill the memory with files until there are just a few bytes left. All of the above issues had to be tested under extremely low available memory conditions to ensure that errors would not cause loss of data.

Sixth, testing the curve-fitting capability required known data. A BASIC tool was developed to produce data whose dependent variables were normally distributed about a selected model with known parameters. The independent variables were selected at random from specified ranges. This allowed comparison between the parameters used to generate the data and the model parameters generated by the Curve-Fit Pac.

Finally, writing the subprograms for the MODELS library involved deriving the partial derivatives for each model, leaving ample room for error. The equations and their implementation were reviewed manually and with the assistance of a symbolic math package running on a larger computer system.

Reference

1. R. Fletcher and M.J.D. Powell, "A Rapidly Convergent Descent Method for Minimization," *Computer Journal*, July 1963.

ROM Extends Numerical Function Set of Handheld Computer

by Laurence W. Grodd and Charles M. Patton

THE PLUG-IN MATH PAC for HP's new HP-71B Handheld Computer further extends the HP-71B's comprehensive standard numerical function set to provide a mathematical tool of unprecedented capability and power in a personal machine. For the first time in a portable HP computer, a complex data type is available with the capability of freely mixing real and complex variables, constants, and functions in BASIC statements and expressions.

This plug-in ROM module also performs the **SOLVE** and \int_y^x functions of the HP-15C Calculator¹⁻³ and provides a full set of matrix operations, a sophisticated polynomial root finder, a fast Fourier transform, and extended I/O (input/output) functions.

Design Objectives

The HP-71B's Math Pac was designed with the following goals in mind:

- Provide a powerful mathematical tool set in a convenient, easy-to-use form
- Include all the important functions and operations of the HP-15C Calculator and the HP-75 Computer's Math ROM, extending their capability and friendliness when possible
- Completely support provisions of the proposed IEEE floating-point mathematics standard.⁴

The first objective was achieved by coding the best available algorithms into the form of BASIC keywords. That is, the Math Pac extends the BASIC language of the HP-71B computer—the ROM is a LEX (language extension) file—and all its functions are programmable or can be executed in calculator BASIC. For example, in-place inversion of a matrix **A** is as easy as typing `MAT A=INV(A)`. All Math Pac functions are coded in the internal (assembly) language of the HP-71B for extended intermediate precision and superior speed. The "tool set" character of the Math Pac is inherent in this keyword approach to providing the mathematical building blocks for handling complex technical problems.

Selection of the function set was not a major problem, since long experience has shown which functions and operations are most useful. The challenge in achieving the second design objective, however, was in extending certain basic functions to make the Math Pac's capability/cost ratio the highest in a product of its type. Some examples of this are extension of the integral function \int_y^x to handle arbitrary expressions in the integrand, as well as handling multiple integrals in a simple fashion. In addition, the matrix operations were extended to the complex case without the addition of new keywords.

Another design objective was mandated by the fact that the proposed IEEE standard for handling math exceptions is supported by the HP-71B's standard mainframe math

routines, and it was imperative that an application ROM extending the mainframe operating system continue this support. The difficulty in achieving this objective, however, was based on the fact that provisions of the standard were not yet extended to most of the Math Pac's function set. Thus, IEEE exception handling for these functions was essentially defined by the design team after some consultation with a member of the IEEE committee. For this reason, it is hoped that the HP-71B's Math Pac will set the course for future extensions to the IEEE standard. Although IEEE-style math pervades almost every Math Pac function, it can be made invisible (just as in the HP-71B mainframe itself) to the user who prefers working with a more traditional system of defaults. Exceptions are Math Pac functions `NEIGHBOR`, `SCALE10`, `IROUND`, `PROJ`, and `NAN$`, which are inherently IEEE-style functions.

Complex Data Type

One of the major features built into the HP-71B's Math Pac is the ability to declare complex variables and enter complex constants in a manner previously available only on FORTRAN compilers running on large mainframe computers such as the IBM 370. When the Math Pac is plugged into the HP-71B computer, two new data types become available to the user—`COMPLEX` and `COMPLEX SHORT`. These two declarations enable the user to create complex variables and arrays. For example, the statement `COMPLEX Z,W(2),V(25,4)` creates a simple complex variable **Z**, a 2-element complex vector **W**, and a 25×4 complex matrix **V**. Similarly, the statement `COMPLEX SHORT S(2,2),U` creates a short-precision 2×2 complex matrix **S** and a short-precision simple complex variable **U**.

The `COMPLEX` statement allocates full-precision complex variables and arrays. That is, the real and imaginary parts of a `COMPLEX` variable and the real and imaginary parts of a `COMPLEX` array element each have the same precision as an HP-71B `REAL` variable—a 12-digit mantissa and a three-digit exponent in the range from -499 to 499. Each part of a `COMPLEX SHORT` variable or array element has the same precision as an HP-71B `SHORT` variable—a five-digit mantissa and a three-digit exponent in the range from -499 to 499. Of course, denormalized numbers, `Inf` (infinity), and `NANs` (not-a-numbers) are also permitted as parts of `COMPLEX` and `COMPLEX SHORT` variables and array elements.

The representation of a complex variable in the memory of the HP-71B is somewhere between that of a real number and an array. For example, the complex number $1 + 2i$ is stored like an array in that the number's register only contains a pointer to the data (i.e., the real and imaginary parts of the number) and not the actual data, as is the case with a real number. However, the complex number's register does not contain `OPTION BASE` or dimension information,

as is the case for an array's register. Fig. 1 illustrates the storage of complex variables and arrays in an HP-71B Computer with a Math Pac.

The Math Pac takes care of the overhead of storing values

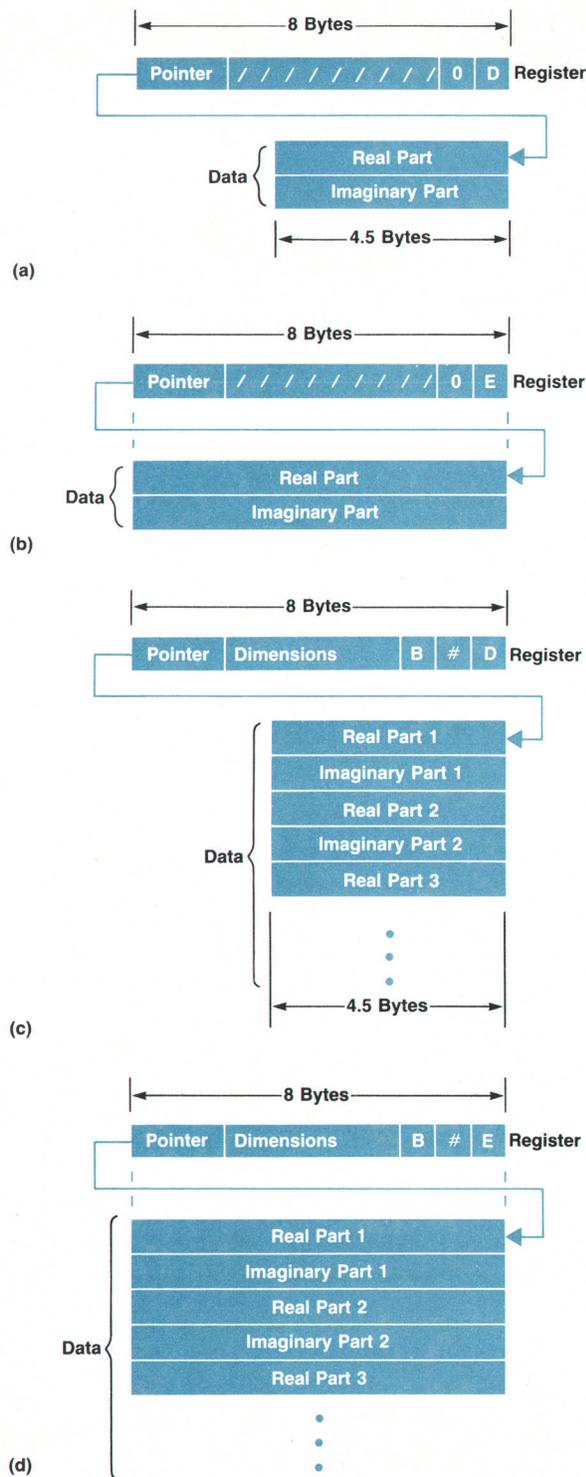


Fig. 1. Memory storage of complex numbers and complex arrays in the HP-71B Computer with a Math Pac. (a) COMPLEX SHORT variable. (b) COMPLEX variable. (c) COMPLEX SHORT array. (d) COMPLEX array.

into complex variables and recalling values from complex variables. But how are complex constants entered by the user and displayed by the Math Pac? The answer is in ordered-pair notation. For example, the complex number $3 + 4i$ is represented by the ordered pair (3,4). Thus, the BASIC statements `COMPLEX Z` and `Z=(1,SQRT(25))` create a full-precision complex variable `Z` and assign to it the complex number $1 + 5i$. The Math Pac provides two real-valued functions `REPT` and `IMPT` to extract, respectively, the real and imaginary parts of any complex number. Thus, for the complex variable `Z` obtained above, `REPT(Z) = 1` and `IMPT(Z) = 5`. (The complex number represented by the ordered pair (X,Y) is defined to be (REPT(X),REPT(Y)), not $X + Yi$ —a germane distinction if either X or Y is complex). Probably the most attractive feature of the Math Pac's complex data type is the natural and almost completely transparent way that it blends in with HP-71B real number and array operations. As stated earlier, complex variable assignment and value recall operations appear the same to the user as their real counterparts. Complex variable creation uses the same dynamic allocation scheme as for the real case so that `COMPLEX` and `COMPLEX SHORT` statements can be executed any number of times, and the appropriate variables are re-dimensioned, if necessary. Complex variables can also be assigned real values without losing their type (the imaginary parts are simply set to zero). The HP-71B arithmetic operations (+, -, *, /, and ^), numeric functions (LOG, SQR, ABS, EXP, SGN, SIN, COS, TAN, and RES), and comparison operators (<, >, =, #, ?) are all extended by the Math Pac to the case where an argument is complex, as are the Math Pac hyperbolic functions `SINH`, `COSH`, and `TANH`. The Math Pac also contains functions specifically useful for complex operands, such as `ARG` (argument), `CONJ` (conjugate), `PROJ` (projective equivalent), `POLAR` (polar form), and `RECT` (rectangular form). In addition, the Math Pac extends the HP-71B `IMAGE` statement to include formatting specifiers specifically for complex numbers. As an example of the Math Pac's ability to calculate using both real and complex numbers, the numeric expression

$$\sin [(1+2i)^{(4+5i)}] + \frac{\Gamma(-2.3) \times \overline{(3-5i)}}{\exp [(2+4i) - 1]}$$

is evaluated by the HP-71B BASIC expression

$$\text{SIN}((1,2)^(4,5)) + \text{GAMMA}(-2.3) * \text{CONJ}(3,-5) / \text{EXP}((2,4) - 1)$$

for a complex result of

$$(3.04910111995, .49611522894).$$

Complex Algorithms

The algorithms behind the complex operations in the HP-71B's Math Pac are based on those originally developed for the HP-15C Calculator with obvious extensions to accommodate the higher precision of the HP-71B. Some algorithms were improved to decrease the relative error over a wider range of the function's domain and to take advantage of the signed zero of the HP-71B. For example, the two complex numbers $-4 + 0i$ and $-4 - 0i$ are taken to be on different sides of the square root function's branch cut along the negative real axis so that `SQR((-4,0))=(0,2)` while `SQR((-4,-0))=(0,-2)`. The greatest contribution of the Math Pac in this area, however, is the result of a substantial

design effort to incorporate IEEE arithmetic into the algorithms for the complex functions.

The IEEE proposal specifies the existence of five exception flags: IVL (invalid operation), DVZ (division by zero), OVf (overflow), UNF (underflow), and INX (inexact). It also provides for extended default values (denormalized numbers, Infs, and NaNs) to be returned when continuable exceptions occur. A major part of the complex coding of the ROM is concerned with properly implementing this style of arithmetic. In particular, to incorporate the notion of infinities into the complex algorithms requires a complete rethinking of the basic computational formulas.

For example, consider multiplying two complex numbers $Z = x + yi$ and $W = u + vi$. The standard "rectangular" formula is

$$Z \times W = (xu - yv) + (xv + yu)i$$

With $Z = 3 + \infty i$ and $W = 2 + \infty i$, application of this formula yields

$$Z \times W = (3 \times 2 - \infty \times \infty) + (3 \times \infty + 2 \times \infty)i = -\infty + \infty i$$

using standard arithmetic operations on infinities. However, we can just as well do complex multiplication in polar form, expressed as

$$Z \times W = r_1 r_2 \exp [(a_1 + a_2)i]$$

where r_1 and r_2 are the respective magnitudes of Z and W and a_1 and a_2 are their respective arguments, or angles. Since the real parts of Z and W are essentially insignificant compared with their imaginary parts, the only reasonable values to assign the above parameters are $r_1 = r_2 = \infty$ (Inf on the HP-71B) and $a_1 = a_2 = \pi/2$ so that the polar formula gives

$$Z \times W = \infty \times \infty \exp [(\pi/2 + \pi/2)i] = \infty \exp [\pi i]$$

It is clear that the rectangular form of this answer is $-\infty + 0i$, which is seriously different from that produced by the rectangular formula.

The problem here lies in the fact that insignificant parts of the multiplicands are, perhaps erroneously, taken into account in the above rectangular computation, but are weeded out in the polar form of the computation. The rectangular form would indicate that the resulting argument is $3\pi/4$, and this is not even intuitively correct. The solution is to decide in favor of the polar form, which is more consistent with common sense. For accuracy reasons, the polar form is not actually used in the complex multiplication; instead, arguments with infinite magnitudes are normalized before multiplication in rectangular form (that is, the finite parts are essentially removed) and the results are compatible with those produced by the polar formula. The key to normalizing a complex infinity is to realize that only ten numbers make sense for arguments of complex infinities; they are $0, \pi/4, \pi/2, 3\pi/4, \pi, -0, -\pi/4, -\pi/2, -3\pi/4$, and $-\pi$.

This is an example of the design challenges faced when dealing with infinities in the complex plane. Even in the more difficult operations such as division and involution, all possible input cases are exhaustively handled in what is considered to be an intelligent and forward-looking manner.

Matrix Operations

All of the standard matrix operations are provided by the Math Pac. These include arithmetic, inversion, system solution, transpose, conjugate transpose, norms, determinant, and inner product. Table I lists the BASIC statements and functions provided in the Math Pac for matrix operations. **A**, **B**, and **C** are real or complex arrays which may coincide (that is, represent the same arrays), **X** is any real or complex scalar, and **N** is an integer.

Array Redimensioning

The Math Pac features two types of dynamic array redimensioning: explicit and implicit. Explicit redimensioning occurs when actual redimensioning subscripts are supplied by the user. For example, the statement `DIM A(6,6)`, where **A** already exists as a real array, is an instance of explicit redimensioning by the HP-71B mainframe, since subscripts have been supplied. Subsequent execution of the Math Pac statement `MAT A=ZER(25)` to create a 25-element zero vector in the array **A**, is also an example of explicit redimensioning. Note that the number of **A**'s subscripts has changed from 2 to 1 as a result.

Implicit redimensioning, on the other hand, is a feature of the Math Pac and occurs when the array result of a `MAT` statement is automatically redimensioned to conform to the size of the expression to which it is being assigned. This is completely transparent to the user. For example, consider the statements below:

```
DIM A(3,4),B(10,10)
MAT B=IDN
MAT A=INV(B)
```

Note that, in the third statement, the matrix **A** is assigned the value of the inverse of **B**, which is a 10×10 matrix. Although **A** is not large enough to hold this value, the Math

Table I
HP-71B Math Pac BASIC Matrix Statements

| Statement/Function | Operation |
|--------------------|---|
| FNORM(A) | Frobenius norm |
| RNORM(A) | Row (infinity) norm |
| CNORM(A) | Column (one) norm |
| DOT(A,B) | Inner or conjugate inner product |
| UBND(A,N) | Upper bound of array subscript |
| LBND(A,N) | Lower bound of array subscript |
| DET(A) | Determinant |
| DETL | Determinant of last inverted matrix or last coefficient matrix of system solution |
| MAT A=CON[(redim)] | Constant matrix with optional redimensioning |
| MAT A=ZER[(redim)] | Zero matrix with optional redimensioning |
| MAT A=IDN[(redim)] | Identity matrix with optional redimensioning |
| MAT A=B | Matrix assignment |
| MAT A=-B | Matrix negation |
| MAT A=B+C | Matrix addition |
| MAT A=B-C | Matrix subtraction |
| MAT A=B*C | Matrix multiplication |
| MAT A=(X) | Assignment of a scalar to all matrix elements |
| MAT A=(X)*B | Matrix scalar multiplication |
| MAT A=INV(B) | Matrix inversion |
| MAT A=TRN(B) | Matrix transpose or conjugate transpose |
| MAT A=SYS(B,C) | System solution |
| MAT A=TRN(B)*C | Transpose or conjugate transpose multiplication |

Pac automatically redimensions **A** to be 10×10, just large enough to hold the inverse of **B**. **A** remains 10×10 until it is destroyed or again redimensioned. Because of this implicit redimensioning by the Math Pac, the user does not have to worry whether the array results of MAT statements are the correct size for the operation. As with explicit redimensioning, implicit redimensioning is completely dynamic; the functions LBND and UBND can always be used to determine the current upper and lower bounds of any array's subscripts.

As an example of the ease of use of the Math Pac's matrix operations, consider the following multivariable least-squares problem. Minimize $\|Y - AB\|$, where **A** is a matrix containing *m* different sets of values of the *n* independent variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n and **Y** is an array containing *m* measurements of the dependent variable *y*, where

$$y_i = b_0 + b_1X_{i,1} + b_2X_{i,2} + \dots + b_nX_{i,n} + e_i$$

Here, *i* indicates the measurement number and *e* is a residual. The least-squares solution **B** is given by the matrix equation:

$$A^T AB = A^T Y$$

where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{1,1} & X_{1,2} & \dots & X_{1,n} \\ 1 & X_{2,1} & X_{2,2} & \dots & X_{2,n} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ 1 & X_{m,1} & X_{m,2} & \dots & X_{m,n} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

To solve this equation on an HP-71B Computer with a Math Pac, the following program sequence can be used:

```

10 OPTION BASE 1
20 ASSIGN # 1 TO LSQRDATA @ READ # 1; M,N
30 DIM A(M,N+1),Y(M)
40 REM **** INITIALIZE A TO ALL ONES ****
50 MAT A=CON
60 REM **** READ DATA ****
70 FOR I=1 TO M @ FOR J=2 TO N+1
80 READ # 1; A(I,J) @ NEXT J
90 READ # 1; Y(I) @ NEXT I
100 REM **** COMPUTE SOLUTION ****
110 MAT Y=TRN(A)*Y
120 MAT A=TRN(A)*A
130 MAT Y=SYS(A,Y)

```

The above program assumes that the data is stored in a data file LSQRDATA with *n* and *m* stored first and the sets $X_{i,1}, X_{i,2}, \dots, X_{i,n}, y_i$ stored subsequently. The vector **Y** will hold both the dependent variable values and the resulting least-squares solution **B**. Note that after the data is read

in, only three MAT statements are required to compute the solution.

Complex Matrix Operations

One of the major contributions of the matrix operations provided by the Math Pac is the ability to use complex arrays in all of the matrix statements and functions (except DET). The operation is performed correctly regardless of the type of the operand arrays involved. For example, with a complex type operand matrix, the MAT...TRN and MAT...TRN...* statements compute the conjugate transpose of their operands. Matrix addition, subtraction, multiplication, scalar multiplication, and transpose multiplication use complex arithmetic for complex operands, and so on. No special keywords are needed to do operations on complex matrices, and the user does not have to do special transformations on complex arrays before their use in operations. Real and complex arrays can even be mixed in matrix statements and functions. This is another example of the natural extension to the complex case inherent in the function set of the Math Pac. The only restriction on the use of complex arrays in MAT statements is that a real array result cannot be assigned a complex array that is the value of the right-hand side of the MAT statement; otherwise, the imaginary parts would be lost.

As an example of the ease of use of complex arrays in Math Pac matrix operations, consider the problem illustrated in Fig. 2. The computation is performed by the program below, using **A** as the coefficient matrix, **V** as the constant vector representing the voltage excitation, and **I** as the result vector for the complex currents.

```

10 OPTION BASE 1
20 DIM V(4) @ COMPLEX A(4,4),I(1)
30 MAT V=ZER @ V(1)=10
40 R1=100 @ R2=1E6 @ R3=1E5 @ W=15000
50 L=1E-2 @ C1=25E-8 @ C2=25E-6
60 MAT INPUT A
70 MAT I=SYS(A,V) @ MAT DISP I
80 DISP "Output voltage ="; R3*I(4)

```

When the above program is run, the MAT INPUT statement on line 60 first prompts the user to supply the system matrix **A**. Note the mixing of complex and real numbers and the use of program variables in response to the MAT INPUT prompts:

```

A(1,1)? (R1,W*L-1/(W*C1)),(0,1/(W*C1)),0,0 [END LINE]
A(2,1)? (0,1/(W*C1)),(R2,W*L-1/(W*C1)),-R2,0 [END LINE]
A(3,1)? 0,-R2,(R2,-1/(W*C2)+W*L),(0,-W*L)[END LINE]
A(4,1)? 0,0,(0,-W*L),(R3,W*L-1/(W*C2)) [END LINE]

```

The above system of complex equations is solved using the MAT...SYS statement (notice the implicit redimensioning of **I** to a four-element vector) and the complex current vector is displayed using MAT DISP:

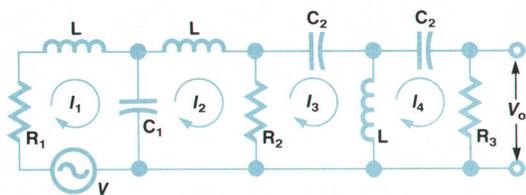
```

(1.9957951386E-4,4.09639908444E-3)
(-1.44883361935E-3,-3.56329830828E-2)
(-1.4540831738E-3,-.035632760831)
(5.34458117073E-5,-2.25986825661E-6)

```

Finally, the complex output voltage is displayed:

```
Output voltage = (5.34458117073,-.225986825661)
```



(a)

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_1 + X_1j & (1/\omega C_1)j & 0 & 0 \\ (1/\omega C_1)j & R_2 + X_1j & -R_2 & 0 \\ 0 & -R_2 & R_2 + X_2j & -\omega Lj \\ 0 & 0 & -\omega Lj & R_3 + X_2j \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \\ I_3 \\ I_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X_1 = \omega L - 1/\omega C_1$$

$$X_2 = \omega L - 1/\omega C_2$$

(b)

Fig. 2. Example of the ease of use of complex arrays in HP-71B Math Pac matrix operations. To solve for the complex currents in the circuit shown in (a), the complex matrices describing the circuit (b) are entered into the HP-71B and solved using the simple BASIC program listed in the text.

Matrix I/O Operations

For the powerful matrix operations of the Math Pac to be completely useful, the user must have a way to input and output array data easily. This is accomplished by the Math Pac matrix I/O statements

```

MAT INPUT <array list>
MAT DISP <array list>
MAT PRINT <array list>
MAT DISP USING <format string>;<array list>
MAT PRINT USING <format string>;<array list>

```

MAT INPUT allows interactive input of array elements. When this statement is executed (see example for Fig. 2 above), an array input prompt of the form A(i,j)? or A(i)? is displayed indicating the need to supply input for a particular array element. Values can be entered for several consecutive elements, separated by commas. These values can be numeric expressions and are evaluated as the input line is processed. Array elements are assigned values in order from left to right on each row, from the first array in the list to the last. If an array is filled before the user's values are exhausted, then assignment proceeds with the next array in the list. For example, consider execution of the following BASIC statements and the associated MAT INPUT prompts and user responses:

```

OPTION BASE 0
COMPLEX A(1,2) @ DIM B(5)
OPTION BASE 1
INTEGER C(2,2)
MAT INPUT A,B,C

A(0,0)? (1,2),(3,4),5 [END LINE]
A(1,0)? (0,2),5 [END LINE]
A(1,2)? 1,2,3,4 [END LINE]
B(3)? FNORM(A), SIN(PI), Inf, 2*SINH(8) [END LINE]
C(1,2)? 1,2,3 [END LINE]

```

The first prompt displayed is A(0,0)?, the first element of

the first array in the MAT INPUT list. The user supplies three elements and so the Math Pac computes the next element to be assigned and prompts for A(1,0)?, for which the user supplies two more elements. After the A(1,2)? prompt, four inputs are supplied. Since the first fills the complex array A, the Math Pac automatically begins to assign the next array in the list, namely B. The next prompt, B(3)?, indicates that B(0), B(1), and B(2) were assigned from the previous input. The next responses are expressions, not constants. Finally, the prompt is for the second element of C, and the input is completed on this line. Note that real numbers were supplied for complex array elements; the Math Pac automatically sets the imaginary parts to zero. Of course, the HP-71B command stack is active during MAT INPUT. There is no need for a separate MAT READ command, since arrays are also allowed in the HP-71B's READ statement.

The opposites of MAT INPUT are the Math Pac array output statements MAT DISP, MAT PRINT, MAT DISP USING..., and MAT PRINT USING.... The MAT DISP statement outputs the specified array list to the HP-71B's display (or to an external device specified by the DISPLAY IS... statement) in an unformatted manner. An end-of-line sequence is output after each row of every array so that a displayed set of matrix values actually looks like a matrix. An extra end-of-line sequence is output between arrays in the output list. MAT PRINT is identical to MAT DISP except that the array output is sent to the PRINTER IS... device if one is connected to the HP-71B. On the other hand, the MAT DISP USING... and MAT PRINT USING... statements use the format string (or IMAGE statement line number) to format the output of array elements in the list. That is, they are similar to the HP-71B statements DISP USING... and PRINT USING... except that they output entire arrays. Recall that the Math Pac extends HP-71B IMAGE strings to include format specifiers for complex numbers. Hence, complex arrays in MAT DISP USING... and MAT PRINT USING... statements must be formatted with complex field specifiers. For example, suppose A, B, and C are the arrays of the MAT INPUT example above. Then the statement MAT DISP A;B;C; would produce the following output in the display of the HP-71B:

```

(1,2) (3,4) (5,0)
(0,2) (5,0) (1,0)

```

```

2
3
4
9.21954445729
-2.06761537357E-13
Inf

```

```

2981 1
2 3

```

The use of semicolons after each array in the above MAT DISP statement specifies compact spacing in the output. However, the statement

```
MAT DISP USING "6C(K,2D,'i'),7(DDDDD.D),3(ZZZ)";A,B,C
```

would produce the following output in the HP-71B's display.

```

(1, 2i)(3, 4i)(5, 0i)
(0, 2i)(5, 0i)(1, 0i)

```

2.0
 3.0
 4.0
 9.2
 -.0
 Inf
 2981.0001
 002003

The C(K,2D,"i") portion of the above MAT DISP USING... statement is an example of a Math Pac complex field specifier for formatted number output.

Matrix Algorithms and Speed

The algorithms behind the Math Pac matrix operations are essentially a combination of the best algorithms from the HP-85 Computer's Matrix ROM, the HP-75 Computer's Math Pac, and the HP-15C Calculator.³ These include the basic compact Crout* factorization underlying the LU decomposition[†] used in determinant, inversion, and system solution. The factorization includes extended precision accumulation of inner products, partial pivoting, and a pivot replacement scheme that enables special attention to be paid to singular and nearly singular matrices. The residual correction algorithms for system solution, the "tag and cycle" in-place transposition scheme, and certain factorization methods for complex inversion and system solution were brought over from these older products and improved in the HP-71B Math Pac.

As is the case in the Math Pac's predecessors, no artificial limits are imposed upon the size of array operands for any of the matrix functions (this also includes the polynomial root finder and fast Fourier transform described later). The upper bound on the permissible size of array operands is a function of available memory alone. For example, inversion of a 45×45 real, 20×20 complex short, or 18×18 complex matrix is perfectly reasonable on a 16K-byte machine. Of course, these sizes increase with added RAM.

One major improvement in the matrix operations of the Math Pac over its BASIC language predecessors is in the area of speed. This improvement was made possible through the use of direct pointer manipulation into arrays, rather than accessing array elements by their indexes (again, this method of direct pointer manipulation is used in the polynomial root finder and fast Fourier transform functions, also with dramatic speed improvement). For example, a 10×10 real matrix is inverted by the ROM in a mere 8 seconds. Inversion of a 45×45 real matrix requires only about 6 minutes. This speed improvement came at the expense of more ROM space. However, this was not a major constraint, as was the case in the HP-85 Matrix ROM and HP-75 Math Pac.

Finally, the fundamental matrix algorithms were modified to account for IEEE-style arithmetic. As with the complex algorithms, this was a major design challenge.

Root Finding and Integration

Another major design goal of the HP-71B Math Pac was

*An adaptation of the Gauss procedure for numerical solution of simultaneous linear equations on digital computers.

†For a description of LU decomposition as used by the HP-15C, see pages 31-32 of reference 3.

implementation of the SOLVE and \int_y^x functions of the HP-15C Calculator, adding the new capability of allowing these functions to be nested. The FNROOT and INTEGRAL functions of the Math Pac are versions of these HP-15C solve and integrate functions. In addition to making these implementations faster and more accurate, it was especially important for FNROOT and INTEGRAL to be versatile and easy to use. In particular, what was desired was the capability to be able to solve equations and integrate functions without first writing a BASIC program to do it, to be able to solve equations with several variables, and to perform iterated integrals.

A primary issue in the implementation was that of designating the formal variable in the equation or function—the variable to solve for in the case of FNROOT, and the variable of integration in the case of INTEGRAL. Since it was to be a formal variable, room should be allocated for it only so long as the FNROOT or INTEGRAL function is in operation, and there should be no possibility of interference with other user variables. For these reasons, it was decided to use special variables FVAR and IVAR as the formal variables for the equation unknown and the variable of integration, respectively.

The sequences of operations for FNROOT and INTEGRAL are similar in their overall structure:

1. Evaluate and store all the initialization parameters (initial guesses, endpoints, etc).
2. Store away any pending value of the formal parameter to allow nesting of the functions.
3. Compute a new value for the formal parameter and assign it to that parameter.
4. Evaluate the expression to be solved or integrated.
5. Use the result of (4) in the computation of the root or integral.
6. If the exit criteria are met, then (7), otherwise return to (3).
7. Restore any pending value of the formal parameter.
8. Return the computed root or integral.

A Closer Look at FNROOT

FNROOT is a numeric-valued function of three arguments, all of which can be arbitrary real-valued expressions. The first two arguments represent initial guesses for the root (not necessarily distinct), and are evaluated only once to initialize the process. The last argument, which represents the expression to solve, will be repeatedly evaluated, with FVAR assigned various values in hope of finding some value for FVAR that causes the last argument to evaluate to zero. If such a value for FVAR is found, this value is returned as the value of the function FNROOT(argument1, argument2, argument3). For example, to solve $f(x) = \sin x - \cos x$ for a real root with initial guesses 1 and 2, the statement FNROOT(1,2,SIN(FVAR)-COS(FVAR)) could be used. Of course, if the variable FVAR does not appear somewhere in the definition of the third argument, then the function is considered to be constant.

The search for a root proceeds by bent-secant, quadratic interpolation, and minima-bounding methods, depending on the detected shape of the function. FNROOT will return a value when it finds a root, a local minimum of absolute value, or a pair of neighboring machine-representable num-

bers across which the function changes sign, when the search leads out of the range of representable numbers, or when quadratic interpolation has been used eight times in succession. This last condition is a safety valve to ensure that the function does not stumble into an endless cycle caused by peculiar round-off conditions.

The FNROOT function has been fine-tuned to locate local minima of absolute value—as soon as the presence of a local minimum can be detected, the search is successively narrowed, almost inevitably finding the minimum, the exception being those cases that would require more than eight successive quadratic interpolations. For example, FNROOT(A,B,(100*(ABS(FVAR-29)))^{0.01}) will quickly return 29 for many values of A and B, even though the function 100|x-29|^{0.01} is quite flat, with a sharp notch at x = 29.

The ability to nest these FNROOT calculations is especially useful for finding roots of functions of complex parameters. For example, we can find a complex root $u = x + yi$ of the symmetric TE-mode characteristic equation for a slab waveguide:

$$(R \cos u)^2 - u^2 = 0$$

For a fixed complex R, say $R^2 = 0.6i$, we could use the following program to find a complex solution for u.

```

10 REAL X,Y,Y2
20 Y=0 @ Y2=1
30 DEF FNG(X1)
40 Y=FNROOT(Y,Y2,ABS((0.6)*COS((X1,FVAR))^2-(X1,FVAR)^2))
50 Y2=FGUESS @ FNG=FVALUE
60 END DEF
70 X=FNROOT(.5,1,FNG(FVAR))
80 DISP (X,Y)

```

In this program, line 10 sets up X, Y, and Y2 as real scalar variables. Eventually, X and Y will hold the real and imaginary parts of the calculated root, respectively. Line 20 initializes Y and the auxiliary variable Y2 to be initial estimates for the imaginary part of the root. Lines 30 to 60 define a function of one variable, FNG, whose value at a point X1 is equal to $|(R \cos(X1 + Yi))|^2 - (X1 + Yi)^2$ evaluated at a point Y1 where FNROOT found a minimum. This function also has the side effect of saving the value of this Y1 in the variable Y (line 40), and saving the next-best guess for Y1 in the variable Y2 (line 50). These will be used as initial guesses for the imaginary part of the root on the next iteration, on the theory that if X1 hasn't changed very much, then the new Y1 should be close to the old Y1. Line 70 finds a value for X1 for which FNG(X1) is a minimum and assigns this value to X. The last line displays the values found for X and Y, the real and imaginary parts of a root of the original equation. For the program given above, the values returned are $X = 0.599135765929$ and $Y = 0.367178688135$. The computed value of the slab waveguide TE-mode equation for this value of $u = X + Yi$ is exactly zero, and so this is truly a root.

To allow problems such as this to be solved using FNROOT, we needed two additional utilities, both of which occur in the above program. The utilities are FGUESS and FVALUE, both real-valued functions of no parameters. FVALUE returns the value of the function for the argument returned by the most recently completed execution of

FNROOT for the function. This means, for example, that if FVALUE is zero, then the value returned by the most recently completed FNROOT is indeed a root (in machine arithmetic). FGUESS returns the next-to-last trial root of a completed FNROOT operation (FNROOT itself returns the last trial value). The availability of FGUESS allows an FNROOT that was terminated by the eighth-quadratic-fit rule to be restarted without any serious loss of information. It also allows the choice of efficient initial guesses when finding a root of a small perturbation of an equation already solved.

A Closer Look at INTEGRAL

The integration operator INTEGRAL is a numeric-valued function of four arguments, all of which can be arbitrary real-valued expressions. The first three arguments are used for initialization and are evaluated only once. The first and second arguments are the lower and upper limits of integration, respectively. The third argument expresses the relative error of the computed integrand, and the fourth argument is the integrand itself. Like FVAR for FNROOT, if the variable IVAR does not appear somewhere in the definition of the fourth argument, then the integrand is considered to be constant.

INTEGRAL proceeds by computing a sequence of weighted sums of the value of the integrand for selected values of the integration variable, IVAR. These sums are accumulated in an extended-precision, eight-level modified Romberg scheme.⁶ On each successive iteration, the total number of sampled integration points is doubled, although the information from the previous iteration is retained so that previously sampled points do not need to be resampled. These iterations produce a sequence of approximate integrals $I(k,j)$, where $k = 0, 1, \dots$ and $j = 0, 1, \dots, \min(k,7)$. Here, $I(k,0)$ is the direct weighted sum of 2^k sampled integration points, and $I(k,j)$ is the Romberg extrapolation given by $I(k,j) = (4^j I(k,j-1) - I(k-1,j-1))/(4^j - 1)$.

At the same time, a single-precision weighted sum of the absolute value of the integrand at the same sampling points, $E(k)$, is computed for use in deciding when the extrapolation has been carried out far enough. In particular, if $|I(k,j+2) - I(k,j+1)| < e \times E(k)$ and $|I(k,j+1) - I(k,j)| < e \times E(k)$, where e is the value of the third argument of INTEGRAL, then the integral is judged to have converged and $I(k,j+2)$ is returned as the value of the integral. The final value of $e \times E(k)$ is also saved and returned through IBOUND, a function with no arguments. If approximations $I(0,0)$ through $I(15,7)$ are computed without convergence, then $I(15,8)$ is returned as the integral value, but IBOUND will return $-e \times E(15)$, the negative sign indicating the lack of convergence. For many purposes, such as when the integrand is a purely mathematical function, it is reasonable to use 10^{-12} , the smallest usable value, for e .

Using INTEGRAL is quite simple. For example, to compute

$$\int_0^2 \exp(x^2 - x) dx$$

the statement `INTEGRAL(0,2,1E-12,EXP(IVAR^2-IVAR))` can be used. As another example, the nested integral

$$\int_1^5 x \int_0^x y \cosh y dy dx$$

can be easily computed by the statement `INTEGRAL(1,5,1E-12,IVAR*INTEGRAL(0,IVAR,1E-12,IVAR*COSH(IVAR)))`.

The multiple use of `IVAR` in the last example illustrates one of the design features of `INTEGRAL`. That is, the value of `IVAR` is not bound again by an `INTEGRAL` operation until the integrand is actually sampled. This means that the first two occurrences of `IVAR` in the above example refer to the integration variable of the outer integral, while the second two occurrences refer to the integration variable of the inner integral. In addition, when the value of `IVAR` is bound again, its previous value is saved, and this value is restored upon completion of an integral.

To compute a multiple integral where the integrand is an inseparable function of several variables, it is easiest to pass the integration variable's value from an outer to an inner integral using a user-defined function. For example, to compute surface area of the paraboloid of revolution $z = x^2 + y^2$ over the region where $1 < x < 2$ and $4 < y < 5$, the following two-line program can be used:

```
10 DEF FNF(X)=INTEGRAL(4,5,1E-12,SQR(1+4*(X^2+IVAR^2))
20 DISP INTEGRAL(1,2,1E-12,FNF(IVAR))
```

The first line of the program defines the function `FNF` whose value at `X` is equal to

$$\int_4^5 \sqrt{1+4(x^2+y^2)} \, dy$$

The second line of the program integrates this function with respect to `x` from `x = 1` to `x = 2` and displays the result. This yields

$$\int_1^2 \int_4^5 \sqrt{1+4(x^2+y^2)} \, dy \, dx$$

Nesting INTEGRALS and FNROOTS: A Design Challenge

The HP-71B's BASIC operating system recognizes several classes of operations. Among these are *statements* and *expressions*. Some important distinctions between statements and expressions include the related facts that:

- A statement begins and ends in a known state
- Statements cannot be combined with other statements to form new statements, but expressions can be so combined
- Expressions use and must leave inviolate the internal system stack, but statements need not do so
- Statements return no value, but expressions do.

Although the additional latitude allowed in the operation of a statement would have made the design of `FNROOT` and `INTEGRAL` simpler, implementing them as statements would have made it much more difficult for anyone to solve complicated problems using them. Since they are implemented as expressions, a user can, for example, take the cosine of an integral by merely using `COS(INTEGRAL(...))` or square the root of an equation by using `FNROOT(...)^2`, and most important, one can use `INTEGRAL(...INTEGRAL(...INTEGRAL(...)))` etc.

An important subclass of expressions are functions. Functions are called with their arguments already evaluated and waiting on the system stack. Because both `FNROOT` and `INTEGRAL` need to evaluate at least one of their arguments over and over, they clearly could not be implemented as ordinary functions. They were instead implemented as "funny functions" whose arguments are

passed to them unevaluated and in the statement in which they are executing, rather than on the system stack. This situation presented the following design problems:

1. How to keep track of the location of the integrand or expression, since it is possible for its location to change during evaluation.
2. How to pass the current value of `IVAR` or `FVAR` during evaluation of the integrand or expression and keep track of pending values for later use.
3. How to handle errors occurring during evaluation of the integrand or expression, since in some cases these will destroy the system stack, rendering completion of the `INTEGRAL` or `FNROOT` operation impossible, and in other cases they will not.
4. How to handle the HP-71B's `ATTN` (attention) key, which will not interrupt evaluation of a pure expression, but should be taken into account for `INTEGRAL` or `FNROOT`, since their evaluation can, in certain cases, take a relatively long time.

The first three problems were solved by the use of objects within memory known as I/O buffers. The important properties of I/O buffers are that they can be found easily, they can store addresses to be updated to the correct values automatically whenever memory contents are moved, and they can be expanded and contracted as needed. `FNROOT` and `INTEGRAL` each have an I/O buffer associated with them. Stacked within each buffer are the addresses of the pending integrands and expressions, the values of `IVAR` and `FVAR`, and user-defined-function nesting counters (the *protection word*). The reason for this protection word is as follows. User-defined functions are a class of expressions that allow the execution of statements within expressions. To do so, they first save the entire system stack present when they are called, and restore this system stack, along with the value returned by the function, when the definition is fully executed. For this reason, errors occurring during the execution of a user-defined function within an integrand, say, will not prevent completion of the integral, since the user can correct the error condition and continue evaluation of the function from where it was halted by the error. Errors occurring within pure expressions, however, do not allow continuation in this way. The protection word within the `INTEGRAL` or `FNROOT` I/O buffer is incremented each time a user-defined function is called, and decremented each time a user-defined function is completed. This allows the `INTEGRAL` and `FNROOT` algorithms to decide if an error is continuable (protection word nonzero, so the error occurred within a user-defined function) or not continuable. If the error is not continuable, then all the top unprotected levels of the I/O buffer stacks are removed from the buffer.

The situation with the `ATTN` key is similar to that of errors. During evaluation of most pure expressions, the `ATTN` key is ignored. If the `ATTN` key is pressed during evaluation of a user-defined function, however, execution will stop after completion of the current statement within the definition. One can then examine the values of variables, try some quick calculations, and continue execution if desired. Since this "stop, check, and continue" capability seemed so important for potentially time-consuming operations like `INTEGRAL` and `FNROOT`, it was decided to allow user-defined functions within the integrand or expression

to handle the **ATTN** key if possible. Only if the **ATTN** key is detected either immediately before or immediately after evaluation of the integrand or expression, indicating that it wasn't handled by a user-defined function, will more drastic action be taken. This action is to pretend that the exit criteria have been met, and return values and update utility functions accordingly. In the case of **INTEGRAL**, the current approximation is returned as the value and the negated current value of $e \times E(k)$ is stored for **IBOUND**. In the case of **FNROOT**, the current value of the trial root is returned, the previous trial root is returned for **FGUESS**, and the value of the expression at the trial root is returned for **FVALUE**.

Polynomial Root Finder

Another major contribution of the Math Pac is a very sophisticated polynomial root-finding scheme. First implemented for the HP-75 Computer's Math Pac, the objectives for that project's polynomial root finder were the same as for the HP-71B Math Pac:

- The root finder must be completely global—no user-supplied initial guess(es) or stopping criteria should be required.
- The algorithm must be fast. That is, the basic iteration should have a high order of convergence.
- The root finder must be able to locate all zeros (real and complex) of any degree of polynomial with real coefficients. As with the matrix operations, the only limit on the degree of the polynomial to be factored should be available memory.
- Overflow/underflow (always a factor in polynomial evaluation and root-finding programs) should be completely eliminated as a problem.
- The root finder must be reliable. The failure rate should be very low, zero if possible.

Using the above criteria, the search for an algorithmic basis for the Math Pac's polynomial root finder uncovered the FORTRAN program **ZERPOL**,* originally written for the IBM 7094 Computer System. A version of **ZERPOL** entitled **ZPOLR** now exists in the IMSL library for use on the IBM 370 Computer. **ZERPOL** is widely considered to be the finest global polynomial root finder. The HP-71B Math Pac version is essentially an assembly language translation. **ZERPOL** met all of the above criteria except the fourth. However, as will be seen, overflow/underflow problems were eliminated in the HP-71B Math Pac implementation through the use of a huge internal exponent range.

The Math Pac polynomial root finder is implemented using the statement **MAT Z=PROOT(A)**. The real operand array **A** is interpreted as containing the coefficients $a_N, a_{N-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0$ of the polynomial

$$P(Z) = \sum_{k=0}^N a_k Z^k$$

where a_k is real for $k = 0, 1, \dots, N$. Since the coefficients are assumed to be ordered from a_N to a_0 , there are no dimensionality restrictions on the array **A**. Thus, an $(N+1)$ -element operand array **A** represents an N th-degree polynomial.

* **ZERPOL** appeared in an MS thesis by Brian T. Smith (University of Toronto, 1967). The thesis was directed by William M. Kahan. It is a rewrite of an earlier (1963) version by Charles S. Dunkl and William M. Kahan for the IBM 7090 Computer System.

mial. The result array **Z** must be complex (to hold complex roots) and will be assigned the roots of the given polynomial roughly in order of increasing magnitude. If **Z** is a vector, then it will be implicitly redimensioned to have N elements; if **Z** is a matrix, then it will be implicitly redimensioned to $N \times 1$. For example, the BASIC program

```
10 OPTION BASE 1 @ DIM A(7) @ COMPLEX Z(1)
20 DATA 5,-45,225,-425,170,370,-500
30 READ A()
40 MAT Z=PROOT(A)
50 MAT DISP Z
```

may be used to find all roots of the polynomial

$$5Z^6 - 45Z^5 + 225Z^4 - 425Z^3 + 170Z^2 + 370Z - 500.$$

When the above program is run, the roots are stored in **Z** and displayed as follows:

```
(1,1)
(1,-1)
(-1,0)
(2,0)
(3,4)
(3,-4)
```

Notice that the complex result array **Z** is implicitly redimensioned to have six elements and that the complex roots are found in conjugate pairs.

Polynomial Root-Finder Algorithm

Before the root finder is initiated, leading zeros, trailing zeros, NaNs, and Infs are all weeded out of the coefficient array. Temporary memory is then reserved to hold certain internal variables, an extended-precision copy of the coefficient array (which shrinks in size as roots are found), and an extended-precision temporary quotient array to hold deflated coefficients during the polynomial evaluations. Since the algorithm is not bound by the degree of the polynomial (in keeping with the third objective above), this temporary memory use is the only upper bound on the degree of the polynomial that can be factored by **PROOT**. On a machine with 16K bytes of RAM, a **REAL** operand array, and a **COMPLEX** result array, factoring a 368-degree polynomial is reasonable.

The basic iteration used is Laguerre's method where the Laguerre step at the iterate Z_i for the polynomial $P(Z)$ of degree N is (see Fig. 3 and Fig. 4):

$$Z_{i+1} = Z_i - \frac{N \times P(Z_i)}{P'(Z_i) \pm \sqrt{(N-1)^2 \times (P'(Z_i))^2 - N(N-1) \times P(Z_i)P''(Z_i)}}$$

The sign in the denominator is chosen to give the Laguerre step of smaller magnitude. Polynomials or their quotients of degree less than three are solved using the quadratic formula or linear factorization. Laguerre's iteration is cubically convergent to isolated zeros, exact for zeros of multiplicity $N-1$ and N , and linearly convergent to zeros of other multiplicities. It is the cubic convergence of this method that made it attractive in light of the second objective above.

In keeping with the first objective, the **PROOT** function is global, partly because the user is not required to supply an initial guess. In other words, no prior knowledge of the

$$\text{Let } P(Z) = \sum_{k=0}^N a_k Z^k$$

Evaluation at Real Point $Z = x$ (Horner's Method)

$$b_{N+1} = 0$$

$$b_k = a_k + x b_{k+1} \quad \text{for } k = N, N-1, \dots, 0.$$

$$c_N = 0$$

$$c_k = b_{k+1} + x c_{k+1} \quad \text{for } k = N-1, N-2, \dots, 0$$

$$d_{N-1} = 0$$

$$d_k = c_{k+1} + x d_{k+1} \quad \text{for } k = N-2, N-3, \dots, 0$$

$$P(x) = b_0$$

$$P'(x) = c_0$$

$$P''(x) = 2d_0$$

Evaluation at Complex Point $Z = x + yi$ (Modified Horner's Method)

Define $R = \|Z\|^2 = x^2 + y^2$, then

$$b_{N+1} = b_{N+2} = 0$$

$$b_k = a_k + 2x b_{k+1} - R b_{k+2} \quad \text{for } k = N, N-1, \dots, 1$$

$$b_0 = a_0 + x b_1 - R b_2$$

$$c_{N-1} = c_N = 0$$

$$c_k = b_{k+2} + 2x c_{k+1} - R c_{k+2} \quad \text{for } k = N-2, N-3, \dots, 1$$

$$c_0 = b_2 + x c_1 - R c_2$$

$$d_{N-2} = d_{N-3} = 0$$

$$d_k = c_{k+2} + 2x d_{k+1} - R d_{k+2} \quad \text{for } k = N-4, N-5, \dots, 1$$

$$d_0 = c_2 + x d_1 - R d_2$$

$$P(Z) = b_0 + y b_1 i$$

$$P'(Z) = (b_1 - 2y^2 c_1) + 2y c_0 i$$

$$P''(Z) = 2[(c_0 - 4y^2 d_0) + y(3c_1 - 4y^2 d_1)i]$$

Fig. 3. Recurrences for polynomial evaluation.

location of the roots is assumed. The PROOT function always attempts to begin its search (iteration) at the origin of the complex plane. An annulus in the plane known to contain the smallest magnitude root of the current (original or quotient) polynomial is constructed about the origin (refer to Fig. 4), and the initial Laguerre step is rejected as too large if it exceeds the upper limit of this annulus (as would happen if, for example, the first and second derivatives of the polynomial vanished at the origin). If the initial Laguerre step is rejected, a spiral search from the lower radius of the annulus in the direction of the rejected initial step is begun until a suitable initial iterate is found. Once the iteration process has successfully started, circles around each iterate are constructed (using techniques similar to the construction of the outer radius of the initial

annulus about the origin) and modification of the Laguerre step is made when it is deemed to be too large or when the polynomial value does not decrease in the direction of the step. Because of this step-size bounding technique, the roots are normally found in order of increasing magnitude, thus minimizing the round-off errors resulting from deflation.

Evaluation of the polynomial and its derivatives at a real iterate uses Horner's method, while a complex iterate uses a modification of Horner's method that, by taking advantage of the fact that the Horner recurrence is symmetric with respect to complex conjugation, saves approximately half of the multiplications (see Fig. 3).

The PROOT function uses a sophisticated technique to determine when an iterate is to be accepted as a root. This eliminates the need for user-supplied stopping criteria and completes the fulfillment of the first objective. When the polynomial is evaluated at an iterate, an upper bound for the rounding error (dependent upon the machine unit round-off) accrued during the evaluation process is also computed. If the computed polynomial magnitude at an iterate is less than this bound, then the iterate is accepted as a root. This bound is determined under the constraint that there must actually exist a machine-representable number at which the computed polynomial magnitude is less than this bound. An iterate is also accepted as a root if the polynomial magnitude has decreased in the direction of the step at that iterate but the step size has become negligible with respect to the magnitude of that iterate.

Before the polynomial and its derivatives are evaluated at an iterate, the imaginary part of that iterate is compared with the magnitude of the step to that iterate. If the imaginary part is much smaller than the step, then the imaginary part is set to zero, thus forcing that iterate to be real. This is primarily a time-saving device since the number of operations required to evaluate the polynomial and its derivatives at a real point is much less than that at a complex point. Also, when a complex root is found, there is 100% confidence that it is actually complex (and not a real root contaminated by round-off) so that both it and its complex conjugate can be declared as roots.

As the polynomial and its derivatives are evaluated at an iterate, the coefficients of the quotient polynomial as the current polynomial is reduced (deflated) by either a linear or quadratic factor are also computed. When an iterate is accepted as a root, the quotient polynomial then becomes the current polynomial and the entire procedure repeats. Note explicitly that the polynomial is only reduced by real linear or quadratic factors to keep the deflated coefficients real.

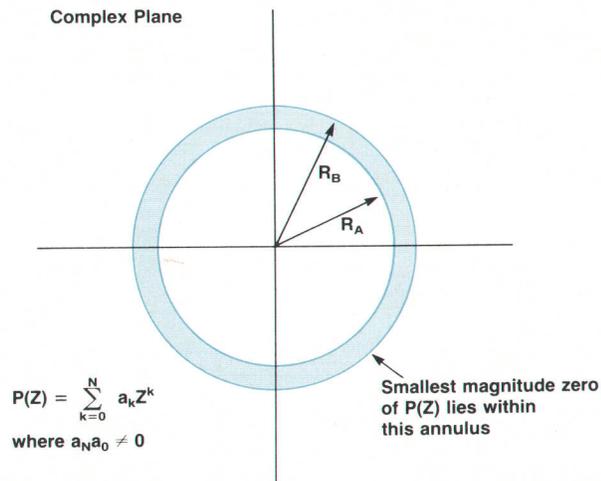
If the step size at an iterate becomes negligible with respect to the magnitude of that iterate and the magnitude of the polynomial does not decrease in the direction of the step, then the PROOT function has failed. This is caused by rounding error contaminating the direction of the Laguerre step. However, no polynomial has yet been produced that causes either ZERPOL or PROOT to fail. This nonfailure aspect of ZERPOL (and hence of PROOT) satisfies the fifth objective listed above.

Overflow/Underflow in PROOT

As is the case with any FORTRAN program, ZERPOL operated on a finite and, compared to the HP-71B, relatively small double-precision exponent range. For this reason, ZERPOL could occasionally exhibit overflow/underflow problems that naturally arise during polynomial manipulations. A great deal of ZERPOL coding is dedicated to clever minimization of these problems.

One of the design achievements of the PROOT function is virtual elimination of these overflow/underflow problems. This was accomplished by the fact that, like all other Math Pac functions, PROOT operates internally on separated floating-point numbers containing a 15-digit mantissa and an exponent in the range from -50,000 to 50,000. Contrast this range with that available to the HP-71B user (from -499 to 499), and it is easy to see why PROOT is not plagued with overflow/underflow problems.

However, to ensure integrity of all the math primitives called by PROOT, the coefficients of any quotient polynomial, intermediate values in the evaluation recurrences, bounds on an iterate, etc. are normally kept in the exponent range from -5000 to 5000. Even with this dynamic expo-



$$R_B = \min(G, L, F, C)$$

where G = geometric mean of the zeros = $\sqrt[N]{|a_0/a_N|}$

$$L = \text{Laguerre bound} = L_0 \sqrt{N}$$

where L_0 is the magnitude of the Laguerre step from the origin.

F = Fejer bound = magnitude of smallest magnitude zero of

$$F(Z) = a_2 Z^2 + (N-1)a_1 Z + N(N-1)a_0/2$$

$$C = \text{Cauchy upper bound} = R_A / (\sqrt[N]{2} - 1)$$

where R_A is the Cauchy lower bound = minimum positive zero of

$$S(Z) = |a_0| - \sum_{k=1}^N |a_k| Z^k$$

R_A is computed using a Newton-Raphson iteration on $S(Z)$ with initial guess $x_0 = \min(G, F, L)$.

Fig. 4. Annulus and equations used to describe the bounding of the size of the Laguerre step used by the PROOT function in its search for roots (see text).

nent range, PROOT also contains a scaling procedure designed to eliminate any overflow/underflow problems. The coefficients are scaled initially so that the maximum magnitude is on the order of 10^{480} (this also helps minimize deflation round-off errors). If extended range overflow is detected during evaluation of the polynomial and its derivatives, the coefficients are rescaled by the factor 10^{-12} in the hope of eliminating the overflow condition. If, as a result of rescaling, the leading coefficient of the current polynomial underflows the extended range, then a serious inaccuracy exists. However, this situation is considered impossible to produce by any user-supplied polynomial. In fact, the rescaling procedure has yet to be used during internal testing of the PROOT function.

PROOT Performance

PROOT's primary criterion for accuracy is that the coefficients of the polynomial reconstructed from the calculated roots should closely resemble the original coefficients. To check PROOT's performance, reconstruction tests have been performed using LISP-supported infinite-precision arithmetic.

Often, a zero of a polynomial is not a machine-representable number and the PROOT function attempts to locate the closest machine-representable number to that root. For example, neither of the real roots of the polynomial $Z^2 - 2$ are machine-representable numbers and PROOT returns ± 1.41421356237 , the closest machine-representable numbers to the true roots. A more vivid example is the polynomial $P(Z) = 10^{-100}Z^3 + Z^2 + 2 \times 10^{100}$, for which PROOT returns a real root at $-1E100$. Now, $P(-10^{100}) = 2 \times 10^{100}$, which is far from zero. However, it can be shown that $-1E100 + R$ is a root of $P(Z)$ where $-2 < R < 1$. Thus, the true real root is not a machine-representable number, with $-1E100$ being the closest machine-representable number to the true root. Root-finding methods that require a user-specified tolerance in the polynomial magnitude as a stopping criterion would generally fail with this polynomial.

PROOT's performance with isolated zeros is illustrated by the 100-degree polynomial

$$P(Z) = \sum_{k=0}^{100} Z^k$$

Of the 200 real and imaginary components of the calculated roots for this polynomial, about half were found to 12-digit accuracy. Of the rest, the error did not exceed a few counts in the twelfth (or last) resulting digit.

For multiple or nearly multiple zeros, accurate resolution is difficult for any root finder. Generally, $(k-1)/k$ of the digits, where k is the multiplicity of the root, will be inaccurate. For example, the polynomial $(Z + 1)^{20}$, with -1 as a root of multiplicity 20, was solved by PROOT to yield the following displayed roots:

(-.997874038627,0)
 (-.934656570635,0)
 (-.947080146258,-.160105886062)
 (-.947080146258,.160105886062)
 (-.725960092383,-.178602450179)
 (-.725960092383,.178602450179)
 (-.678701343788,-6.24034855342E-2)

(- .678701343788,6.24034855342E-2)
 (- .815082852233, -.270565874916)
 (- .815082852233, .270565874916)
 (- .934932478844, -.326980158732)
 (- .934932478844, .326980158732)
 (-1.06905713438, -.337946194292)
 (-1.06905713438, .337946194292)
 (-1.19977533452, -.295162714497)
 (-1.19977533452, .295162714497)
 (-1.30383056467, -.200016185042)
 (-1.30383056467, .200016185042)
 (-1.3593147483, 7.00833934259E-2)
 (-1.3593147483, -.700833934259E-2)

The roots appear inherently inaccurate, because of the high multiplicity of -1 as a root. Between zero and one correct digits were expected, even though the first zero found was better than this. However, the reconstructed coefficients are very good and are shown below (rounded to twelve digits):

| Original Coefficients | Reconstructed Coefficients |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | 1 |
| 20 | 20 |
| 190 | 190.000000001 |
| 1140 | 1140 |
| 4845 | 4845.00000003 |
| 15504 | 15504 |
| 38760 | 38760.0000003 |
| 77520 | 77520.0000007 |
| 125970 | 125970.000001 |
| 167960 | 167960.000002 |
| 184756 | 184756.000002 |
| 167960 | 167960.000003 |
| 125970 | 125970.000002 |
| 77520 | 77520.0000015 |
| 38760 | 38760.0000009 |
| 15504 | 15504.0000004 |
| 4845 | 4845.00000011 |
| 1140 | 1140.00000004 |
| 190 | 190.000000042 |
| 20 | 20.0000000344 |
| 1 | 1.00000001018 |

Sample approximate time performance results for the PROOT function finding the roots of the benchmark polynomial below are given for various values of N. Of course, the times listed are those required to calculate *all* of the roots:

| N | Time (seconds) |
|-----|----------------|
| 3 | 3 |
| 5 | 6 |
| 10 | 22 |
| 15 | 42 |
| 20 | 142 |
| 30 | 168 |
| 50 | 568 |
| 70 | 1060 |
| 100 | 2101 |

$$P(Z) = \sum_{k=0}^N Z^k$$

Fast Fourier Transform

The Math Pac implements a complex-to-complex fast Fourier transform using the statement `MAT A = FOUR(B)`. The

complex operand array **B** contains the N complex input data points. Since the points are assumed to be ordered from first element to last, there are no dimension restrictions on the array **B**. The array **A** must also be complex type, and will be assigned the N complex values that represent the transform of the source data. If **A** is a vector, it will be implicitly redimensioned to have N elements. If **A** is a matrix, it will be implicitly redimensioned to N×1.

The foremost design objective for the implementation of the fast Fourier transform (also known as the finite Fourier transform, or the discrete Fourier transform, or just the FFT) was, quite simply, speed. The standard Cooley-Tukey algorithm is adapted to the machine language of the HP-71B, attempting to squeeze as much speed out of a computation-intensive operation as possible without using array processors.

As one measure of the Math Pac's success, compare the time of "more than 12 hours"* to compute a 400-point real-data fast Fourier transform in CBASIC on an IMS5000 Computer with the HP-71B Math Pac's time of 254 seconds to compute a 1024-point complex-data (or, by a simple trick, a 2048-point real-data) fast Fourier transform!

Although it is pretty clear that the HP-71B with the Math Pac's `MAT...FOUR` statement will not replace the high-speed, on-line spectrum analyzer, together with the other Math Pac array operations and complex functions it does provide simple and efficient ways to solve inhomogeneous differential equations numerically, and to perform convolutions and off-line digital filtering and other important scientific and engineering solutions.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to acknowledge the work of the other three members of the Math Pac project team. Paul McClellan implemented the extensive set of matrix algebra, Joseph Tanzini coded the complex functions and designed the intricate IEEE floating-point interface for these operations, and Howard Barrar wrote the parse/decompile overhead for the ROM and the system interface for `FNROOT` and `INTEGRAL`.

Thanks are also due to William Kahan of the University of California at Berkeley, who contributed advice for the `PROOT` function and the IEEE interface.

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* Quoted from Jeffrey L. Star's Technical Forum article on benchmarking discrete Fourier transforms, *BYTE*, February 1984.

Plug-In Module Adds FORTH Language and Assembler to a Handheld Computer

by Robert M. Miller

THE FORTH/ASSEMBLER PAC for the HP-71B Computer provides users with an alternate programming language and allows them and third-party software suppliers to customize the machine for special applications. Four major features are supplied by this 48K-byte plug-in ROM:

- A FORTH kernel providing the functionality of the FORTH 1983 Standard word set with extensions such as string handling, floating-point words, HP-IL capability, and a two-way FORTH/BASIC interface. This portion occupies approximately 16K bytes of the ROM. The user-created FORTH dictionary, with about 1K bytes of FORTH system RAM, is contained in a special HP-71B file called FORTHRAM. The file is maintained at a fixed address at the start of the HP-71B file chain (see Fig. 1).
- An assembler written in FORTH and occupying 15K bytes of the ROM. The assembler can compile new FORTH primitives directly into the user's dictionary, or create binary (BIN) programs and language extension (LEX) files containing new BASIC keywords. The LEX and BIN files created by the assembler do not require the presence of the FORTH/Assembler Pac to run.
- An editor written in BASIC that allows editing and listing of HP-71B TEXT files. These files serve as sources for both FORTH and the assembler. The editor and the corresponding BASIC keywords fill about 10K bytes of the ROM.
- A remote keyboard capability. The BASIC statement KEYBOARD IS . . . , along with the DISPLAY IS . . . statement provided by the 82401A HP-IL Interface Module, allows a programmer to use the keyboard and display of an external terminal or personal computer for programming the HP-71B. This removes the difficulty of having to use the HP-71B's small keyboard and single-line display during the development of large applications. The remote keyboard and/or display can be connected to the HP-71B via the HP-IL or, by using an additional interface, via RS-232-C/V.24 or the HP-IB (IEEE 488).

Design Objectives

The development project that produced the HP-71B's FORTH/Assembler Pac had four objectives:

- To provide an on-board applications development environment that would attract and encourage independent software vendors to write software for the HP-71B, or port their existing software to it
- To encourage volume end users to use the HP-71B for their custom applications
- To provide an alternative language that would run faster than BASIC and would provide users with more access to the internal architecture of the machine

- To allow technically adept users to customize their HP-71B.

Why FORTH?

The language/operating system that was finally chosen to satisfy the design objectives was FORTH, a threaded interpretive language which was developed by Charles Moore for instrument control at the Kitt Peak National Observatory. It has since become very popular for controller applications and is gaining in popularity as an application language for portable and handheld computers.

FORTH is an interpreted language like BASIC in the sense that a line of commands and data can be typed in and executed immediately. However, it is also a compiled language in that new commands (called words) composed of other words and data can be compiled as a series of addresses to be executed. The new word can be used just like any of the existing words and can be executed directly from the keyboard or compiled into the definition of future words.

The design investigation found FORTH to be an extremely flexible tool. Unlike other languages that have a limited number of structures with which to accomplish all

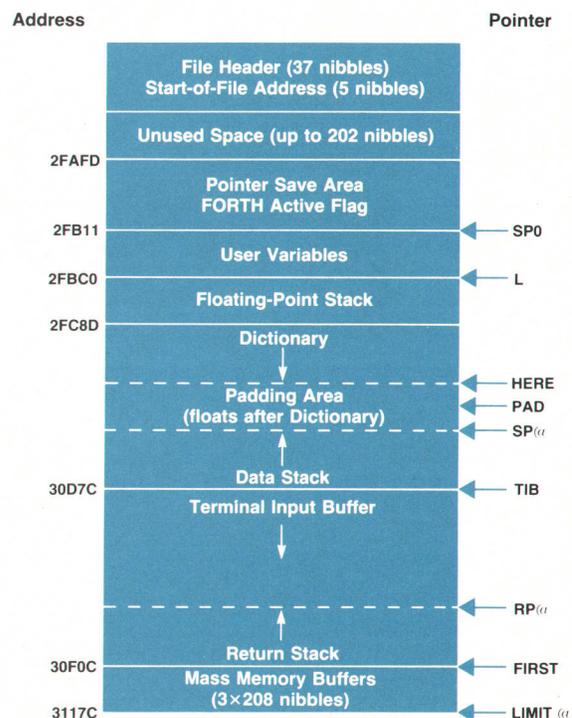


Fig. 1. Structure of the FORTHRAM file in the HP-71B's file chain.

of a user's applications, a programmer can extend a FORTH implementation to provide the structure or tools exactly needed to accomplish the task at hand. Also, FORTH is very fast—typically 5 to 10 times faster than HP-71B BASIC, depending on the application. The fact that FORTH is memory efficient was also a consideration in its selection. Even with its many extensions to the standard FORTH implementation, HP-71B FORTH requires less than 16K bytes.

Finally, it is easy to program in FORTH. The language enforces structured programming practices and encourages the development of applications as a collection of smaller tasks. The interpretive aspects of FORTH allow each of these subtasks to be debugged easily. Applications can be quickly modeled as a series of secondary words (words composed of other words). Then, if the application has a speed-critical path, the words involved can be rewritten as primitive words (words written in assembly language). This kind of development has two very worthwhile benefits: only selected portions of an application need to be written in assembly language, and each task is essentially independent of the other pieces of the application and thus has fewer unintended side effects.

Design Challenges

The most interesting design challenge was making FORTH peacefully coexist with the HP-71B's BASIC environment. Most FORTH systems are takeover systems in that they supersede any built-in operating system and file system. However, on the HP-71B, BASIC is hard-configured—it occupies addresses 0 through 1FFFF. It was necessary that users be able to switch between FORTH and BASIC and have BASIC programs and TEXT and DATA files in memory remain undisturbed by the actions of FORTH.

A further complication was that, while FORTH typically deals with absolute addresses, the HP-71B dynamically configures plug-in modules in the address space depending on their size and the port in which they appear. Thus, a typical HP-71B module cannot depend on being configured at a particular fixed address. To make matters worse, RAM files also move in memory. If a BASIC program grows or shrinks, all files in the file chain above it shift accordingly. And the address in RAM where a user's files begin also changes depending on the number of ROM and RAM modules plugged into the HP-71B.

Coupled with the above considerations was the desire to make use of some of the functions and features provided by BASIC without having to duplicate them in FORTH. The design objective was for FORTH words to be able to execute a function, a statement, or even a program in BASIC, and then return a result to FORTH. Given that the interface was to be provided in one direction, it also seemed appropriate to allow BASIC to have FORTH execute a word or series of words and return a result to BASIC.

In researching the first problem, that of dynamic allocation of ROM address space and the shifting RAM space, the preliminary decision was to live within the imposed limitations of the HP-71B memory management scheme. Working with the dynamic allocation of address space presented a number of unsavory problems. First, addresses of words compiled into new words could not be absolute addresses; instead, they had to be offsets from the base

address of either the RAM or the ROM portion of the dictionary. The high bit of an address acted as a flag to determine whether the offset was to RAM or ROM.

The basis for FORTH's execution speed is the small overhead (in machine instructions) needed to get from word to word. This overhead code, typically called the inner loop, is crucial to a high-performance FORTH system. In a worst-case situation it is possible for a secondary word to spend as much as 50% of its execution time in the inner loop. The typical action of the inner loop is to fetch an address from a memory pointer, then fetch the address contained at the first address, and then start execution at this second address. In this implementation, it is necessary to test the high bit of the first address fetched and, depending on the result of the test, add in either the RAM or the ROM base address. It is then necessary to perform the same test and add on the second address fetched. These additional operations result in a 35% average increase, compared to an absolute addressing scheme, in the number of CPU cycles to execute the inner loop and thus cause an unacceptable speed degradation.

Luckily at this time during the project, the BASIC operating system code had not yet been released and the operating system software design team was persuaded to modify the module configuration algorithm to accommodate the needs of FORTH. In the final version, whenever the HP-71B's configuration code sees a module that is hard-addressed at E0000, it does not configure any modules in the address space between E0000 and FFFFF (64K bytes). This allows the FORTH kernel and assembler to be hard-configured in this address space, thus solving the problem of absolute addresses for the ROM portion of the FORTH system. The remaining parts of the FORTH/Assembler Pac—the editor, FORTH initialization, and the KEYBOARD IS . . . statement—are contained in a soft-configured ROM, which is handled normally by the BASIC operating system.

It was obvious from the beginning that the FORTH system variables and the user's dictionary entries would have to exist within the file structure of the HP-71B BASIC system, yet always reside at the same address. This was resolved by using the FORTHRAM file, which is always the first file in the file chain in the main memory. Directly below the main memory file chain (in lower memory) are the BASIC operating system's configuration buffers containing information about the number and size of the modules plugged in. These buffers have a minimum and a maximum size, and the starting address of the main file chain depends on the current size of these buffers. When FORTHRAM is created, the difference between the maximum and the current size of these buffers is computed. This amount of memory is allocated as padding to sit between the FORTHRAM file header and the FORTH system information. Whenever the BASIC system performs the configuration code, it finishes by sending out a poll informing other modules that the system has been reconfigured. FORTH intercepts that poll, recomputes the difference between the maximum and current size of the configuration buffer, and adjusts the amount of padding accordingly.

Another issue faced by the design team was compatibility with other FORTH systems. Most FORTH systems were developed for byte-oriented machines (where addresses are

16 bits long and an address specifies a unique byte), but the HP-71B is a nibble-oriented machine with 20-bit addresses in which an address specifies a unique nibble. It was determined to be more in keeping with the idea of FORTH to customize FORTH for the HP-71B rather than enforce an arbitrary scheme where a 16- or 32-bit quantity would refer to a 20-bit address. Therefore, all addresses and data items used by the HP-71B FORTH system are 20 bits wide. This increases the size of FORTH secondaries (since all addresses are 5 nibbles instead of 4 nibbles long), but it allows access to the full address space of the machine.

A more far-reaching change was initiated because of the portable nature of the HP-71B and its multiple file system. Unlike other FORTH systems that are disc-based, a frequent mode of operation of the HP-71B is as a stand-alone unit remote from any type of mass storage. This led to the conclusion that the idea of a "screen" (the traditional name of a FORTH source file) would have to be modified. In disc-based systems, the screen is a 1K-byte block of space on the disc divided into 16 lines of 64 bytes each. Programs shorter than 1K bytes still consume the entire block and the 1K-byte size prevents the creation of longer programs. To obtain maximum flexibility for a RAM-based system where space is constrained, the idea of a screen was modified to mean any legal HP-71B TEXT file. This allows screens to have an arbitrary number of lines, each of which can be up to 96 characters long. (The 96-character width, which corresponds to the size of the display buffer, is constrained by FORTH and not the HP-71B TEXT file type.)

Three "mass memory" buffers, provided within FORTH-RAM, are used to compile/execute (called "loading") screens. The loading of screens can be nested (i.e., any screen can contain words that cause another screen to be loaded), since the information necessary to reposition the FORTH system is saved on the FORTH return stack. FORTH will also load files directly from a mass storage device (such as the 82161A Digital Cassette Drive) without requiring the file to be copied into RAM first.

To make use of the HP-71B's excellent floating-point calculation capability, a full set of floating-point words is provided. HP-71B FORTH implements an HP-style floating-point RPN (reverse Polish notation) stack (X, Y, Z, T, and last X registers). The contents of these registers can be manipulated by the FORTH floating-point word set, which duplicates the function set on the keyboard of the HP-41C Handheld Computer. Also, floating-point constants and variables can be created, and words exist to move data between the floating-point and integer stacks. This floating-point implementation provides a bridge to the HP-71B for users who are accustomed to HP's RPN calculators.

One of the traditional uses of FORTH is in controller applications. HP-71B FORTH provides this capability in conjunction with the HP-71B's HP-IL module. Specifically, FORTH implements words that correspond to the BASIC commands ENTER and OUTPUT. The FORTH words ENTER and OUTPUT allow a user's application to send and receive data from a device connected to the HP-71B via the HP-IL. For other HP-IL operations, a FORTH program can use any of the 82401A HP-IL Module's functions through the FORTH/BASIC interface.

There are four FORTH words that pass a string of charac-

ters to the BASIC environment. BASIC evaluates the string as if it were an expression or command typed in at the keyboard except that, instead of displaying the result, it is put on the BASIC math stack. FORTH retrieves the result and returns the value to the appropriate FORTH stack. It is also possible to invoke the BASIC interpreter and have it run a program or edit a line into a file. In all cases, control returns to FORTH after BASIC has finished its assigned task. These FORTH words are:

- BASICI—returns a value to the FORTH data stack.
- BASICF—returns a value to the X register of the FORTH floating-point stack.
- BASIC\$—returns two values to the FORTH data stack: the address of the string (which has been moved to the padding area in FORTH-RAM) and the number of characters in the string.
- BASICX—executes a function, statement or program in BASIC and returns nothing to the FORTH environment.

Some examples of the use of these words are:

- " RUN DATES" BASICX runs the BASIC program DATES.
- " A*SIN(B/C)" BASICF evaluates the BASIC expression A*SIN(B/C) and returns the value to the FORTH floating-point stack.
- " STATUS" BASICI returns the system status to the integer data stack.
- " A\$[1,5]&CHR\$(27)&CHR\$(8)" BASIC\$ evaluates the string expression and returns the resulting string to the FORTH padding area, and the string address and character count to the FORTH data stack.

The FORTH/Assembler Pac provides analogous BASIC commands to retrieve values from the FORTH data and floating-point stacks and also allows a user to pass a character string containing FORTH words and data to the FORTH environment for execution:

- FORTHI—returns the top value from the FORTH data stack (popping that value off the stack).
- FORTHF—returns the contents of the floating-point X register.
- FORTH\$—returns the character string specified by the two top values on the FORTH data stack: the string address and the character count (popping these values off the stack).
- FORTHX—passes a string of FORTH words to FORTH for execution, returning no value. FORTHX may contain up to 14 optional string or numeric parameters. These parameters, or pointers to the parameters in the case of strings, are pushed onto the FORTH data stack before the string of FORTH words is executed.

Some examples of the use of these words are:

- A=FORTHI sets the BASIC variable A equal to the first item on the FORTH integer data stack.
- B=SIN(FORTHI/10) brings the first item on the integer data stack into the BASIC environment where it is used in evaluating the expression. The BASIC variable B is set equal to the result of this expression.
- C=FORTHF sets the BASIC variable C equal to the contents of the X register in the FORTH floating-point stack.
- D\$=FORTH\$&CHR\$(10) sets the BASIC string variable D\$ equal to the character string specified by the top two values on the FORTH integer data stack (character count and address) concatenated with a line-feed character.

- FORTHX 'BASE @ HEX SWAP U. BASE !', A displays the value of the BASIC variable A as an unsigned hexadecimal number.

The Assembler

Most FORTH assemblers are written in an RPN format, as is FORTH, and the opcode for each machine instruction becomes a FORTH word. The drawback to this approach is that it requires an understanding of FORTH to use the assembler and, typically, such assemblers allow few forward references to unresolved labels. The design team decided to make the HP-71B assembler a two-pass assembler using the standard opcode operand format. Since the assembler creates a symbol table during the first pass, there is no limit on the number of forward references allowed. The assembler contains a wide range of pseudo-opcodes to facilitate the creation of either FORTH words, LEX files, or BIN programs. FORTH words are compiled directly into the user's dictionary. For users who wish to create new keywords and LEX files, a three-volume document is available (HP-71B Internal Design Specification) that describes all of the supported operating system entry points, including their entry and exit conditions, as well as information on system data structures. In addition, hooks were left in the assembler to allow for the processing of new pseudo-opcodes. This allows expansion of the assembler's capabilities to handle specialized tasks.

The source for the HP-71B assembler uses HP-71B TEXT files created by the editor. The source can exist either in RAM or on an external device. A listing file can be generated and sent either to an external printer or to a file in RAM. A difficulty in developing the assembler was that it

was written using a language and system that were themselves under development. The FORTH kernel and the assembler were developed concurrently and so it was often the case that slight modifications to the FORTH design caused a ripple effect in the assembler with undesirable results. However, the concurrent development also had the beneficial effect that various words and structures could be added to facilitate the action of the assembler. Furthermore, the assembler is an application program that provided valuable testing of the FORTH Kernel. For example, the FORTH words to create, find, expand, contract, and kill general-purpose system buffers were added specifically for the assembler. These buffers are used to hold variable space needed by the assembler. When the assembler is finished running, this space is reclaimed.

Acknowledgments

It was the careful and friendly design of the HP-71B BASIC operating system that allowed FORTH to be developed so quickly and to be so powerful. System polls were always in the right place when we needed them, as were hooks into various system routines. The FORTH/BASIC interface capability would not have been possible had not the designers of the BASIC operating system allowed for the possibility of parsing and executing BASIC code from an arbitrary location within system RAM.

Gabe Eisenstein contributed to the design and implementation of the FORTH kernel. The assembler was designed and implemented by Geoff Nichols. Nathan Zelle wrote the KEYBOARD IS . . . code and Thaddeus Konar wrote the editor.

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