# BASIC-M <br> INTERPRETER / COMPILER 

User"s Guide

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### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is an introduction to BASIC-M. It gives an overview of the language and its implementation characteristics. The reader already acquainted with BASIC is especially invited to read through this section.

### 1.2 BASIC-M unique features

### 1.2.1 Implementation

### 1.2.1.1 Compiler / Interpreter

In interpreter mode, the operator interacts with his source program which is held in the system RAM. The "RUN" command causes the source to be compiled into an object code which is immediately executed (high-speed compilation : approximately 50 lines/second) under control of the Runtime Package.

In compiler mode, the object data can overwrite the compiler and possibly the BASIC source program; thus no further interaction is possible, but more memory space is available at execution time.

In either mode, an option exists to force the compiler to produce a compact code (five bytes less per statement line): this option however, precludes further tracing or monitoring (see "WHEN ...THEN" and "ON ERROR THEN" statements).

### 1.2.1.2 Object code and Runtime Package

Both the Runtime Package and the code produced by the compiler are position-independent, a powerful feature derived from the MC6809 processor. The Runtime installation address in the end system can be specified at compilation time.

The scratchpad RAM allocated to the BASIC variables and stacks can also be easily controlled, either by type declaration statements, or when invoking the compiler.

### 1.2.1.3 Edit capabilities and error detection

Several system commands exist for automatic line numbering, resequencing and for renaming variables or user-defined functions or procedures.

Errors are detected at three levels :

- when entering the source ( syntax errors )
- when compiling ( compile-time errors )
- when executing the compiled code ( runtime errors ; these may be optionally processed by the user program ).


### 1.2.2 Data types and address assignement control

### 1.2.2.1 Variable names

Unlike standard BASIC, BASIC-M accepts multicharacter variable and user-defined function or procedure names. This allows better readability and program maintenance. The "RENAME" system command provides a means to upgrade standard BASIC variable names. Thus, for instance, M\$ may be easily changed to Month\$, $T(2)$ to Time_of_the_day(2), ... and so on.

### 1.2.2.2 Data types

The following four types are supported :

```
- Real : 5-byte data in a format allowing
                                    a dynamic range of E+38 to E-38,
                                    with an accuracy of over 9 digits.
- String : 3l-character variables.
- Byte : unsigned 8-bit data.
- Integer : signed 16-bit data.
```

A variable is assigned one of the above types either implicitly (real. and string variables conform to BASIC conventions), or explicitly (type declaration via the BYTE or INTEGER statements).

In addition, a single bit can be easily accessed within a byte or integer, just by specifying its position within the variable. Thus the testing or setting of one bit in high-level language becomes a simple matter, as illustrated below.

Examp le 1.0

10 BYTE Pia ADDRESS $\$ 8008$ \ 8008 is an hex constant
20 REM reset bit \#0 if bit \#7 is set
30 IF Pia[7]=1 THEN Pia[0]=0

### 1.2.2.3 Data structures

BASIC-M supports one and two-dimensional arrays that may
contain elements of either of the four data types mentioned before.

### 1.2.2.4 Address assignment

Unless otherwise notified, the compiler takes care of allocating storage to the program variables. However, the user may force the assignment of absolute base addresses to some of his program variables or procedures (external assembly language subroutines). This is achieved via the ADDRESS keyword. For instance, the following statements will define a two-dimensional byte matrix based at the hexadecimal location $\$ C 000$, and a subroutine starting at hex address \$F024.

Example 1.1

12 BYTE Alpha memory $(22,80)$ ADDRESS $\$ C 000$
15 EXTERNAL P̄̄ata ADDRESS \$F024
18 INTEGER Graphic $(22,40)$ ADDRESS Alpha_memory

The possibility of achieving the effect of the FORTRAN "EQUIVALENCE" statement is also illustrated in the previous example : the arrays labelled Alpha_memory and Graphic respectively, occupy the same memory space, although they are not of the same type.
1.2.3 Language extensions
1.2.3.1 Interrupt and condition monitoring

BASIC-M permits the user to work at a "low level", i.e close to the machine environment.

The data types and addressing, as described in the previous paragraph, are a first step to meet this requirement. The statements that are briefly discussed next take it a step.further. They all allow for an easy monitoring of external events or conditions.

### 1.2.3.1.1 Interrupt monitoring

Eight statements are provided for processing interrupt requests :
ON NMI THEN ...
ON IRQ THEN ...
ON FIRQ THEN ....
ON KEY key list THEN ...
and their counterparts :

NEVER NMI

```
NEVER IRQ
NEVER FIRQ
NEVER KEY key list
```

The first three statements of each series refer to the MC6809 intercupt sources, while "ON KEY" and "NEVER KEY" refer to the management of function keys. Below are examples to be described in more detail further on in this manual.

Example 1.2

100 ON NMI THEN Update_time $\backslash$ Real-time clock
320 ON FIRQ THEN GOSUB 480
480 NEVER KEY 3,5,12

### 1.2.3.1.2 Condition monitoring

One of the nicest statements in BASIC-M is the:
"WHEN condition THEN action" statement.
It differs in many respects from the standard "IF ... THEN" statement. The "IF ... THEN" is used to test a particular condition on execution, at a given time : when the statement is encountered.
"WHEN ... THEN" does also test a condition but the test, rather than being done at a given instant, is performed prior to executing each and every statement of the program. The condition specified in the WHEN clause is continuously monitored until another "WHEN ... THEN" statement is encountered, or until a WHEN request is cancelled by the associated "NEVER WHEN" statement.

Not surprisingly, this statement results in some downgrading, as far as speed is concerned, but its advantages far outweigh this drawback. An example of WHEN usage follows:

Example 1.3

125 WHEN Valve_1=0 AND Pressure > 200 THEN Led[3]=1

### 1.2.3.2 Data formatting

Another strength of BASIC-M is that provision is made for formatting both output data and memory-resident data.
1.2.3.2.1 Formatting output data

Before data is transmitted from internal storage to an output device (console, disk, line printer), it goes through an editing process which cannot be easily controlled in
standard BASIC. BASIC-M however offers flexible facilities for specifying the format of the data to be output. The PRINT USING statement actually tells the computer to output data contained in its operand list in a format described in its USING clause. BASIC-M provides eight format descriptors that make the language well suited for a wide variety of applications where a versatile formatting of data is at a premium. These descriptors which feature both COBOL and FORTRAN formatting capabilities are fully detailed in chapter 6. The output format can be specified in a literal constant or at execution time; in this latter case, the descriptors are contained in a string variable (see example 1.6). The three examples below illustrate the type of results that can be achieved.

Example 1.4

40 A\$="Motorola Semiconductors"
100 PRINT USING "[64,C][/5][X31]",A\$,"!"
The string "Motorola Semiconductors" is output centered in a 64-column field, followed by 5 empty lines, 31 horizontal spaces and an exclamation mark.

Example 1.5

10 DATE $=40579$
$20 \mathrm{BOOK}=2.19025075 \mathrm{E}+6$
30 PRINT \# 2 USING 90, DATE, BOOK
90 IMAGE "Date : [C2/2/2][X10]Bookings = [C(\$)1,3,3(.)2]"

The following printout occurs on the line printer :
Date : 04/05/79 Bookings $=\$ 2,190,250.75$

Example 1.6

10 INPUT Angle, Model\$
20 PRINT USING Model\$, Angle*PI/180
RUN
? 360
? $[1,3,2]$ radians
6.283E+0 radians

### 1.2.3.2.2 Editing memory-resident data

Most of the format descriptors that apply to the PRINT USING statement are also available for editing memory-resident numeric data, a very valuable feature when working on video RAM. For this purpose, the STR\$ built-in function has been enhanced so as to support a second argument which precisely specifies the format descriptors. The STR\$ (X) function normally converts a numeric value $X$ to a string. A sample program, although not complete, is shown below which causes the string "04/05/79" to be displayed in the top left-hand side corner of a CRT whose video RAM would start at location $\$ 4000$.

Example 1.7

22 DIM Alpha\$ $(16,2)$ ADDR $\$ 4000$ \ $16 \times 64$ video RAM
24 DATE $=40579$
26 Alpha\$ $(1,1)=\operatorname{STR}(\operatorname{DATE}, "[C 2 / 2 / 2] ")$

As in the PRINT USING, the second argument of STR\$ which in the above example is a literal constant, may well be a literal variable, thus allowing the user to format data at execution time.

### 1.2.4 Matrix operations

As already mentioned under 1.2.2.3, BASIC-M supports arrays that can be either one- or two-dimensional. Data items of the same type (byte, integer, real or string) are grouped together to form an array or matrix that can be referred to by a single name. There exists several powerful statements which allow an array to be regarded as a single quantity. This approach results in shorter and faster programs, for it obviates the use of the conventional FOR-NEXT loops operating on every element of the array. The following examples highlight the usefulness of some matrix-oriented statements.

Example 1.8 : initialize a $5 \times 4$ matrix A to the value PI
10 DIM A $(5,4)$

20 MAT A = SET [PI]
Example 1.9 : a FOR-NEXT loop is used to achieve the --_- same results as in example 1.8

10 DIM A $(5,4)$
20 FOR I = 1 TO 5
30 FOR J = 1 TO 4
$40 \mathrm{~A}(\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{J})=\mathrm{PI}$

```
5 0 ~ N E X T ~ J ~
6 0 ~ N E X T ~ I ~
Example 1.10 : input the elements of a 2x2 matrix B
                                    from the console (data typed in on the
                                    same line ).
10 DIM B (2,2)
20 MAT INPUT B
Example l.ll : problem definition equivalent to above
                                    example (1.10).
                                    A standard BASIC statement is used.
10 DIM B (2,2)
20 INPUT B (1,1), B (1,2), B}(2,1), B (2,2
Example l.l2 : matrix multiplication
10 DIM A (2,4), B}(2,3), C(3,4
20 MAT A = B*C
Example l.l3 : matrix inversion
10 DIM A (3,3)
20 MAT A = INV (A)
```


### 1.2.5 Disk I/O

BASIC-M provides versatile statements for exchanging data with a mass-storage media (disk or mini-disk). The following file organizations and access are supported :

1/ sequential organization :

- fixed-length records : sequential or random access.
- variable-length records : sequential access only.

2/ indexed organization :

- fixed-length records : indexed access to a particular record by means of keys.


### 1.2.6 Built-in functions

BASIC-M includes over 30 intrinsic functions : those commonly found in most BASIC's plus several unique ones that considerably ease string processing or mathematical problem solving. Below is a brief list of some advanced functions :

| ASN (X) | arcsine of $X$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| LOG (X) | natural logarithm of $X$ |
| DCLOG(X) | decimal logarithm of $X$ |
| LOC(X) | absolute address of $X$ |
| SUBSTR(S\$,X\$) | return position of substring XS in S\$ |
| TRIMS(S\$) | strip trailing blanks off S\$ |

### 1.2.7 User-defined functions / procedures

As in the standards, BASIC-M makes provision for user-definition of single-line arithmetic functions, such as the one shown in example 1.14.

Example 1.14

```
10 DEF SURFACE (X) = PI * X^2
20 INPUT "cylinder height and radius ", H, R
30 PRINT "Volume = "; H * SURFACE(R)
```

More interesting is the fact that BASIC-M supports also multi-line user-defined procedures similar to PASCAL"s. Unlike functions, procedures do not return a single value to the calling program; rather they cause the execution of a pre-defined sequence of statements. The sequence is activated by writing the name of the procedure, possibly followed by a list of arguments.

The idea behind user-defined procedures is to improve the overall program structure, thus making it both more readable and secure.

An example of a very simple procedure definition and call follows.

Example 1.15

70 GOTO 100
75 DEF DELAY(X) \ procedure definition
80 FOR $B B=1$ TO X $X$ software delay
85 NEXT BB
90 RETURN $\backslash$ end of procedure definition
95 REM
100 WHEN Pia[3]=1 THEN DELAY(Z)

### 1.2.8 Assembly language interface

In some cases , it might be desirable to perform some time-critical tasks in assembly language. BASIC-M interfaces very easily to user-written assembly language subroutines thereafter referred to as external procedures ; The EXTERNAL
statement allows to declare these latter along with their absolute address.

The address of the arguments involved in the external procedures, if any, are passed in a table pointed to by the MC6809 index register.

The external subroutines can also be called as functions returning a value to the calling program.

Below is an example of an external subroutine call and definition; the passing of argument (the address of a string) is illustrated in this sample program.

Example 1.16 : echo an input string by calling
------------ the monitor PDATA subroutine
15 EXTERNAL ASM ADDR $\$ 8000$ \user-written routine
18 INPUT TEXTS \read input string
21 TEXTS = TEXT\$ + CHR\$ (4) \ append terminator
24 CALL ASM ( TEXT\$ ) \invoke assembly routine
User-written assembly program :
NAM ASM
ORG \$8000
ASM LDX ,Y read argument address LEAX $1, X$ skip string length byte JMP PDATA call monitor (sub)routine

### 2.1 Statement lines

A BASIC-M source program consists of a series of instructions which directs the computer to perform a certain task. Each instruction is called a statement.

BASIC-M has some 30 different kinds of statements and over 30 different built-in functions, which are all discussed separately further on in this manual.

A statement appears wholly on a statement line, thereafter referred to as a "line", which may include up to 80 characters and must be terminated by a carriage return character. No more than one statement can be coded on a line, nor can a statement be continued on the next line.

Each line must be numbered to indicate the normal sequence in which the statements are executed. These line numbers appear at the left end of the line and may be any value from 1 to 65535. Statements may be entered in any order. The computer keeps them in numerical order no matter how they are entered. For example, if statements are input in the sequence $30,10,20$, the computer arranges them in the order 10, 20, 30.

Good programming practice dictates that the line numbers be separated by some numeric distance, say 10 , so that if programming errors are found o or changes made to the program, new lines with numbers in between those which already exist can be inserted.

Upon request, the computer can optionally generate automatic line numbers separated of each other by some user-defined distance. Once the source program has been created, the statements can also be resequenced. The automatic line numbering and resequence system commands are discussed in chapter 13. Here is a brief illustration of their usage.

Example 2.0 : automatic line numbering and resequencing.
( user's inputs are underlined )
READY

```
N 10, 2
    10 A=2
    ---
```

    12 PRINT A
    ```
    14 STOP
        ----
    16 < CR > exit program editing by depressing
    the carriaqe return key
READY
```

RESEQ /5
READY
LIST
$00010 \quad A=2$
00015 PRINT A
00020 STOP

When a BASIC-M program is executed, execution starts with the first statement in the first line ( the statement at the top of the page of a listing ) ; then control flows to the next line down the page ( of the program listing ). This process continues until a statement is encountered which changes the flow explicitly (i.e, GOTO, GOSUB, NEXT, IF ... etc.), or until a hardware or software event being monitored forces the computer to execute another portion of the source program ; this happens in case of intercupts or of condition monitoring enabled by a WHEN ... THEN statement .

### 2.2 Statement types

BASIC-M statements may be classified into four basic categories: input/output , arithmetic or string processing, control, and nonexecutable. As for any high-level language BASIC-M source statements cannot be executed ; the machine-language instructions into which these statements are translated can be executed. But, because "executable statement" is a conventional phrase, it will be used in all subsequent discussions.

### 2.2.1 Input/output statements

These statements help in exchanging data between the outside world and the user program ; they direct the computer to read or write a record (a collection of data), indicate the device to be used ( console, disk, line printer ) and may optionally reference a nonexecutable statement which describes the record (IMAGE statement).

Example 2.1 : input/output statement

50 INPUT "ENTER PARAMETERS ", A, B, C, X

```
70 PRINT USING 90, A*X*X + B*X + C
90 IMAGE "Y = [6,2]"
```


### 2.2.2 Arithmetic and string processing statements

They constitute the "heart" of most BASIC-M programs, in that they direct the computer to perform certain arithmetic calculations (addition, sine calculation, etc.) or string processing ( string concatenation, searching, etc.).

```
Example 2.2 : arithmetic and string
----------- statements
```

10 A\$="MOTOROLA "+ B\$
20 POSITION = SUBSTR (A\$,"RO")
$30 \mathrm{Y}=\operatorname{SIN}(\mathrm{X})$

### 2.2.3 Control statements

Normally, statements are executed in the order in which they appear in the source program. Control statements can be used to instruct the computer to change this normal order of execution. For example, control statements can be used to repeat an instruction or series of instructions a specific number of times, or to execute certain instructions only under specified conditions. They can also be used to suspend or terminate program execution.

```
Example 2.3 : control statements
    FOR I = 1 TO 20
    TOTAL = TOTAL + A(I)
    IF TOTAL > MAX THEN PAUSE "OVERFLOW"
    NEXT I
```


### 2.2.4 Nonexecutable statements

These are primarily used to give the compiler information it will need to execute other statements. The type declaration statements fall into this category : they govern the allocation of memory for the variables and dictate the type of operations to further occur during program execution (byte or floating-point addition, type conversion, etc.). Examples of other statements of this category include the REM statement (to announce a comment), the IMAGE statement (to specify a printout format), and the DATA statement (to store permanent values in the program).

## Example 2.4 : nonexecutable statements

```
10 REM This is a sample program
20 BYTE PIA ADDRESS $8008
30 DATA $FF, 4, 128
40 READ INITLZ
50 PIA = INITLZ
statement lines 10, 20 and 30 are
examples of nonexecutable statements.
```


### 2.3 Statement composition

BASIC-M statements are composed of various combinations of keywords, variable names, constants, expressions, and codes. As many blanks as desired can be inserted between these quantities to improve program readability. However, program editing must obey the following simple rules :

```
1/ each statement line must not exceed 80
characters.
2/ there must be at least one space between the
statement line number and the first element of the
statement.
3/ each key word must be followed by a blank.
```


### 2.3.1 Character set

BASIC-M programs are written using a subset of the ASCII character set depicted in Appendix A. It is composed of special characters, and of a collection of lower-case, upper-case and numeric characters collectively called alphanumeric characters. The upper-case characters are the characters A through $Z$; the lower-case characters are the characters a through $z$; the numeric characters are the characters 0 through 9. These are also called the decimal digits. The decimal digits and the characters A through $F$ are collectively called the hexadecimal digits.

The special characters and their meanings or uses, outside of character-string constants and comments, are given in figure 2.1.


Figure 2.1 BASIC-M character set

The general form of a statement line is as follows:
< line number >< blank >< statement body >< comment >< CR >
where :

- the comment field is optional. If any, the comment is preceded by the backslash character and may include any displayable characters.
- CR is the ASCII carriage return character.
- the statement line length must not exceed

80 characters.

The rest of this section identifies the basic elements that may exist in the statement body.

### 2.3.2 Keywords

Keywords have a special meaning in BASIC-M. They identify operations designated by statements. An alphabetic list of these key words is given in figure 2.2.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ABS | ACS | ADDR | ADDRESS | AND | ASC | ASN |
| AT | ATN | BYTE | CALL | CHRS | CLOSE | CON |
| COS | COSH | COTH | DATA | DCLOG | DEF | DIGITS |
| DIM | END | EOF | ERR | ERROR | EXP | EXT |
| EXTERNAL | FIRQ | FIX | FKEY | FLOAT | FOR | GO |
| GOSUB | GOTO | IAND | IDN | IEOR | IMAGE | IND |
| INPUT | INT | INTEGER | INV | IOR | IRQ | ISHFT |
| KEY | LEFTS | LEN | LET | LINE | LOC | LOG |
| MAT | MID\$ | MOD | NEVER | NEXT | NMI | NOT |
| ON | OPEN | OR | PAUSE | PEEK | POKE | POS |
| PRINT | RAN | READ | REM | RESTORE | RETURN | REWIND |
| RIGHTS | RND | SEQ | SET | SGN | SIN | SINH |
| SQ | SQR | STEP | STOP | STRS | SUBSTR | TAB |
| TAN | TANH | THEN | TO | TRIMS | TRN | USING |
| TAL | WHEN | ZER |  |  |  |  |

Figure 2.2 BASIC-M keywords

### 2.3.3 Variable / procedure names

A variable name is a symbolic address selected by the programmer. Although the address remains constant, it is called a variable name because the data contained at the symbolic address may be repeatedly changed during program execution.

A procedure or function name is an identification of a series of statements or instructions which can be executed by specifying in the source program, the name of the procedure / function.

BASIC-M user-defined variable , procedure or function names do not conform with the BASIC standards, in that they can be multi-characters. A name is not limited in length ; BASIC-M stores the names in a symbol table, and each variable, procedure or function is coded internally as a l6-bit pointer to this symbol table ; therefore the user can feel free to use meaningful names without wasting memory space. However, care should be exercised so that the length of any source line is not more than 80 characters. Apart from this restriction, a name must obey the following rules :

- the first character must be an upper-case character.
- a name may consist only of any alphanumeric
characters and of the underscore (_), and
dollar (\$) signs.
- a name must not be identical to any of the BASIC-M reserved words listed in figure 2.2.
legal names
AS, ALPHAS, Alpha\$, Alpha_memory, Day_of_the_week_1 E6, I , PI, Exchange_Rate-, Dollar\$_vālue
i.llegal names

Day_of the week:1 name includes a colon
alpha\$ name does not begin with an upper-case character
SIN reserved word. Note that SIN\$ would be legal
Alpha memory embedded space
A variable / procedure / function can be renamed at will, by using the RENAME system command which is discussed in detail in chapter 13. The user must be aware that changing a name does not delete the old name from symbol table. Stated another way, the table expands every time a variable is renamed, thus consuming memory space. Below is an example of the effect of the RENAME command.

Example 2.5 : using the RENAME command

## LIST

00010 PRINT V1
READY
RENAME V1 Volume_of cylinder
READY

LIST
00010 PRINT Volume_of_cylinder

### 2.3.4 Constants

[^0]A literal constant is a string of characters enclosed in a pair of double quotation marks. Any letter, digit, or special character can be included in a literal constant. A double quote, however, must be indicated by using two double quotes. For example .

```
"""BYE"", HE SAID" represents "BYE", HE SAID
The following are all valid literal constants :
" volume of cylinder = "
"3.14"
"%Delta to requirement is above 6"
```

The length of a character constant, when displayed or printed, is the number of characters it contains, including blanks, but excluding the delimiting double quotation marks. Each pair of double quotes used to represent a double quote is counted as one character. The maximum number of characters in a literal constant is limited only by the maximum number of characters on an input line, which is 80 .

### 2.3.4.2 Numeric constants

This category is further subdivided in decimal, and hexadecimal constants.

### 2.3.4.2.1 Decimal constants

A decimal constant consists of decimal digits with an optional exponent specification. A decimal constant yields a 5-byte data in a format allowing to code quantities in the range 10 raised to power -38 to 10 raised to power +38 , with an accuracy of over 9 digits. A decimal point can be placed anywhere in the digit string. The exponent is specified by writing "E" followed by "+" or "-" or nothing, followed by a digit string for the exponent value itself. The exponent specification, if present, must be preceded either by a decimal digit , or by a decimal point itself immediately preceded by a decimal digit.

| valid decimal constants | unvalid decimal constants |
| :---: | :---: |
| 3.14159265 | 3.14159265 |
| 00000300 | 00000 AO |
| $1 \mathrm{El2}$ | El2 |
| $1 . E 12$ | .El2 |
| $.314 \mathrm{E}+00001$ | $.314 \mathrm{E} / 0000 \mathrm{~J}$ |

### 2.3.4.2.2 Hexadecimal constants

BASIC-M can also deal with hexadecimal constants. This is a convenience offered especially for programmers
accustomed to machine-language.
A hexadecimal constant consists of a hexadecimal digit string preceded by the dollar sign.

Note that the use of any special character other than the leading dollar sign is prohibited ( in particular, the decimal point cannot be used in an hexadecimal constant).

Hexadecimal constants supplied in the source program, are treated as l6-bit signed quantities to represent values in the range -32768 to +32767 . However, hexadecimal numbers supplied via an INPUT statements assume the range of decimal constants. The following example illustrates this distinction.

Example 2.6 : hexadecimal constants
-----------

| 10 | VALUE $=$ SFFFE | $!$ | 10 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| INPUT VALUE |  |  |  |
| 20 | PRINT VALUE | $!$ | 20 |
| PRINT VALUE |  |  |  |
| RUN |  | RUN |  |
| -2 | $!$ | $? \$ F F F E$ | ( operator's input ) |

The hexadecimal constants of the source program may include as many leading zero's as desired, the sole restriction being that no overflow occurs when the constant is converted to its internal code. Another rule to be observed is that an hexadecimal constant cannot be preceeded by an unary minus. Some more examples are shown below :


### 2.3.5 Expressions

An expression is a combination of variable / function names , and constants separated by operators. There are four types of operators : arithmetic , literal , relational , and logical operators. Depending on the variable / function types, and of the operators used in the expression , this latter will be referred to as an aritmetic , or literal, or relational , or logical expression. Expressions are fully discussed in chapter 4. This section simply illustrates the four types of expressions processed in BASIC-M.

### 2.3.5.1 Arithmetic expressions

Arithmetic expressions can be formed by combining numeric variables / functions and constants (the operands of the expressions ) with arithmetic operators. There are five arithmetic operators :

- the "+" operator which implies an addition,
- the "-" operator which implies a substraction,
- the "*" operator which implies a multiplication,
- the "/" operator which implies a division, and
- the "^" operator which implies an exponentiation.

The value of an arithmetic expression is obtained by performing the implied operations on the specified items. For example, if $A=4$ and $B=5$, the value of the expression $3 * A+B$ is equal to $3 * 4+5$, i.e 17 . Note that the constant 3 is the factor by which the variable $A$ only has to be multiplied, and not the quantity $A+B$. This is due to the fact that the "*" operator has precedence over the "+" operator. The user however, can dictate the flow of calculations by using parentheses. For instance, the expression $3 *(A+B)$ where $A$ and $B$ have the same value as before, will result in the value 27 , because this time, 3 applies to the sum of $A$ and B .

BASIC-M supports mixed-mode expressions i in other words, the operands involved in arithmetic expressions need not be of the same type. Internal type conversion, resulting type of an expression, and operator precedence are all detailed in chapter 4.

Some examples of arithmetic expressions are :

| ATN (1) * SQ (R) |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| PI * R * R | ( spaces are shown for |
| 3.14 * $\mathrm{R}^{\wedge} 2$ | sake of readability |
| TOTAL (X,Y) / AMOUNT | only! ) |
| SIN (X) + DCLOG (Z) |  |

### 2.3.5.2 Literal expressions

A literal expression is a combination of string variables / functions, and/or literal constants, with the concatenation operator "+". The following are valid examples of literal expressions :

```
"GOOD" + "BYE"
    TEXT$ + CHR$ (4)
    BUFFER$(3) + "END-OF-LINE"
```


### 2.3.5.3 Relational expressions

A relational expression compares the value of two arithmetic expressions or two literal expressions. The expressions to be compared are evaluated and then compared according to the definition of the relational operator specified. According to the result, the relational expression
is either satisfied (true) or not satisfied (false).
Relational expressions can appear in a BASIC-M program only as part of an IF or WHEN statement.

The relational operators and their definitions are :

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
"=" & \text { equal } \\
" \# \text { or } "<>" & \text { not equal } \\
">" & \text { greater than } \\
">=" & \text { greater than or equal } \\
"<" & \text { less than } \\
"<=" & \text { less than or equal }
\end{array}
$$

Below are some examples of statements that involve relational expressions.

```
IF Angle * PI / 180 < 1.57 THEN Rotate(X,Y)
WHEN Pressure = 150 THEN GOSUB 200
IF A$ >= B$ THEN Swap(A$,B$)
```

In the above examples, the relational expressions are those quantities between the key words IF or WHEN, and THEN.

### 2.3.5.4 Logical expressions

Logical expressions consist of relational expressions combined by logical operators using the ordinary rules of Boolean algebra. For example, the logical expression " A < B AND C \# D " is true if the value of $A$ is less than the value of $B$, and if the value of $C$ is different from the value of D.

The logical operators provided in BASIC-M are :

| "NOT" | logical expression is true if relational |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | expression is false, and vice versa. |
| "AND" | logical expression is true if both |
|  | relational expressions are true. |
| "OR" | logical expression is true if either |
|  | relational expression is true. |

Logical expressions can only appear in the IF or WHEN statements, as presented in the following examples :

WHEN NOT (Pressure < 150) OR Temp >= 273 then Alarm IF A\$ < Company_name\$ AND A=3 OR B\#7 THEN 100

Logical operators hierarchy is also discussed in chapter 4.

### 2.3.6 Codes

The BASIC-M language includes several codes, that are not executed but rather gives the computer information he needs at execution time. These codes are supplied by reserved words or special characters. Their main function is to describe a printout format, a disk file organization, or a data type. For instance, in the following :

10 PRINT USING "[/3]", A
20 OPEN \#98, "STOCK" , I , RAN
30 INTEGER SCRATCH, TEMP
The slash character followed by 3 in statement 10 , tells the computer to output 3 line feed characters to the console prior to printing variable A . Similarly, in statement 20 , I specifies that the file named "STOCK" is to be opened for input, while the reserved word "RAN" implies a random access.

This chapter was intended to describe the organization of a BASIC-M program, and the main elements which compose the various statements. The next chapter goes into more detail as to the data types and structures defined in the language.
3. DATA TYPES AND STRUCTURES

When a language is evaluated, not only does one have to look at its statement repertory. The statements just show the actions that may be taken. Equally important are the data which can be operated upon by the statements. A data type determines the set of values which variables and functions of that type may assume.

BASIC-M includes the standard BASIC data types (real and character ), plus two non-standard types ( byte and integer ) which are frequently used in a microprocessor environment. This chapter discusses important subjects related to data types, such as internal representation , magnitude of the data, accuracy, type declaration or other arrangement of data in structures. These concepts are especially important to those people wishing to interface a BASIC-M program to assembly-language subroutines, in that it describes the format of the argument data.

### 3.1 Standard BASIC data types

### 3.1.1 Character data

BASIC-M adheres to the standard convention that any variable name ending with a dollar sign (\$) defines the data it represents as a character, or string data. In the BASIC-M language, this convention also extends to the user-defined functions , either internal or external, and to the library functions.

The following statements all define character variables or functions.

Example 3.0 : variables or functions assuming
----------- the character type.
10 EXTERNAL HEADing\$ ADDRESS 1024
20 A\$ $=$ STR\$ $(A)$
30 DEF Catenate $(X \$, Y)=X \$+\operatorname{CHRS}(Y)$
40 TEXT\$ = Catenate\$ (A\$, 4)
50 HEADing\$ (TEXT\$)

A character data consists of 31 ASCII characters, and is internally coded on 32 consecutive bytes in the following format :
where:
A stands for an ASCII character.
$L$ is the string length byte, which holds the current length of the string ( 0 to 31 ).

Character data are left-justified, and the non-significant ASCII bytes, if any, are filled with blanks. Example 3.1 illustrates the successive internal coding of $a$ string variable in the course of program execution.


### 3.1.2 Real data

The real type is the standard numeric data type. Any variable name which does not end with a dollar sign and which has not been explicitly declared via a type declaration statement, defines the data it represents as a real quantity. This standard convention also applies, in BASIC-M, to internal or external user-defined functions.

Some examples of real variables or functions are shown below.

Example 3.2 : Real type variables or functions.

10 DEF HORIZ (R,TETA) $=R^{*} \operatorname{COS}(T E T A)$
20 EXTERNAL PLOT (X,Y) ADDR \$E000
$30 \mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{HORIZ}($ Radius, 30 )
40 PLOT (Z,W)

A real data is stored internally on 5 consecutive bytes, in a floating-point format that permits representation of null, positive, and negative numbers in the dynamic range E-38 to $\mathrm{E}+38$, with an accuracy of 9 digits.

The internal representation is as follows:

| Byte $0:$ | binary two's complement exponent |
| ---: | :--- |
| Byte $1-4:$ | $31-b i t, ~ n o r m a l i z e d, ~ b i n a r y ~$ |
|  | mantissa in 2 s complement form. |
|  | least-significant-bit of byte 4 |
|  | stores sign. |

The decimal point lies between the exponent ( byte 0 ), and the most-significant bit of the mantissa ( byte 1 ).

The mantissa is in the range 0 included to 1 excluded.

In this format, a number is considered as normalized if the most significant bit of its mantissa (byte l-leftmost bit ) is the complement of the sign bit, the exception being the value 0 which is coded as all zero's. Example 3.3 presents a few internal representations of real data.

Example 3.3 : coding real numbers
byte 0 byte 1 byte 2 byte 3 byte 4
( expo.)
Sign
v
$.75=0000000011000000000000000000000000000000$
$-.75=0000000001000000000000000000000000000001$
$24=0000010111000000000000000000000000000000(.75 \times 32)$
$-24=0000010101000000000000000000000000000001$
$3.14159265=0000001011001001000011111101101010101110$
Example 3.15 shows how a simple BASIC-M program can be written to find out the internal representation of real values.
3.2 Non-standard BASIC data types

### 3.2.1 Byte data

A BASIC-M variable ( but not a user-defined function!) may consist of one byte only. Byte data are 8-bit unsigned quantities in the range 0 to 255. Should data be outside this range at execution time, a runtime error will occur.

Byte variables must be explicitly declared by the BYTE statement which applies to all the variables of the input line. As will be seen later, the absolute address of a byte variable can be specified via the ADDRESS or ADDR key words.

Byte variable names must not end with a dollar sign which implicitly defines string quantities ( see 3.l.1).

An example of byte type declaration and usage is presented next.

Example 3.4 : Byte variables

40 BYTE CRTC ADDRESS \$EF00, Scratch, Temp 50 BYTE SSDA ADDR \$EF04

| 60 | SSDA $=4$ | \initialize SSDA |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 70 | CRTC $=\$ 12$ | \initialize CRTC |
| 80 | SSDA $=$ SSDA +252 | \faulty !!! |

Statement 80 will yield a runtime error message since the resulting value of SSDA would be 256 , which is outside the allowed range.

### 3.2.2 Integer data

Integer variables ( not user-defined functions ! ) are 16-bit binary signed data in $2^{\prime}$ s complement form, internally stored on 2 consecutive bytes. These variables hold data in the range -32768 to +32767 .

The sign bit is the most significant bit of the l6-bit data (first byte, bit \#7, visually leftmost bit ).

Integer variables must be explicitly declared via the INTEGER statement which is syntaxically similar to the BYTE statement.

Integer variable names must not end with a dollar sign.
The following statements define and use integer variables.

Example 3.5 : integer variables

2 INTEGER IRQ_Vector ADDRESS \$A000
4 INTEGER $A$, $\bar{B}$, $C$
$6 C=A+B \quad$ integer add

### 3.3 Access to individual bits

A very handy feature of BASIC-M is that the user may address each and every bit of a non-subscripted byte/integer variable, just by specifying its position within the variable. This greatly eases solving of process-control applications.

The position of the bit which is to be set, cleared or tested, within the variable is specified in a pair of brackets, as shown in the general form:

## VAR[ exp ]

where :
VAR is a byte or integer variable name, and
exp is an arithmetic expression that indicates
the number of the bit to be accessed.
Note that the most significant bit of a byter respectively
integer variable corresponds to the number 7, respectively 15, the least significant bit being in both cases bit \#0. Example 3.6 indicates what can be done with bit addressing.

```
Example 3.6 : bit access
problem : two switches are connected to two
    PIA lines, PAO and PAl. Switch on
    the led drived from PIA line PA7,
                        if both switches are not in the
                        same position. Perform a continuous
                        monitoring.
                        ( PIA initialization is not shown )
                10 BYTE PIA ADDRESS $7004
15 PIA[7] = 0 \ default to led off
20 WHEN PIA[0] # PIA[1] THEN PIA[7] = 1
```

Example 3.7 : count the number of bits set
in the integer variable DEMO

```
30 INTEGER DEMO
32 COUNT = 0 \ set up counter
34 FOR I = 0 TO 15
36 COUNT = COUNT + DEMO[I]
38 NEXT I \ study next bit
```

This example can be applied to byte variables,
for computing the parity of an ASCII character
3.4 Mixing data types in expressions

BASIC-M supports mixed-mode expressions, that is, the elements of expressions can differ as to their type. This holds true also for an assignment statement : both side of the assignment operator ("=" sign ) need not be of the same type. However, avoiding mixed types will have a significant impact on the overall program compactness and speed, since the compiler will not generate the necessary calls to the conversion routines. Optimizing compiler output is a subject covered in chapter 13 ; to give the reader an idea of the improvement that can be reached, as far as object program size and execution speed are concerned, let's consider the figures shown in example 3.8

Example 3.8 : optimizing program ----------- size and speed.

The two BASIC-M programs shown below produce the same result


The example just presented must not be used as a basis for conclusion, the speed being dependent on the current value of variables. As a general rule programs that do not use mixed-mode expressions will produce better results.

### 3.5 Data structure : the array

### 3.5.1 General description

An array is a collection of data elements of the same data type ( character, real, byte, or integer ) , that can be referred to by a single name. Arrays can be either one- or two-dimensional. A one-dimensional array is also called a vector ; a two-dimensional array is often referred to as a matrix. A one-dimensional array can be thought of as a row of successive data items. A two-dimensional array can be seen as a matrix of rows and columns. Figure 3.1 shows a schematic representation of both types of arrays.


Figure 3.1 Schematic representation of arrays

Each element in an array is referred to by the name of the array followed by a subscript in parentheses, which indicates the position of the element within the array. The general form for referring to an array element is:

Array name ( rowexp , colexp )
where :

- Array name is the name of the entire array.
- rowexp and colexp are positive arithmetic expressions whose truncated integer values

```
are greater than zero and less than or equal to the corresponding dimension of the array.
```

The dimensions of an array and the number of elements in each dimension are established either implicitly, or explicitly if the array is declared via DIM, BYTE, or INTEGER statements.

An array $A(N, M)$ spans $N x M x X+2$ bytes in data section (RAM) , and 8 bytes in program section (ROM), where $X$ stands for the elementary data length in bytes. Thus, the integer array $I(5)$ occupies $2+5 \times 2=12$ bytes of $R A M$, and the character array $S \$(3,4), 2+3 \times 4 \times 32=386$ bytes.

```
3.5.2 Array declaration
```

3.5.2.1 Declaring byte and integer arrays

Byte and integer arrays must be explicitly declared by using the BYTE and INTEGER statements respectively, whose general form is as follows:

```
BYTE Arrl(xl,yl), Arr2(x2,y2), ..., ArrN(xN,yN)
INTEGER Arrl(xl,Yl), Arr2(x2,Y2), ..., ArrN(xN,yN)
    where :
    - ArrI are variable names that must not end
        with a dollar sign.
    - each pair xI,yI defines the maximum number
        of elements per row and per column respectively
        (yI is omitted for one-dimensional arrays).
    - the BYTE or INTEGER key words apply to all
        the arrays of the statement line.
    - xI must be in the range l to 65535 for one-
        dimensional arrays.
    - each xI, yI, must be in the range l to 255
        for two-dimensional arrays.
    - the number of dimensions must not exceed 2.
```

The following are examples of such declarations.
Example 3.9 : declaration of byte and
integer arrays
valid declarations :
10 BYTE PIA(2), Test Memory (65535), CRTC(18)
20 INTEGER WORD $(16,1 \overline{6})$, Temp (20)
invalid declarations :
10 BYTE Cube $(2,2,2)$ \ 3 dimensions
20 INTEGER Mem $(0,16)$ \ lst dimension is null
30 BYTE A $(10,256)$ (2nd dimension > 255

### 3.5.2.2 Declaring real and character arrays

Real and character arrays can be declared either explicitly by use of the DIM statement or implicitly by a reference to an element of an array that has not been explicitly declared.

The DIM statement is syntactically identical to the BYTE or INTEGER statements described under 3.5.2.1, but the following rules apply :

- an array name ending with a dollar sign defines a character array.
- the maximum number of dimensions is two.
- one-dimensional arrays may contain up to 65535 (this far exceeds the system memory !)
- two-dimensional arrays may contain up to 255 elements per row and per column.

Some examples are shown below.

Example 3.10 : declaring explicitly real
----------- and character arrays.
2 DIM A\$ $(2,3), \operatorname{TTT}(128), \operatorname{LINE}(2)$
4 DIM TEXT\$ $(60,2)$, Float_mat $(4,8)$
array type \# of elements RAM size
A\$ character $2 \times 3=6 \quad 6 \times 32+2=194$
TTT
LINE\$
TEXTS
real
character character

128
$128 \times 5+2=642$
2 $2 \times 32+2=66$

Float_mat real

$$
2 \times 60=120
$$

$$
120 \times 32+2=3842
$$

$$
4 \times 8=32 \quad 32 \times 5+2=162
$$

When an array is declared implicitly, by a reference to one of its elements when its name has not appeared in a prior DIM statement, it will have the number of dimensions specified in the reference, and each dimension will contain :

10 elements for real arrays,
5 elements for character arrays.
For example, if no prior DIM statements exists for arrays named BUFF\$ and Values, the statements :

```
85 IF Values(3) > 3 * AVerage THEN GOSUB 300
                        :
300 PRINT BUFF$(I,4)
```

will establish a one-dimensional real array "Values" containing 10 elements, i.e $2+5 \times 10=52$ bytes, and a two-dimensional character array "BUFFS" containing $5 \times 5$ elements, i.e $2+25 \times 32=802$ bytes !. Omitting array
declarations may result in a workspace buffer overflow that would preclude program compilation and execution. Therefore, the user is strongly recommended to explicitly declare the arrays.

### 3.5.3 Arrangement of arrays in storage

One-dimensional arrays are stored in ascending storage locations. Thus, the array $A(8)$ is arranged in the order :

$$
A(1) A(2) A(3) A(4) A(5) A(6) A(7) A(8)
$$

Two-dimensional arrays are stored in ascending storage locations, with the value of the second of the subscript quantities increasing most rapidly, and the value of the first increasing least rapidly. Stated another way, arrays are stored row by row. For example, the array B(3,2) presented in 3.5.1, is arranged in storage as follows:

$$
B(1,1) \quad B(1,2) \quad B(2,1) \quad B(2,2) \quad B(3,1) \quad B(3,2)
$$

This approach contrasts with the way arrays are stored in FORTRAN ( column by column ). However, this arrangement is definitely more consistent and practical when working on video RAM"s.

### 3.5.4 Matrix-oriented statements

BASIC-M includes a set of statements that allow the user to handle arrays considered as single entities, thus eliminating the need for operating on the individual elements of the arrays. Chapter 9 covers entirely this powerful set of statements. The following example is one among many, that is presented here just to introduce the concept of matrix re-sizing.

Example 3.11 : Matrix assignment

|  | Result : copy the elements of <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br> $A(4,6)$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 10 DIMM $A(4,6), B(2,3)$ |  |
| 20 MAT $A=B$ |  |

### 3.5.5 Matrix re-sizing

Some matrix-oriented statements dynamically alter the size of the arrays. In example 3.11 for instance, the assignment of matrix $B$ to matrix A causes this latter to be re-sized to the size of $B$, i.e $2 x 3$. The size of a matrix can only be decreased from its original size. In other words,
the assignment "MAT $B=A$ " would be illegal.
This feature is of benefit in several situations, like in solving linear systems of equations by using matrix inversion.
3.6 Variable and array address control. Equivalence.

Variables and arrays are normally assigned storage locations which are not under user control.

The ADDRESS or ADDR key words provides an easy means to specify their starting address, and also to achieve the effect of the FORTRAN EQUIVALENCE statement. The following are some examples with explanations of what can be done.

```
Example 3.12 : Initialize a PIA
```

```
10 BYTE PIA(2) ADDRESS $8008
20 PIA(1) = 1 \ Data Direction Reg set-up
30 PIA(2) = 4 \ Control Register set-up
Alternate solution :
10 BYTE PIA(2) ADDRESS $8008
20 INTEGER PIA EQU ADDRESS PIA \ equivalence
30 PIA_EQU = $104 \ same effect as lines 20
                                    and 30 of previous example
Example 3.13 : display an input string in the
                        first line of a video RAM based
                        at hex address $E000
10 DIM Alpha mem$ (16,2) ADDR $E000
15 BYTE DUMMY} ADDRESS $E000
20 INPUT Alpha Mem$(1,1)
D5 DUMMY = $20' \ overwrite string length byte
                                    ( see 3.l.l ) with a blank
Example 3.14 : erase video RAM
                        ( fill it with blanks )
10 DIM Alpha_mem$ (16,2) ADDR $E000
20 BYTE Charāc(1024) ADDR AJpha_mem$
30 MAT Charac = SET [32]
alternate solution :
20 INTEGER Word(512) ADDR Alpha_mem$
30 MAT Word = SET [$2020]
Example 3.15 : print the binary internal
------------ form of a real number.
```

```
10 INPUT A
20 BYTE OVL(5) ADDR A, CURRENT
3 0 ~ F O R ~ I = 1 ~ T O ~ 5 ~
40 CURRENT = OVL(I)
50 FOR J=7 TO 0 STEP -1
60 PRINT CURRENT[J] ; \ print bit
70 NEXT J
80 PRINT
90 NEXT I \ next byte
9 5 ~ G O T O ~ 1 0 ~
RUN
?-3
0}00000000010 byte 0 - exponen
0}11000000000 0 byte 1 - mantissa
0
0}000000000000 byte 3- "
000000001 byte 4 -mantissa + sign
```


### 4.0 EXPRESSIONS

This chapter gives additional information on the expressions which were already introduced in paragraph 2.3.5.

### 4.1 Rules for writing arithmetic expressions

The following rules must be followed when writing arithmetic expressions which contain two or more constants and/or variables ( for the sake of simplicity, functions will be considered as variables throughout this chapter ).

### 4.1.1 Separation of constants and variables

In regular mathemetic notation, to indicate "A times $B$ ", it is common to write "AB". In BASIC-M, this would refer to a variable named "AB". In effect, each constant and/or variable must be separated by an operator to explicitly indicate the desired computation. Therefore to indicate "A times B", one should write "A*B"。

Arithmetic operators all require two operands. However the "+" and "-" signs can also be used as positive / negative operators in two situations :

- following a left parenthesis and preceding an arithmetic expression.
- as the leftmost character in an entire arithmetic expression that is not preceded by an operator.

For example:
$-A+(-B)$ and $B-(-C)$ are valid
$A+-B$ and $B--2$ are invalid

### 4.1.2 Separation of arithmetic operators

Two or more arithmetic operators can never appear in sequence in an arithmetic expression. For example, to indicate "A times the negative value -3 " the expression cannot be written as "A*-3" but should be written as "A* $(-3)$ ". This illustrates how parentheses can be used to separate arithmetic operators. Other uses of parentheses are discussed next.
Note that the FORTRAN operator "**", expressing an exponentiation, is not supported in BASIC-M, nor does the language support bitwise operators. Logical AND, inclusive

OR, exclusive $O R$, and shift operations are all performed by using built-in functions.
4.2 Order of evaluation of arithmetic expressions

The order of computation of arithmetic expressions is based on the hierarchy ( or precedence) of the operators involved. Evaluation is performed from left to right according to the hierarchy shown below.
hierarchy
lst
2nd
3 rd
4 th
5 th

Operation
parenthetical expressions
unary minus
exponentiation
4th multiplication and division
5th addition and subtraction

In other words, the hierarchy goes from what might be considered the most difficult to the least difficult, as is illustrated in example 4.0 .

Example 4.0 : operator hierarchy.
Assuming $A_{,} B$, and $C$ have been assigned the values $-1,9$, and 3 respectively, the computation of the expression $-A^{\wedge} 2+B / C * 4$ is performed as follows :

$$
-A^{\wedge} 2+B / C * 4
$$



Parentheses may be used to dictate the order in which calculations are to be performed and to alter the lower three levels of hierarchy. For example, suppose you desire to add $A$ to $B$ and then triple the sum. Instead of writing :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X=A+B \\
& Z=X * 3 \\
& \text { or : } \quad Z=A * 3+B * 3 \\
& \text { you could write } \\
& Z=(A+B) * 3
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that the use of parentheses reverses the normal levels of hierarchy since the computer will first add and then multiply. If the programmer has any doubt as to the order of
evaluation of expressions, it is suggested that parentheses be used. Unnecessary parentheses do not affect at all the execution time of a program.
4.3 Mixed-mode arithmetic expressions

Impact on program size and speed

As already mentioned in paragraph 3.4, mixed-mode expressions are allowed in BASIC-M. In normal cases, the programmer does not have to bother about the types of the variables and/or constants of the expressions. This is especially true when running a program that meets the BASIC standards. However, BASIC-M makes provision for unique data types discussed in chapter 3. Using these types can result in drastic improvements of the object code size and execution speed, as reflected in the sample program below.

Example 4.1 : object code size and speed
improvement by avoiding
mixed-mode expressions.
The two programs shown below produce
the same result.


These improvements are due to the fact that variables appearing in program $B$ are all defined as being of the same type. Likewise, the constant 3, written as an hexadecimal constant \$3, defines an integer constant. Therefore the elements of the expression of line 20 are all integers, and the compiler will not generate any call to type conversion routines. In addition to that, the expressions representing subscript quantities are already of the integer type, which is the type expected by the compiler. Should the result of the expressions be of the real type, the compiler would have generated a call to a real-to-integer conversion routine, resulting in a larger code size and lower execution speed. The following is the code generated by the compiler for addressing an element $A(X+Y)$ of $a$ vector $A$, given two situations.

Example 4.2 : code generation for addressing
---------- the element $A(X+Y)$ of a vector

1/ X REAL
Y BYTE

LDX \#X
JSR LF
LDX \#Y
JSR LB
JSR BTOF
JSR FADD
JSR FTOI
LEAX A, PCR
JSR INDEX

2/ X,Y INTEGERS
-------------

LDX \#X
JSR LI
LDX \#Y
JSR LI
JSR IADD
LEAX A, PCR
JSR INDEX

LF , LB, and LI are runtime routines that load onto the MC6809 User Stack a real, byte and integer data respectively addressed by the X-register.
BTOF and FTOI are runtime conversion routines to convert stacked data from byte-to-real and real-to-integer respectively.
FADD and IADD perform the addition of two real and integer data respectively on the User Stack.
INDEX returns in the X-register the address of the element in matrix A whose subscript is the l6-bit last stacked data. The information that pertains to matrix A ( number of dimensions, size of dimensions, element size, absolute start address, and dynamic size word address ) is stored in the program section (rom-able object code section ), hence the use of the program counter relative addressing mode to access it in a fashion that preserves position-independence.
This section describes the benefits of avoiding mixed-mode expressions, and of using only the compiler default types ( for instance, subscripts default to the integer type ). The next paragraph discusses the data type of the results of arithmetic expressions. Because expressions may include built-in functions (SIN, SQR; MOD, ... etc.) , it is also worthwhile to know their data types, along with the default type of the arguments. This information is given in chapter 13.
4.4 Data types produced by arithmetic expressions

The type of the result of an arithmetic operation depends upon the type of the two operands (primary ) involved in the operation. The table below gives the correspondence between the type of the result and the type of the primary, assuming an expression of the form :
Prim1 oper Prim2
where Priml, Prim2 represent the the types of the two primaries (variables or functions ), and oper is either one of the operators :,,$+-{ }_{\beta} /{ }_{n}$.
Priml \Prim2 ! byte ! integer ! real
$======================================$
byte $\quad!$ byte ! integer ! real
integer
real ! integer ! integer ! real
real ! real ! real

NOTES :
Numeric constants are always real, except if preceded by a dollar sign which implies an hexadecimal constant further regarded as an integer.

At least one of the primaries involved in an exponentiation must be of the real type. The result type of an exponentiation is then always real. A positive value can be raised to any value, whereas a negative value can only be raised to an integer number (one whose fractionary part is null).

When division is applied to two bytes or integers, the answer is truncated and a byte or integer result respectively is produced. For example, if $A=5, B=2$, and if $A$ and $B$ are bytes or integers, then the expression $A / B$ would yield a result of 2 .

As defined earlier in chapter 3, literal expressions are those quantities contajning two or more of the following elements :

- character variables.
- character constants.
- character user-defined functions, and/or
- character built-in functions.
separated by the concatenation operator "+".
All the character elements mentioned above contain a maximum of 31 ASCII characters, except the character constants which are only limited in size by the input line length ( 80 characters). Example 4.3 illustrates some uses of literal expressions.

```
Example 4.3 : literal expressions
10 A$= "H"
20 B$="E"
CO C$="L"
40 D$=CHR$ (79) \ ASCII "O"
50 IF INPUT$ < REFS THEN 80
60 PRINT "GO TO ";A$+B$+C$+C$
70 GOTO 320
80 PRINT A$+B$+C$+C$+D$
90 GOTO 300
```

When character data appears in a relational expression ( as is the case in line 50 of the previous example ), it is evaluated according to the sequence of the ASCII codes ( see Appendix A ), character by character, from left to right. Thus the following relational expressions would all be satisfied :

```
"ABC" = "ABC"
"ABCDEF" < "ABCEEF"
"ABCD" > "ABCD"
"AB" > "12"
```

When character operands of different length are compared, the shorter operand is considered to be extended on the right with blanks to the length of the longer operands. Thus, when comparing "AB " to "ABC", one effectively compares the strings "ABb" and "ABC", where $b$ stands for the blank character. Likewise, "ABC "="ABC".

### 4.6 Evaluation of logical expressions

Unless you change the order in which logical operators are applied to their logical operands by using parentheses, high-precedence logical operators are applied before low-precedence logical operators, and equal-precedence operators are applied from left to right. The precedence of the logical operators is shown in the following table.

| Logical operator | Precedence |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $!$ | high |
| AND | $!$ | low |
| OR | low |  |

The logical expression :
NOT ( A < B) OR C \# D , is true if
$A$ is greater than or equal to $B$, or if
$C$ is different from D.

The logical expression :

$$
C=D O R E=F \text { AND } G=H \text {, is true }
$$

```
either if the values of C and D are equal, or if the values of \(E\) and \(F\) are equal and the values of \(G\) and \(H\) are equal.
The logical expression :
\((C=D\) OR \(E=F\) ) AND \(G=H\), is true if \(G\) equal \(H\), and if either \(C\) equals \(D\) or E equals F .
```

This chapter discusses the statements which are most frequently used in a BASIC program. More advanced statements, those unique to BASIC-M, are described in subsequent chapters of the manual.

### 5.1 The LET statement

General form : LET variable $=$ expression
Purpose : used to assign or specify the value of a variable.

Comments : the assignment operator "=" is read "takes the value of", rather than "equals". Therefore, it is possible to write :
$10 \mathrm{LET} \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}+1$
which is interpreted as : "LET I take the value of ( the current value of ) 1 p plus $1^{\prime \prime}$.

The variable and the expression on the right-hand side of the " $=$ " must represent both numeric quantities, or both character quantities. In the former case, the variable and the expression need not be of the same numeric data type. Below are three examples of the LET statement :

15 LET PI = 3.14
20 LET Message\$ = "HELLO" + CHR\$ (4) 25 LET $A=B \$+C \$$ INVALID EXAMPLE

The word "LET" can be omitted in an assignement statement. These two statements :

30 LET $A=B+C$ $35 A=B+C$
mean exactly the same.

### 5.2 The REM statement

General form : REM any series of characters

25 LET PI $=3.14$
30 LET PATTERN $=$ \$AA
35 LET MESG $=$ "HELLO"
40 LET $N=22$
45 LET REF $=-6.28$

The READ statement locates the values in the data table sequentially and assigns them, in order, to the variables. This can be done via several READ statements, not necessarily a single one. For example, the READ statement shown before can be split in two, as illustrated next :

## 100 READ PI, PATTERN

would cause the first two constants in the table to be assigned to PI and PATTERN respectively. Another READ statement would take up where the last one left off. Thus:

110 READ MESG\$, N, REF
would complete the assignment.
If you wish, you can use the values in the data table more than once. At any point in a program, one can instruct that values be assigned from the beginning of the table again, even all the values in the table have not been read. The RESTORE statement is used to point back to the beginning of the table.

Comments : Care must be exercised so as not to read more values than the table contains. This would result in a runtime error. - DATA statements need not be grouped together: any statement line can be placed between two DATA statements. - DATA statement(s) can be located anywhere, even after READ statement(s).

- A number is converted to a string (free format ) if assigned to a character variable.
- If a string value is assigned to a numeric variable an attempt is made to convert it prior to assignment ( see STR\$ and VAL built-in functions).

Example 5.1 : 10 DATA $1,2,3,4,5,6$
20 READ $A, B, C \backslash A=1, B=2, C=3$
30 READ D \ D=4
40 RESTORE
50 READ $\mathrm{G}, \mathrm{H} \backslash \mathrm{G}=1, \mathrm{H}=2$

### 5.4 The console INPUT statement



Control codes :The following three control codes are provided for editing an input data line :

RUBOUT deletes the last entered character CTRL-H has the same effect as RUBOUT CTRL-X deletes the whole input line.

Break : As mentioned before, the ? character continues to be printed after each response until enough numbers are typed in. Should the user desire to abort the INPUT statement, he may enter an exclamation mark (!). This causes the variables, that were not yet supplied with values by the INPUT process, to stay at their current values. For example , given the statement :

10 INPUT $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{D}$
and the following input lines :
? 22 \$44 (carriage return)
? ! (! is typed in by operator)
the values 22 and $\$ 44$ will be assigned to $A$ and $B$ respectively, whereas the current values of $C$ and $D$ will remain unchanged.

Entering strings : The previous example shows an input line where the input data are separated by a
space character. Neither the space nor the comma however can be used as a delimiter when entering character data, since these two characters can be embedded in a literal. If several literal constants are to be entered on the same input line, one must use delimiting quotes. Thus, given the statement :

100 INPUT A\$,B\$
If the input line looks like:
? THIS IS
the string "THIS IS" will be assigned to A\$, whereas :
? "THIS" "IS"
will assign "THIS" to A\$, and "IS" to B\$.
If quotes are not used to delimit the string values, the first 31 characters typed in are put into the first string variable, the next 31 characters in the second variable, ..., etc; the last variable assigned is truncated to the remaining number of characters in the line.

Error checking :
The INPUT statement checks for valid data. Should an erroneous data be entered, an error message is printed and the operator is requested to re-enter the values from where the error was detected. For instance, if as a response to the statement :

50 INPUT A, B, C\$
one enters the following :
? 3 "HELLO" "enter"
RETYPE FROM ARROW
?
the value 3 assigned to $A$ is preserved, whereas one must re-enter the values for $B$ (that was erroneously assigned a string value), and for $C \$$.

Input prompt : Since a BASIC program can contain several INPUT statements, one has to keep track of which one is being executed. This may be solved by preceeding the INPUT statement with a PRINT statement, or better, by specifying an input prompt in the INPUT statement itself. The prompt will be automatically displayed when the associated INPUT statement becomes

```
active. The input prompt is specified as a literal constant that follows the INPUT key word, as illustrated below :
10 INPUT "enter coordinates ", X, Y
RUN
enter coordinates ? 312256
```


### 5.5 The PRINT statement - simple form.

This paragraph discusses the simplest form of the PRINT statement, the one used to output data in free format to the system console or line printer. Formatting data via the PRINT USING statement, and saving data onto a diskette file are described in separate chapters.

General form : PRINT \#LU expl dell ... expN delN
where :

- LU is an expression yielding a logical unit number in the range 0 to 255. If $L U=0$ or $L U=1$, the printout occurs on the console ; if $L U=2$, the printout is directed to the system line printer; if $L U>2$, then the operands are saved onto a diskette file. The logical unit specification is optional (\#LU). If not present, the printout is directed to the system console.
- expl..... expN are arithmetic or literal expressions whose values are printed to the logical unit.
- dell, .... delN are PRINT delimiters, that affect how spacing is to be performed between the printed values. Either one of the characters " "" or ";" can be used as delimiters. In addition, the last delimiter delN can be omitted.

Purpose : The PRINT statement causes the values yielded by the expressions expl, ..., expN, to be converted to a readable form and printed onto the system console or line printer. The values are printed in the order in which they appear in the operand list.

String printout :
Character values are printed as the ASCII equivalent of the string contents, i.e.,

```
"STRING" is printed as STRING.
```

Numeric printout : Numeric values are printed in either of the following forms :

1/ sign d.ddddddddE esgn $x x$
if the magnitude of the number is greater than 2 raised to power 29 ( appr. 5.3687E+08 ), or if the magnitude of the number is less than 2 raised to power -4 ( .0625).
The digit d to the left of the decimal point is always different from zero ; trailing zeros are suppressed; esgn represents the exponent sign ; $x x$ represents a two-digit exponent. The printed form corresponds to a value of (sign d. dddddddd) * 10 raised to power (esgn $x x$ ).

2/ sign ddddddddd
if the value is an integer whose magnitude is less than 2 raised to power 29 ( appr. $5.3687 \mathrm{E}+8$ ) , sign is a "-" sign if the number is negative ( otherwise this position is omitted ), and ddddddddd are digits with leading zeros stripped off printout.

## 3/ sign dddd.ddddd

if none of the previous conditions describe the value; a maximum of 9 digits are printed in this form; "." represents the decimal point and may be anywhere within the digit string ; leading and trailing zeros to the right of the decimal point are suppressed.

Delimiters : Field separators may be either "," or ";" . The comma causes tabbing between printed fields; it forces the terminal to space to the column such that the column number modulo 20 is one ; stated another way , there are column boundaries at $21,41,61, \ldots$, etc. The semicolon causes a space to be printed if the value to its left is numeric ; if the value to its left is a string, the semicolon prints nothing. Below are some examples of printout :

Example 5.2 : Effect of PRINT delimiters.

```
\(10 \quad \mathrm{Pi}=3.14\)
20 S\$="good"
30 T\$="bye"
40 PRINT Pi;S\$,T\$
```

```
50 PRINT S$;T$,Pi,2*Pi
60 PRINT 2*Pi;Pi
```

RUN

| 3.14 good | bye |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| goodbye | 3.14 | 6.28 |
| 6.283 .14 |  |  |
| coll | col21 | col41 |

Normally , the PRINT statement causes a set of values to be printed, and then, a new line to be started. The new line start may be suppressed by ending the PRINT statement with a ";" or "," ( which have the same meaning as above ). Further printing by other PRINT statements will then occur where the unterminated PRINT left off. In other words,
10 PRINT X,Y, 20 PRINT Z,W
is equivalent to :
30 PRINT X,Y,Z,W
A PRINT statement with no print fields simply causes an empty line to be sent to the logical unit.
TAB function : A print field may contain TAB( arithmetic expression ) instead of a literal or arithmetic expression . This causes the terminal to space until the column specified by the argument value of the TAB function is reached . If the argument value specifies a column less than the current position of the print head ( or screen cursor), no spaces are produced. Note that TAB(exp) must be followed by a ";"。
The example shown below will cause a sine curve to be printed onto the system line printer ( LU = 2 ).
Example 5.3: Drawing a sine curve.

```
10 I = 0
20 PRINT #2 TAB( 50 + 50 * SIN(I)); SIN(I)
30 I = I + . 25
40 GOTO 20 \ print for ever ....
```


### 5.6 The DIGITS and LINE statements



### 5.7 The GOTO statement

General form : GOTO line number , or GO TO line number

Purpose : Transfers control unconditionally to the

5.9 The GOSUB and RETURN statements
General form : GOSUB line number
RETURN
Purpose : The GOSUB and RETURN statements are used
together to implement subroutines, i.e.
sequences of BASIC-M statements written once
in the user program that can be called for
from several places.
The GOSUB statement transfers control
unconditionally to the subroutine whose line
number is specified.
The RETURN statement transfers control back to
the the calling program, at the statement that
immediately follows the associated calling
GOSUB
Subroutine calls may be nested, i.e. , a
subroutine may call another subroutine, which
in turn may call another one, ...etc. It is
wise however to return from every subroutine
called ; otherwise, the stack that stores the
return addresses may overflow.
5.10 The conditional GOSUB statement
General form : ON index GOSUB $\ln 1, \ln 2, \ldots . . \operatorname{lnN}$
where index, $\ln 1, \ln 2, \ln N$ have the same
meaning and effect as in the computed GOTO
statement ( refer to 5.8 ).
Purpose : The computed GOSUB statement causes control
to be transferred to the statement whose
numeric position in the list of line numbers
is equal to the byte value of the index. As
for the ON...GOTO, the index must be equal or
greater than 1 , and less than or equal to the
total number of statement numbers in the list.
The destination of the ON...GOSUB statement
must be a subroutine, which as such, must end
with a RETURN statement.
5.11 The IF statement

General form : IF logexp THEN statement, or IF logexp THEN line number
where :

- ${ }_{2}$ logexp 3.5 is a logical expression (see

5.12 The FOR and NEXT statement

General form : FOR index $=$ expl TO exp2 STEP exp3 NEXT index
where :

- index is a simple arithmetic variable, - expl, exp2, and exp3, are arithmetic expressions, - exp3 is optional.
Purpose : Together, a FOR statement and its paired NEXT statement delimit a FOR loop , that is, a set of BASIC-M statements that can be executed a number of times. The FOR statement marks the beginning of a loop and specifies the conditions of its execution and termination. The NEXT statement marks the end of the loop.
expl yields the initial value of the index, exp2 represents its ending value ( at which the loop ends ), and the amount that the index is increased or decreased after each execution of the loop is indicated by exp3.
If STEP and exp3 are omitted, an increment of 1 is assumed.

Upon execution of the FOR statement, the index is set equal to the initial value expl, then the loop is executed. When the NEXT statement is encountered, the specified increment exp3 ( which may be negative, is added to the current value of the index which is then compared with the specified final value exp2. If the index is still less than ( or greater. than, for negative increments ) or equal to the final value, the loop is executed again and the cycle continues until an increment is made that renders the index out of the specified final value. At that time, the index is set back to its final value and control falls through to the first executable statement following the NEXT statement.

Comments : . A FOR-NEXT loop is always executed at least once.

The final value of the index as well as the value of the increment are evaluated upon execution of the NEXT statement, and therefore, can be affected during execution of the loop.

- If the value of the increment exp3 is zero, the FOR loop executes for ever unless the value of the index is purposely set beyond the specified final value within the loop.
- Transfer out of a FOR loop is permitted, whereas transferring control into the loop may cause unpredictable results.
- FOR loops can be nested within one another as long as the internal FOR loop falls
entirely within the external FOR loop ; in other words, FOR loops must not overlap ; doing so will cause an error message at compile time . The maximum number of nested FOR loops is 21.
- There must always be a NEXT statement to balance a FOR statement ( with the same variable name used as index ).

Example 5.7 : A third solution to the problem presented in examples 5.5 and 5.6 .

10 INPUT $X_{\text {, }}$ N
$15 \mathrm{~N}=\operatorname{INTT}(\mathrm{N})$
20 IF N < OR N > 4 THEN STOP
$25 \mathrm{Y}=1$
30 FOR K = 1 TO N
$35 \mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{Y}$ * X
40 NEXT K
45 PRINT Y
50 GOTO 10

Example 5.8 : Use a FOR loop to solve the problem presented in example 5.3 ( draw a sine curve).

```
10 FOR I=0 TO 2*PI STEP PI/100
15 X=SIN(I)
20 PRINT #2 TAB(50+50*X);X
25 NEXT I
```

5.13 The STOP , PAUSE, and END statements

General form : STOP constant PAUSE constant END
where constant is a literal or numeric constant.

Purpose : The STOP and the END statements allow to terminate program execution. These two statements can appear anywhere in a program. Note that the END statement does not imply the physical end of a BASIC-M program ( statements that follow an END statement are compiled ).

The PAUSE statement causes program execution to be temporarly suspended ; execution resumes from the the first executable statement that follows the PAUSE statement as soon as the operator strikes any key ( except a control key ) on the system console.

| Comments : | - The END and STOP statements are not mandatory as last statement lines of a program. <br> - Since several PAUSE or STOP statements may exist in a program, the user may wish to be informed of where the program is running when execution is suspended or halted. This information can be provided by attaching an optional literal or numeric constant to the PAUSE or STOP statements, as shown in the next example. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Example 5.9 | 10 IF Temp > 280 THEN PAUSE "REPAIR COOLING" 20 WHEN Pressure > 120 THEN STOP "ALARM !!!" 30 PAUSE 22 |

5.14 Illustrative examples

This paragraph presents three sample programs that illustrate the use of some of the statements which were described in this chapter.

Example 5.10: Compute the square root of a positive number A by using the formula :
$X 2=(X 1+A / X 1) / 2$
The square root $X 2$ of $A$ is obtained by applying the above formula iteratively. Xl is initially set equal to $A$. The iterative process ends either when a given number of iterations have been performed, or when the absolute difference X2-X1 is less than a user-defined number. A program is written below that inputs : - A : the number whose square root is to be computed.

- EPS : the smallest absolute difference X2-X1 that causes the algorithm to terminate, - ITER : the maximum number of iterations to be performed.

The program is intended to print :

- the square root of $A$ (X2).
- the difference $\mathrm{X} 2-\mathrm{XI}$,
- The amount of iterations that were performed.

Entering a value $A$ less than or equal to 0 will stop program execution.

```
10 REM main program
20 INPUT "enter data ", A, EPS, ITER
30 PRINT \ empty line
40 IF A <= 0 THEN STOP \reject numbers <=0
```

| 50 | REM call square root subrou | ine |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 60 | GOSUB 120 |  |
| 70 | PRINT "SQRT","DELTA","LOOP" | \ header |
| 80 | PRINT X2, X2-X1, N | \ print results |
| 90 | GOTO 20 | \ ask for next entries |
| 100 | REM |  |
| 110 | REM Square root subroutine |  |
| 120 | $\mathrm{Xl}=\mathrm{A}$ | \ initialize xl |
| 130 | FOR $\mathrm{N}=1 \mathrm{TO}$ ITER | \ perform ITER loops |
| 140 | $\mathrm{X} 2=.5$ * ( $\mathrm{Xl}+\mathrm{A} / \mathrm{Xl}$ ) | \ NEWTON's formula |
| 150 | IF ABS (X2-X1) < EPS THEN 180 |  |
| 160 | $\mathrm{Xl}=\mathrm{X} 2$ | \ X 2 is new value of Xl |
| 170 | NEXT N | \ next iteration |
| 180 | RETURN | \ exit subroutine |

RUN
enter data ? 2 l.E-3 25
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { SQRT } & \text { DELTA } & \text { LOOP } \\ 1.41421356 & -2.12341547 E-06 & 4\end{array}$
enter data ?

Example 5.11 : Read 256 frames of a paper tape and print their binary sum.
The reader is supposed to be connected to a PIA ; the PIA control and data register are designated RDC and RDD respectively. The wiring and PIA initialization are such that :

- bit \#6 of RDC is set when the tape is loaded into the reader.
- bit \#3 of RDC going high causes the next frame to be read.
- bit \#7 of RDC is set when a frame is available for reading.

| 10 | REM PIA declaration and initialization are not shown |
| :---: | :---: |
| 20 | SUM $=0 \quad \backslash$ initialize checksum |
| 30 | REM make sure that tape is ready |
| 40 | IF RDC[6] = 0 THEN PAUSE "LOAD TAPE" |
| 50 | FOR K = 1 TO 256 \to read 256 frames. |
| 60 | RDC[3] = 1 \ send pulse to activate |
| 70 | $\operatorname{RDC}[3]=0$ \ reader |
| 80 | TIMOUT $=0 \quad$ ( initialize time-out flag. |
| 90 | IF RDC[7] = l THEN 130 \ increment time-out as long |
| 100 | TIMOUT $=$ TIMOUT $+1 \quad \backslash$ as frame is not available. |
| 110 | IF TIMOUT < 1000 THEN 90 \ |
| 120 | STOP "CHECK READER" \ time-out! stop execution. |
| 130 | SUM $=$ SUM + RDD $\quad \backslash$ add this frame to checksum. |
| 140 | REM reading RDD has reset RDC[7] |
| 150 | NEXT K \ go and read next frame. |
| 60 | PRINT "CHKSUM $=$ ";SUM \ 256 frames read. |

Example 5.12 : A series of computer systems is built where each system has its own passwords . The number of passwords varies from one computer to another, and is recorded in each computer. The following sample program will allow access to a particular machine if the operator"s password matches one of those defined in it.

10 REM line 30 defines the number and values
20 REM of the passwords for a given machine.
30 DATA 4, "H.T.IRE" "FORD P.MO" "N.NER","AT." \4 passwords
40 REM .....
50 FOR Try $=1$ to 3
60 INPUT "Password ", Key\$
70 READ $N$ \number of passwords accepted by this machine
80 FOR K = 1 TO N
90 READ Pass\$
100 IF Key\$ = Pass\$ THEN 180
110 NEXT K $\backslash$ no match. read next password
120 RESTORE $\backslash$ all passwords exhausted. ask again ...
130 NEXT Try \unless 3 attempts already done
140 PRINT "SECURITY CHECK !"
150 PRINT CHR\$(7); \sound bell ....
160 GOTO 150 \ continuously !!
170 REM Valid password
180 PRINT "ACCESS AUTHORIZED"

### 6.1 General description

Paragraph 5.5 discussed the simplest form of the PRINT statement. This chapter is entirely devoted to the description of the PRINT USING statement, an extension of PRINT to perform formatted, instead of free-format outputs to the console, line printer or to a diskette file.

General form : PRINT \#LU USING format , print list
where :

- LU is an expression yielding a logical unit number in the range 0 to 255 . If $\mathrm{LU}=0$ or $L U=1$, the printout occurs on the console if $L U=2$, the printout is directed to the system line printer ; if LU> L , then the operands in the print list are saved onto a diskette file. The logical unit specification (\#LU) is optional; if not present, the printout defaults to the console.
- format is a string variable name, or a string constant, or a line number of an IMAGE statement, which describes the format in which the operands in the print list are to be printed ( or saved to a diskette file ).
- print list is a set of string or numeric expressions ( excluding the TAB function ) separated by commas or semicolons ; as in the simple PRINT statement, the last item in the print list may be followed by either one of these two delimiters, which would cause the print head to stay stable after the last item in the list has been printed ( no carriage return - line feed characters are sent to the printing device ). In the case of the PRINT USING statement, the "p" and ";" used to separate the items in the print list play no role, as long as the format string is complete enough to describe the format of all the items to print. Should the format string be incomplete, the delimiters "" and ";" will control tabbing as described in the PRINT statement ( refer to paragraph 5.5).

Purpose : The PRINT USING statement is used to perform formatted outputs ; it operates by alternately outputting parts of the format string and outputting values (from left to right) from

```
the print list. For each value in the print
list , PRINT USING does the following :
The characters from the format string are
printed until the format string is exhausted or until a format descriptor ( enclosed in "[]"), is encountered which describes the printout format of the value to be printed. If the format string is exhausted , free format output is used.
Before going any further into the description of the various format descriptors , let's consider the following examples which all produce on the system line printer the formatted output shown below :
coll <... 20 columns ...> < 3> <2>
        v
        ITEM : HAMMER COST ... 2.75
>
> ( 2 empty lines )
```

Example 6.1:

10 LET Item\$ = "HAMMER"
20 LET Cost $=2.75$
30 PRINT \#2 USING "ITEM : [20]COST ...[3,2][/2]", Item\$, Cost

```
Example 6.2 :
```

10 Format $=$ "ITEM : [20]COST ... [3,2] [/2]"
20 PRINT \#2 USING Format\$, Item\$, Cost
Example 6.3:

10 PRINT \#2 USING 40, Item\$, Cost
40 IMAGE "ITEM : [20]COST ...[3,2][/2]"

The above examples illustrate the use of three descriptors whose meaning is as follows:
[20] specifies that the string variable Item\$ is to be printed in a 20-column field ( left justifjecation ).
[3,2] specifies that the numeric variable Cost
is to be represented as a fixed-point number with 3 positions to print its integer part, and 2 positions for its fractionary part.
[/2] causes two carriage return - line feed strings to be sent to the printing device (the line printer in this example).

BASIC-M provides very handy format descriptors that make the language well suited for a wide variety of applications where a versatile formatting of data is at a premium. It includes many facilities of FORTRAN and COBOL, plus a few unique ones. These descriptors can also be used in conjunction with the STRS built-in function to format memory-resident data, instead of output data.
6.2 Format descriptors
6.2.1 The Integer descriptor

General form : [k]
Purpose : Commonly used to print byte, integer, or string variables in a field of length "k".

Comments : . string variables are left-justified.

- numeric variables are right-justified; leading zeros are suppressed, the minus sign, if any, is floating (i.e. , it is "stuck" at the leftmost digit of the number).

Example 6.4: Print $9^{\wedge} n(0<n<6)$.
$10 \quad$ FOR N=1 TO 5
$20 \quad$ PRINT USING $40, N, 9^{\wedge} N$
30 NEXT N
40 IMAGE " $9^{\wedge}[1]=[6]^{\prime \prime}$
RUN
$9^{\wedge} 1=$
$9^{\wedge} 2=$
$9^{\wedge} 3=$
$9^{\wedge} 4=$
$9^{\wedge} 5=551$

### 6.2.2 The string descriptor

General form : [k,option]

$$
\text { where : option }=\{R, C\}
$$

```
Purpose : Used to print strings only in a field of
    length "k".
Comments : .option "R" implies right-justification.
    .option "C" implies centering within the
    field.
Example 6.5 : self-explanatory.
10 A$ = "MOTOROLA"
20 B$ = " SEMICONDUCTORS"
30 PRINT A$
40 PRINT USING "[30,R]",A$
50 PRINT A$+B$
60 PRINT USING "[30,C]",A$+B$
RUN
MOTOROLA
MOTOROLA
MOTOROLA SEMICONDUCTORS MOTOROLA SEMICONDUCTORS
col30
```

6.2.3 The hexadecimal descriptor

General form : [\$k]
Purpose : Used to print data which are commonly represented in the hexadecimal notation ( byte or integer variable ).

Comments : . the leading dollar sign "\$" is not printed.

- leading zeros are printed.
- the number is right-justified.

Example 6.6: Memory test.

1 INTEGER I
10 BYTE Memory (2048) ADDRESS 1024, Pattern
20 FOR Pattern $=0 \mathrm{TO} \$ \mathrm{FF}$
30 FOR I = 1 TO 2048
40 Memory (I) $=$ Pattern
50 IF Memory (I) = Pattern THEN 80
60 PRINT USING 70 , I+1023, Pattern, Memory (I)
70 IMAGE "ADDR [\$4] WRITTEN [\$2] READ [\$2]"
80 NEXT I
90 NEXT Pattern
RUN
ADDR 05FC WRITTEN AA READ A8
ADDR 062A WRITTEN C2 READ C0

```
6.2.4 The horizontal spacing descriptor
General form : [Xn]
Purpose : Used to output n blanks.
6.2.5 The vertical spacing descriptor
General form : [/n]
Purpose : Used to output n strings consisting of the
                                    carriage return and line feed characters (see
                                    example 6.1).
6.2.6 The fixed-point descriptor
General form : [k,m]
Purpose : Used to output data in a format similar to the
                                FORTRAN ordinary decimal F format.
Comments : . "m" indicates the number of positions
        occupied by the fractionary part of the number
    (not including the decimal point).
        - "k" denotes the length of the integer part,
        minus sign included in case of a negative
        value.
    . the minus sign , if any , is floating.
    - printout occurs in a field of length =
    k+m+1.
    - printed numbers are rounded (not truncated).
    - numbers are justified on the decimal point.
    - leading zeros are suppressed.
Example 6.7 : Sine calculation.
```

```
10 FOR I=-Pi/2 TO Pi/2 STEP Pi/4
```

10 FOR I=-Pi/2 TO Pi/2 STEP Pi/4
20 PRINT USING 40 ,I , SIN(I)
20 PRINT USING 40 ,I , SIN(I)
30 NEXT I
30 NEXT I
40 IMAGE "[2,4][X10][1,12]"
40 IMAGE "[2,4][X10][1,12]"
RUN
RUN
-1.5708
-1.5708
-0.7854
-0.7854
0.0000
0.0000
0.000000000000

```
                                    0.000000000000
```

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
0.7854 & 0.707106781000 \\
1.5708 & 0.999999943000
\end{array}
$$

Note that the first two sine results are not printed because one attempts to output them in the [1,12] format ; because these values are negative, "k" should be set to 2 minimum ; the printout is correct when changing the IMAGE statement to :

40 IMAGE " $[2,4][\mathrm{X10}][2,12] "$
First printed line becomes :
$-1.5708 \quad-0.999999943000$

7.853982E-1
$7.0710678100000 \mathrm{E}-01$

1. $570796 \mathrm{E}+0$
6.2.8 The commercial descriptor

General form : [Csa(sb)fls1 ... fn(sn)fmsm ... fzsz]
Purpose : Mostly used to output data in formats similar to those of the COBOL language ; therefore, the commercial descriptor is intended for , but not limited to, business-type applications.

Comments : .the quantities "si" shown in the general form are character strings ( excluding the digits 1 thru 9, parentheses, quotes and "]" ) reproduced "as is", except :

```
"!" that is printed as a blank.
"+" that is printed as a "-" if the
number is negative.
"-" that is printed as a blank if the
number is greater than or equal to 0.
"CR" that is printed as two blanks if the
number is positive.
"DB" that is printed as two blanks if the
number is positive.
```

.the quantities "fi" shown in the general form are integers which represent the length of a printed field for one part of a number.
.all the field descriptors "fi" are optional.
.sb , for instance DM meaning Deutsch Mark, will be printed in front of the most-significant digit.
.sl, s2 ... are printed in between the numerical fields of the integer part of the number.
.sn , which must be specified between parentheses , indicates the pcsition of the radix point ; the radix point does not default to "." and may be represented as a string of any characters ( the one specified in the parentheses ) i. a null string between parentheses denotes the position of the decimal point, but does not cause any output.
.sm, ...' sz are printed in between the numerical fields of the fractionary part of the number.
.if the radix point position is not specified via the "()" indicator , it is assumed to be
to the right-hand side.
.if the floating field (sb) is omitted, the integer part is printed with possible leading zeros.
.if (sb) is specified, leading zeros of the number are printed as blanks, even if $s b$ has no characters.
.two numeric field descriptors , fi , must be separated by at least one character different from a blank.
. spaces embedded in the commercial descriptor are merely ignored.

Example 6.9: Using the commercial descriptor.
The following printout is obtained when running the program presented next :

As of 10/11/78
bookings are $\$ 2,190,250.75$
by the end of fiscal month (10/25/78), they
should be around K\$3,000 (4.800.000 SFr)
$10 \quad$ Book $=2.19025075 \mathrm{E}+6$
20 Forecast=3000
30 Date $=101178$
40 Current_month=10
50 Last daȳ=25
60 Year $=78$
70 REM
80 PRINT USING 90, Date, Book
90 IMAGE "As of [C2/2/2][/]bookings are [C(\$) 1, 3,3(.)2]"
100 PRINT "by the end of fiscal month ";
110 PRINT USING 120, Current_month, Last_day, Year;
120 IMAGE " ([2]/[2]/[2]), thēy[/]should be "
130 PRINT USING 140, Forecast, 1600*Forecast
140 IMAGE "around [C(K\$)1,3] ([Cl.3.3! SFr])"

Example 6.10: Another sample program using the commercial format.

```
100 PRINT "STATEMENT OF ACCOUNT - MONTH : " % Month$
110 FOR I=1 TO Nb transac
120 INPUT #7, Datē, Sum
130 PRINT USING 200, Date, Sum
140 NEXT I
200 IMAGE "[X6][6][X15][C($) 3,3,3(!!!)2 !!!DB]"
```

```
Data read from diskette file :
050779 ..... -500
051579 ..... -215.75
051779 ..... }900
052279 ..... -410
052579 ..... 3500.50
Printout obtained :
        col7
            v
            50779
            51579
            51779
            52279
            52579
                col36
                            v
                                $500 00 DB
                            $215 75 DB
                        $9,000 00
            $410 00
        DB
    $3,500 50
```

This chapter describes the several statements used to define the type, structure, and address of the user's program data, as well as those used to declare assembly-language subroutines.
7.1 Declaring BYTE variables

Byte variables are declared via the BYTE statement whose general form is as follows :

BYTE V1 (x1,yl) ADDRESS al, ... Vn(xn,yn) ADDRESS an
where :

- Vi represent the names of byte variables. .xi, yi are unsigned decimal constants denoting the size of the dimensions of the byte array variable vi.
. ai indicates the memory address of the variable Vi.

Comments : .xi, yi are optional i if present, they specify the size of the first and second dimensions respectively of the byte array Vi. For one-dimensional byte arrays (byte vectors), xi must not exceed 65535; for two-dimensional byte arrays, $x i$ and $y i$ must each be less than or equal to 255 .
.the address clause " ADDRESS ai " is optional; if present, it defines the memory address ai of variable Vi. ai is an unsigned decimal or hexadecimal constant, or the name of an already declared variable to which Vi is to be equated.
.the keyword "ADDRESS" may be abbreviated as "ADDR"。
.the BYTE keyword applies to all the variables of the statement line.

Example 7.1: Declaring byte variables.

```
10 BYTE PIA(2) ADDR $8008, Memory(255,16)
20 BYTE PIA data ADDRESS PIA
30 BYTE Var\overline{I}, Var2 ADDR Varl, Var3
```

.PIA represents a 2-byte vector based at the absolute address \$8008.
. Memory defines a matrix of 255 rows by 16 bytes.
. PIA data represents the first item of the 2-byte vector PIA, so PIA_data is located at the absolute address \$8008.
-Varl, Var2, Var3 are all three simple byte variables; Var2 is equated to Varl, therefore Varl and Var2 reside at the same address. Note that Var2 is equated to an already declared variable ( backward reference).

### 7.2 Declaring INTEGER variables

Integer variables are declared by using the INTEGER statement whose general form is :

INTEGER V1(xl,yl) ADDRESS al, ... Vn(xn,yn) ADDRESS an
where Vi, xi, yi, and ai have the same meaning as for the BYTE statement.

Comments: .same as under 7.1.
.the INTEGER keyword applies to all the variables defined in the statement line.

Example 7.2 : Declaring integer variables.

10 BYTE Pia_D ADDR \$8008, Pia_C ADDR \$8009
20 INTEGER $\bar{P} I A$ ADDRESS Pia D, $\operatorname{Word}(16,16)$
30 REM Pia initialization = solution \#1
40 Pia D $=\$ F F$
50 Pia_C = \$4 $\quad$ (or Pia_C[2] = 1
60 REM alternate solution
70 PIA = \$FF04
7.3 The DIM statement

The DIM statement is used for declaring vectors or arrays of real or character data; its general form is as shown below:

DIM Vl(xl,yl) ADDRESS al , .. , Vn(xn,yn) ADDRESS an
where :
. Vi are variable names; a variable name ending with a dollar sign (\$) defines the variable it represents as a character variable; any other name specified in a DIM statement defines a real variable. .xi, yi are unsigned decimal constants denoting the first, respectively second size of the dimensions of the variable vi.

Comments :
. ai is the memory address of the variable Vi.
.xi, yi are optional. For one-dimensional. arrays ( vectors ), xi must not exceed 65535. For two-dimensional arrays, xi and yi must not exceed 255.
.the address clause "ADDRESS ai" is optional ; if present , it defines the memory address of the variable Vi. ai is an unsigned decimal or hexadecimal constant less than 65536, or the address of an already declared variable to which Vi is to be equated.
.the keyword "ADDRESS" may be abbreviated as "ADDR"。
. simple character or real variables which are to be equated to an absolute address or to the address of another pre-declared variable must be declared with a DIM statement; in addition, these variables must be explicitly declared as having one dimension of size equal to one. Thus, if a simple real variable $V$ is to be defined at the address, say, 1024, one should declare it with the statement line : 10 DIM V(1) ADDRESS 1024

Example 7.3: Declaring variables via the DIM statement.

```
10 BYTE Display (22,80) ADDRESS $E000
20 DIM Screen(22,16) ADDR Display, Varl, Var (2,3)
30 DIM AS(1) ADDRESS Display, TEXT$(4,5)
```

.In this example, the real matrix "Screen" is equivalenced with the byte matrix "Display" : therefore , there is no difference, as far as storage address is concerned, between these two matrices; however, referencing an item of matrix "Screen" will also reference 5 items of matrix "Display" (since a real variable occupies 5 bytes).
-Line 30 says that the character variable A\$ is to occupy the first 32 bytes of matrix "Display".

### 7.4 Declaring external subroutines

The absolute address of a user-written assembly language procedure or function must be declared explicitly prior to being called for. The general form of such a declaration is as follows :

EXTERNAL Pl ADDRESS al , ... , Pn ADDRESS an
where:
.Pi represents the name of the user-supplied assembly language procedures / functions.
-ai is an unsigned decimal or hexadecimal constant denoting the absolute starting address of the procedure / function Pi.

Comments : .the keyword "EXTERNAL" can be abbreviated as "EXT"。
.the keyword "ADDRESS" can be abbreviated as "ADDR"。
.the "EXTERNAL" or "EXT" keywords apply to all the subroutines declared in the statement line.

Example 7.4: Declaring external subroutines.

10 EXTERNAL XPCRLF ADDRESS \$F021, XORBUG ADDR \$F02D 20 EXT XPSPAC ADDRESS \$FO2A

### 7.5 Runtime initialization

When the "RUN" command is invoked, all the variables defined in a BASIC-M source program are initialized to zero; this rule, however, does not apply to variables which are equated to absolute memory addresses (variables declared with an "ADDRESS" or "ADDR" specification) . For example, given the statement line :

BYTE A (255) ADDR 1024, B, C(10) ADDR \$FF, D\$(20)
The simple variable $B$, as well as the string vector $D \$$, will be all cleared upon execution, whereas the vectors $A$ and $C$ will be left unchanged.

As stated earlier, BASIC-M was specified so as to be a high-level language which had yet to provide facilities for the user to work close to the target environment . Not surprisingly, the language includes the necessary statements to monitor hardware events such as interrupt requests to the MC6809 processor and keystrokes. This chapter discusses those along with the statements to allow for a software monitoring of runtime conditions and errors.

### 8.1 The ON interrupt THEN statements

There are three statements which allow the user to enable and process the three possible interrupt requests to the MC6809 processor ; their syntax is as follows:

General form : ON NMI THEN action
ON IRQ THEN action
ON FIRQ THEN action
where :
.NMI refers to the non-maskable interrupt request to the MC6809 processor ; the processor NMI input is edge-sensitive.
-IRQ and FIRQ refer to the interrupt request, respectively fast interrupt request to the MC6809 ; the corresponding inputs are both level-sensitive ; therefore , the associated interrupt handlers must cancel the original interrupt source so that the interrupted program can resume execution once the interrupts have been serviced.

Comments : .interrupts must be enabled via one of the above statements in order to be recognized and processed ; should an interrupt request occur in the system, which has not been previously enabled by its corresponding "ON" statement p the runtime package will flag it as a spurious interrupt and will abort the execution of the BASIC-M program.
.the "THEN" clause indicates the service to be provided when the corresponding interrupt request is detected. "action" must be an executable statement with the following exceptions :

```
.the "FOR" statement.
.the "GOTO" statement.
.any executable statement that includes a
THEN clause ( IF, WHEN, ON ).
```

.the action routines which include more than one BASIC-M line of code must be structured like subroutines, that is, they must end with a "RETURN" statement. Therefore , subroutine and procedure calls are permitted in an "ON interrupt" statement.
. interrupt requests are disregarded further to the execution of an associated "NEVER interrupt" statement. Should they still occur, they are treated as spurious interrupts ( runtime fatal error ).

Example 8.1: Speed calculation. A disk is mounted on the shaft of an engine, which has an index hole delivering a pulse on a control line of a PIA at every revolution. This latter drives the processor IRQ input. The program listed below records the maximum speed of the engine (r.p.m ). A MC6840 timer is programmed to request an NMI interrupt every 20 ms . The PIA and timer initialization routines are not shown.

```
( skip over procedure definition
12 REM real-time clock interrupt
14 REM service routine
16 REM -----------------------------1
18 DEF Check Time
20 Time=Time干1
22 IF Time < 50 THEN RETURN
24 Time=0
26 RPM=Speed*60
28 IF RPM > Max THEN Max=RPM
30 Speed=0
32 RETURN
34 REM
100 REM ****. MAIN PROGRAM ****
110 Time=0 \ Time count
120 Max=0 \(\backslash\) maximum speed
130 speed=0 \ current speed (rpm)
140 ON NMI THEN Check_Time \ enable NMI
150 ON IRQ THEN GOSUB- 240 \ enable IRQ
160 Init Timer \procedure to set up timer
170 Pia[ \(\overline{0}]=1 \quad\) enable sampling
180 GOTO 180 \program does nothing but waits
190 REM \ for interrupts.
200 REM **** END OF MAIN ****
210 REM Interrupt routine to be serviced
220 REM on occurence of the index hole..
```



```
240 Dummy \(=\) Pia \(\backslash\) reset interrupt source
250 Speed \(=\) speed +1
260 RETURN
```


### 8.2 The ON KEY statement

User-defined keys allow the operator to interrupt an active program to run a higher priority subprogram with a single keystroke. Function key interrupts are enabled on execution of the "ON KEY" statement whose general form is as follows:

General form : ON KEY kl, k2, .... kn THEN action
where :
. ki are arithmetic expressions rounded to byte values which indicate which function keys are to be considered as active. Striking any key of the list $k 1, k 2, \ldots, k n$ will cause the execution of the statement specified in the THEN clause ( action ). This statement must obey the same rules as the ones set in the previous paragraph. Keystrokes of function keys not previously enabled by an "ON KEY" statement are merely ignored.

Comments : .each arithmetic expression ki must result in a value greater than 0 and less than 17 (16 keys). A runtime error message is reported if this is not the case.
. striking an active key causes an NMI request to the MC6809 processor i this , however, does not mean that the "ON KEY" statement hinders usage of the other interrupt-related statements described under 8.1 : they all can co-reside in a BASIC-M program.
.since there may be several keys enabled by a single "ON KEY" statement " it might be desirable to know which key was depressed last ; this information is supplied by the built-in function "FKEY" that returns a value between 1 and 16 which denotes the number of the last depressed key.
.the value returned by "FKEY" is only meaningful after execution of the "ON KEY" statement. The value of FKEY is zero if no function key has been activated since the last call to FKEY ; in other words, reading FKEY causes it to be resetted to zero.
.function keys enabled by the "ON KEY" statement can be further individually disabled ( desactivated ) by using the associated "NEVER KEY" statement ( see paragraph 8.5).
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Example } 8.2: & \text { Same as example } 8.1 \text {, but modified to print the } \\ & \text { variable "Max" whenever function key } 16 \text { is } \\ & \text { activated. }\end{array}$

```
    180 ON KEY 16 THEN PRINT USING "Speed = [I3] rpm". Max
    185 GOTO 185
Example 8.3 : 5 different tasks are initiated by striking
                        the function keys Fl thru F5. Write a program
                        to dispatch control on a valid keystroke.
10 ON KEY 1,2,3,4,5 THEN ON FKEY GOSUB 100,200,300,400,500
        :
100 REM - task #1 -
    :
190 RETURN
500 REM - task #5 -
560 RETURN
The above program is equivalent to :
10 ON KEY 1 THEN GOSUB }10
20 ON KEY 2 THEN GOSUB 200
30 ON KEY 3 THEN GOSUB 300
40 ON KEY 4 THEN GOSUB }40
50 ON KEY 5 THEN GOSUB 500
8.3 The WHEN ... THEN statement
The statements described sofar in this chapter are all used to perform a hardware monitoring of external events p since they are based on the processor interrupt capabilities. The next two statements are aimed at easing the continuous testing of software conditions during program execution.
The WHEN statement is used to regain program control when a user-defined condition is satisfied : its general form is :
General form : WHEN logexp THEN action
where :
. logexp stands for a logical expression which specifies the condition to be continuously tested. Logical expressions are discussed in paragraphs 2.3.5.4 and 4.6.
.action is an executable statement which conforms to the rules set under 8.1.
Comments : . any number of WHEN statements can appear in a program, but only the last executed is effective at any time.
```

. unlike an "IF" condition which is on'ly tested upon execution of the "IF" statement, a "WHEN" condition is tested prior to executing each and every line of the program. The condition monitoring is initiated on occurence of a WHEN statement ; should the condition become satisfied at any time during program execution , control is then transferred to the action routine ; during execution of this latter routine , the condition monitoring is temporarily suspended up until the action has been wholly executed ; the action terminates when its RETURN statement is encountered ( in case of a multi-line action routine ). This functionning is illustrated on the following example :

```
10 WHEN A>100 THEN GOSUB 50
20 INPUT A
30 A=A+25
40 GOTO 20
50 PRINT "ACTION *** SQR(A) = ";
60 PRINT SQR(A)
70 RETURN
RUN
? 144
ACTION *** SQR(A) = 12 (due to line 30)
ACTION *** SQR(A) = 13 (due to line 40)
ACTION *** SQR(A) = 13 (due to line 20)
? 69
?
```

Note that the condition is not tested during the action routine which consists of the lines 50,60 , and 70 . The action would otherwise be re-entered for ever.

- care should be exercised so as not to run for ever in the action routine ; this would happen if a WHEN condition, once met , is never rendered false further in the program. In the above example, the condition is related to the input value A which is a subject to change ; thus, depending on the input value, the condition will be sometimes satisfied, sometimes unsatisfied. If, in the same program, line 20 would be changed to " $A=200$ " , it is obvious that the action associated with the WHEN statement would be re-entered continuously. The sample program which follows is another example of a situation where the condition, once satisfied, will no longer be rendered false ; consequently, the program will not work as expected. The program is supposed to count the number of keystrokes ( function keys excluded ). The keyboard strobe
signal is connected on a control line of a PIA labelled KEYBC. A keystroke sets the most-significant-bit of the byte KEYBC to one.

10 BYTE KEYBC ADDRESS \$EF83
20 Count=0 \initialize count
30 WHEN KEYBC[7]=1 THEN Count=Count+1
40 :
Whatever the number of keystrokes ( but at least one ), the result Count will be erroneous for bit 7 of KEYBC, once set, will never be reset. This is due to the operating principle of the PIA, which requires that its data register be read to reset the most-significant-bit of its control register. The reader is encouraged to go through the example 8.5 in order to avoid this common pitfall.
.there are circumstances however, where a WHEN condition disappears by itself ; this is the case when variables defining the condition are related to hardware random signals. The following example presents such a situation ; the program is intended to drive an audible alarm for as long as a door is open.

## 10 WHEN Door[3]=1 THEN Bell

The bit indicating the state of the door depends on an external condition which, as such, cannot be controlled by program.
.The execution of the "NEVER WHEN" statement disables all WHEN requests .
. A WHEN statement can be embedded in the action routine of another WHEN statement, according to the following scheme :

WHEN conditionl THEN actionl
acti.

-
WHEN condition2 THEN action2 -
returnl : RETURN

If this structure is implemented, condition2 will be monitored after, and after only, that conditionl has been fulfilled AND that action \#1 subroutine has returned. This scheme provides for switching of conditions. The sample program presented next illustrates the

```
    WHEN A>100 THEN GOSUB 200
    INPUT A
    GOTO 20
        :
    200 PRINT "LINE 10 WHEN ACTIVE"
    210 WHEN B>100 THEN PRINT "LINE 210 WHEN ACTIVE"
    220 B=A
    230 B=B+1
240 RETURN
RUN
        ? 110
        LINE 10 WHEN ACTIVE ( due to line 30 )
        LINE 210 WHEN ACTIVE ( due to line 20 )
        ? 2
        LINE 210 WHEN ACTIVE ( B remains unchanged and equal
        LINE 210 WHEN ACTIVE to lll since conditionl is no
        ?
        longer tested.)
            .usage of the WHEN statement results in some
                degradation as far as program execution speed
                is concerned.
                .programs that make use of the WHEN statement
                should not be compiled with the "S" compiler
                option : this option prevents the compiler
                from generating the statements which allow
                runtime condition testing. ( refer to "sytem
                commands" ).
Example 8.4 : Effect of the WHEN statement.
```

10 WHEN X>144 AND X<200 THEN PRINT SQR(X)
20 INPUT X
30 GOTO 20
RUN
? 30 ( WHEN condition not satisfied )
? 169 ( WHEN condition satisfied )
13 ( due to execution of line 30 )
13 ( due to execution of line 20 )
?

Example 8.5: Video game. The program listed below moves a ball along the first top line of the EXORset display ( alphanumeric memory based at address $\$ E 000$ ). The game consists in intercepting the ball when it is in the middle part of the line ( column 39 thru 41 ). A shot is made by striking any key on the system console. The keyboard is connected to a PIA based at the address \$EF82 ; striking a key sets the most significant bit of the control register at address \$EF83.

```
10 BYTE KEYBD ADDR \$EF82, KEYBC ADDR \$EF83
20 BYTE LINE (80) ADDRESS \$E000
30 GOTO 110
40 REM -- procedure to check the position of
50 REM --- the ball on occurence of a shot ..
60 DEF Check shot
70 Dummy=KEYBD \reset WHEN condition
80 IF J>38 AND J<42 THEN STOP "You won"
90 RETURN
100 REM --- main program
110 MAT LINE=SET[ASC(" ")] \erase display line
120 WHEN KEYBC[7]=1 THEN Check_shot \(\backslash\) set condition
130 Kl=1 \ set line boundaries
\(140 \mathrm{~K} 2=80\)
\(150 \mathrm{DK}=1\) and step for move
160 FOR J=K1 TO K2 STEP DK \move ball along line
170 LINE (J) =ASC ("O")
180 FOR \(\mathrm{BB}=1\) TO 10 software delay
190 NEXT BB
200 LINE (J) =ASC (" ")
210 NEXT J
220 TEMP=K1 \exchange boundaries
230 Kl=K2 \(\quad\) to move the ball in
240 K2=TEMP \the reverse direction
250 DK=-DK
260 GOTO 160
```

Example 8.6 : Using the WHEN statement to replace several IF statements. When several identical tests have to be done in a BASIC program, a WHEN statement can do the job economically, as illustrated below:

| Classical method |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 10 | INPUT A |  |  |
| 20 | $\begin{gathered} \text { IF } A>100 \\ : \end{gathered}$ | THEN | STOP |
| 70 | $A=A+10$ |  |  |
| 80 | $\begin{gathered} \text { IF } \quad \mathrm{A}>100 \\ : \end{gathered}$ | THEN | STOP |
| 110 | $A=A * B$ |  |  |
| 120 | IF $A>100$ | THEN | STOP |


| Using WHEN |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 10 | WHEN A>100 | THEN STOP |
| 20 | INPUT A |  |
|  | : |  |
| 70 | $A=A+10$ |  |
|  | : |  |
|  | : |  |
| $110 \mathrm{~A}=\mathrm{A} * \mathrm{~B}$ |  |  |
|  | : |  |
|  | : |  |

8.4 The ON ERROR statement

Normally, a runtime error causes the associated error message to be displayed, and program execution to be aborted in case of a fatal error. The ON ERROR statement provides a means to process non-fatal errors only. User-defined error processing
may vary from a simple translation of the error message in the user"s native language, to a more sophisticated error recovery action. The syntax of the ON ERROR statement is as follows :

General form : ON ERROR THEN action where :
.action is an executable statement that conforms to the rules set in paragraph 8.1.

Comments : .the runtime error codes defined in BASIC-M are listed in Appendix ?. The ERR function returns the code of the last error that occured Calling the ERR function automatically resets its value to zero.

- user handling of errors is activated on execution of the "ON ERROR" statement, while the "NEVER ERROR" statement disables it and therefore causes the normal error processing to resume.
.the statement :


## 10 ON ERROR THEN RETURN

causes all subsequent errors to be merely ignored ( error messages are not displayed ).

Example 8.7 : Translation of error messages.

| 10 | DIM ERS $(33), A(5,5)$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 20 | DATA "DIVISION ENTIERE PAR 0" |
| 30 | : |
| 80 | DATA "TRANSPOSITION ILLEGALE" |
| 100 | FOR I=1 TO 33 |
| 110 | READ ER\$ (I) |
|  | R |
| 230 | ON ERROR THEN GOSUB 500 |
| 340 | MAT $A=\operatorname{INV}(A)$ |
|  | : |
|  | : |
| 500 | PRINT ERS (ERR) |
| 510 | RETURN |
| RUN |  |
| INVERSION DE MATRICE SINGULIERE |  |

Example 8.8: Error recovery.
The program below fills a buffer with data, then transfers it to a diskette file. The ON ERROR statement is used to detect when the buffer is full ( attempting to store a data

```
beyond the buffer end causes an error ).
```

| 10 | ON ERROR THEN GOSUB |
| :---: | :---: |
| 20 | $\mathrm{I}=0$ |
| 30 | INPUT A |
| 40 | IF $A=0$ THEN 100 |
| 50 | $\mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}+1$ |
| 60 | Buffer (I) =A |
| 70 | GOTO 30 |
|  | : |
| 100 | : |
|  | : |
| 200 | MAT PRINT \#5 Buffer |
| 210 | $\mathrm{T}=1$ |
| 220 | Buffer (1)=A |
| 230 | RETURN |

### 8.5 The NEVER statement

For each of the ON statements discussed in this chapter there is a paired NEVER statement whose function is to cancel a monitoring request. The several NEVER statements are as follows :

General form : NEVER NMI
NEVER IRQ NEVER FIRQ
NEVER KEY kl,k2,....,kn
NEVER WHEN
NEVER ERROR
where :
.kl,k2,....kn have the same meaning as described under 8.2.

Example 8.9 : Disabling selected function keys.

```
10 K=1 \ default execution to task 1
20 ON KEY 1,2,3,4,5 THEN GOSUB 100
            :
            :
    50 TASK(K) \ run kth task
    100 K=FKEY \ read number of function key just hit
    110 FOR I=1 TO K \ disable keys of lower order
    120 NEVER KEY I
    130 NEXT I
    140 RETURN
```


### 8.6 More about the RETURN statement

As stated earlier, it is mandatory to end a multi-line action subroutine associated with an ON statement, with a RETURN statement. In the particular context of real-time monitoring , where an action can be considered as a service routine which is activated randomly ( based on hardware or software conditions being met ), RETURN plays the same role as the instruction RTI which is used to return from an interrupt service routine. Therefore, its effect is not the same as the RETURN statement that terminates a BASIC-M subroutine. To highlight this distinction, let's consider the following program :

```
10 WHEN I=4 THEN RETURN
        :
5 0 ~ I = 0
60 GOSUB 100
    :
100 PRINT I
110 I=I+1
120 GOTO 100
```

The above program will run for ever in the loop delimited by the lines 100 and 120 ; when $I$ reaches the value 4 , control is transferred to the action routine which does not absolutely nothing ( the RETURN statement does not imply any concrete action ). The point is that the RETURN keyword appearing in line 10 is not at all connected with the execution of the subroutine at line 100 .

Another use of the RETURN statement was pointed out in paragraph 8.4. Given the following:

ON ERROR THEN RETURN
All non-fatal errors are ignored ( no error message is displayed ).

Finally, the statement :
ON KEY kl,....,kn THEN RETURN
allows to activate the FKEY function so that it further returns the number of the last key hit ; not using the ON KEY statement would result in FKEY being always equal to zero. The user however, must remember that calling the FREY function automatically resets its value to zero.

This chapter explains matrix manipulation. It is intended to show the matrix capabilities of BASIC-M and assumes that the programmer has some knowledge of matrix theory.

Matrix definition, declaration, type, and arrangement in storage are topics which have already been discussed in chapters 3 ( paragraph 3.5 ) and 7. This section only describes the types of operations which can be performed on matrices.
9.1 The classical approach

The classical approach to solving problems in which matrix operations are involved, consists in operating on every item of the matrix. This is because most BASIC's, especially those implemented on microcomputers , do not make provision for considering a matrix as an entity ; as a result, it is the programmer"s responsibility to take care of array indexing and to find out, if needed, the statements to translate complex mathematical algorithms such as those involved in matrix inversion. To cope with the tasks just mentioned, the programmer needs to write several statement lines. For instance, if all the elements of a two-dimensional array $A(4,7)$ are to be set to a given value, say zero, the most efficient program is likely to look like :

| 10 | FOR $I=1$ TO 4 |
| :--- | :--- |
| 20 | FOR $J=1$ TO 7 |
| 30 | A $(I, J)=0$ |
| 40 | NEXT J |
| 50 | NEXT I |

In BASIC-M , the same problem can be solved by using the single statement :

$$
10 \text { MAT A }=\text { ZER }
$$

Clearly , the classical solution translates into a much larger machine code (l0 times larger than the one yielded by solution \#2 !!!) Not suprisingly the first solution will execute much slower than the second; this is mainly due to the fact that array indexing is handled at a "high level" (BASIC statements) as opposed to the index calculations yielded by the second program, which are handled by the runtime package assembly-language instructions.
The subsequent paragraphs detail the operations which can be carried out on matrices using BASIC-M matrix-oriented
statements.
9.2 The MAT READ statement

General form : MAT READ Arr
where :
.Arr is the name of a one- or two-dimensional numeric or character array.

Purpose: To fill the entire matrix from the current DATA statement in the row, column order: 1,$1 ;$ 1,2; 1,3; etc.

Comments : .The number of elements read is controlled by the implicit or explicit statements that specify the matrix size.
. The MAT READ statement conforms to the same rules as the simple READ statement (see paragraph 5.3).

Example 9.1 : Using MAT READ.

10 DIM Name\$ $(2,2), A(2,3)$
20 BYTE Value (4)
30 DATA "JOHN" "MARY" "KATE" " LEE", \$EF
40 DATA 2, $\$ 41$, 5, 2.718
50 MAT READ Name\$
60 MAT READ Value
70 READ Constant
:
The following assignment is to take place:

9.3 The console MAT INPUT statement

General form : MAT INPUT prompt , Arr or MAT INPUT Arr where :
. prompt is an optional literal constant. . Arr is the name of a one- or two-dimensional numeric or character array.

Purpose : To assign values to array elements from the

the delimiting quotes can be freely separa-
ted from each other by a blank or a comma.
The matrix $A$ and the vector $M \$$ now contain the following data :

| $A(3,2)$ | M\$ (3) |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 2 | How |
| 1 | 7 | are |
| 0 | 0 | you |

9.4 The MAT PRINT statement

General form : MAT PRINT \#LU Arr
where :
. LU is an arithmetic expression which specifies the output port. . Arr is the name of a one-dimensional or two-dimensional numeric or character array.

| Purpose : |  | To display the elements of a specified array without referring to each array element individually. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Comments | : | -The "\#LU" clause is optional. When not |
|  |  | specified, printout is directed to the |
|  |  | console. So is it when LU is rounded to a byte |
|  |  | value equal to 1. When LU is equal to 2, |
|  |  | printout occurs on the system line printer. If |
|  |  | the evaluation of LU leads to a value between |
|  |  | 3 and 255, the array elements are directed to |
|  |  | a diskette file. Using a diskette file to |
|  |  | store matrices is discussed in chapter 12. |
|  |  | .When using the MAT PRINT statement, the |
|  |  | format of all displayed values is |
|  |  | standardized, so is the spacing between values |
|  |  | on the same line. |
|  |  | - Numeric array elements are printed in |
|  |  | free-format. An array is displayed row-by-row; |
|  |  | the following rule applies: the elements of a |
|  |  | row are displayed on the same line as long as |
|  |  | the line length defined by the "LINE" |
|  |  | statement is sufficient to accommodate them. |
|  |  | If the length is not sufficient, a new line is |
|  |  | started to print the remaining elements of the |
|  |  | row. Then an empty line is displayed prior to |
|  |  | printing the elements of the next row. Each |
|  |  | array element uses one full print zone of 20 |
|  |  | characters. |

```
- String array elements are displayed
row-by-row. The elements of a row are
concatenated prior to being printed. Should
the line length defined by the "LINE"
statement be insufficient to accommodate the
resulting string to print, a new line is
started, which is not further followed by an
empty line (as opposed to the way numeric
arrays are displayed ).
.Upon execution of the MAT PRINT statement,
the carriage return and line feed characters
are sent to the output device.
```

Example 9.3 : Using MAT PRINT.

10 DIM $A(3), B(2,5), C \$(3,6)$
20 DATA 1,2,3
30 DATA 4,5,6,7,8
40 DATA 9,10,11,12,13
50 DATA "A", "B", "C", "D", "E", "F"
60 DATA "G", "H", "I", "J"。"R", "L"

80 MAT READ A
90 MAT READ B
100 MAT READ C\$
110 MAT PRINT A
120 MAT PRINT B
130 MAT PRINT C\$

| RUN | Col21 | col41 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | V | V |  |
| 1 | 2 | 3 |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8 |  | 11 | 12 |
| 9 | 10 |  |  |

ABCDEF
GHIJKL
$C \$(3,1) C \$(3,2) \ldots$

### 9.5 Copying a matrix

General form : MAT Arrl $=$ Arr 2 where :
.Arrl and Arr2 are names of one- or two-dimensional numeric or character arrays.

Purpose : To assign the elements of one array (Arr2 ) to another array ( Arrl).

## Comments :

. Arrl and Arr2 must be of the same type, i.e., either both numeric, or both character.
. Arrl and Arr2 must have identical dimensions, but the size of their dimensions need not to be the same. However, the number of elements in Arr2 must not exceed the number of elements in Arrl. The following are examples of matrix assignments :

10 DIM $A(3,2), B(9)$
15 BYTE C $(2,4)$, D (8)
20 DIM M1\$(3), M2\$ $(2,2)$
25 REM .......... valid assignments .......
30 MAT $C=A$
35 MAT B $=\mathbf{D}$
45 REM ......... invalid assignments ......
50 MAT $C=A \quad \backslash$ dimensions not identical
55 MAT C $=$ Ml\$ $\backslash$ mixed-type assignment
-After execution of the assignment, Arrl assumes the same dimensions as Arr2. For instance, executing the statement at line 30 changes the dimensions of array $C$ from (2,4) to (3,2). Likewise, statement 35 changes the dimension of $B$ from (9) to the dimension of $D$, i.e., (8).
. Numeric conversions are performed when Arrl and Arr2 are not of the same numeric data type (see next example).

Example 9.4 : Matrix copy.

```
10 DIM A (3,2)
15 BYTE B (2,4)
20 MAT INPUT A
25 PRINT
30 MAT INPUT B
35 PRINT "MATRIX B BEFORE ASSIGNMENT"
4?0 MAT PRINT B
45 MAT B = A
50 PRINT "MATRIX B AFTER ASSIGNMENT"
55 MAT PRINT B
```

```
RUN
? 2 ( entering A )
? 255 3
? 10 20
?254 3 2 1 ( entering B )
? $AA 9 10 20
MATRIX B BEFORE ASSIGNMENT
```

FE
AA 9

A
MATRIX B AFTER ASSIGNMENT

| 1 | 2 |
| :--- | :--- |
| FF | 3 |
| A | 14 |

### 9.6 Matrix addition and subtraction

General form : MAT Arr1 = Arr2 oper Arr3
where :

- oper is the plus sign "+" to perform matrix addition, or the minus sign "-" to perform matrix subtraction. .Arrl, Arr2, Arr3 are names of one- or two-dimensional numeric arrays.

Purpose : To add or subtract the contents of two matrices Arr2 and Arr3 and assign the result to a third matrix Arrl.

Comments : .The three arrays involved in this statement must have identical dimensions (after re-dimensioning, if any). In addition, the size of the dimension(s) of Arr2 and Arr3 must be identical.
. Arrl is re-dimensioned to the size(s) of Arr2 (or Arr3 as they must be the same).
. All three matrices must be numeric.
Example 9.5 : Matrix addition.


```
9.7 Matrix multiplication
General form : MAT Arrl = Arr2 * Arr3
where :
.Arrl, Arr2, and Arr3 are names of one- or
two-dimensional numeric arrays.
Purpose : To perform the mathematical matrix multiplication of two numeric matrices Arr2 and Arr3 and assign the product to a third matrix Arrl. In matrix multiplication, a matrix \(A\) of dimensions \((p, m)\) and a matrix \(B\) of dimensions ( \(m, n\) ) yield a product matrix \(C\) of dimensions ( \(p, n\) ) such that for \(i=1,2, \ldots, p\), and for \(j=1,2, \ldots, n\) :
\(C(i, j)=s u m\) of \([A(i, k) * B(k, j)]\) for \(k=1,2 \ldots, \ldots\)
Below is an illustration of the application of this formula to square matrices \((2,2)\).
```

| A | B | $C=A * B$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a b | e $f$ | $a * e+b * g \quad a * f+b * h$ |
| C d | $g \mathrm{~h}$ | $c^{*} e+d * g \quad c^{*} f+d * h$ |

Comments
All of the following relationships must be true (after re-dimensioning, if any) :
-The number of columns in the second matrix Arr2 must equal the number of rows in the third matrix Arr3.
-The number of rows in the first matrix (product matrix Arrl) must equal the number of rows in the second matrix Arr2.
-The number of columns in the product matrix Arrl must equal the number of columns in the third matrix Arr3.
-Matrix Arrl may be one-dimensional if either p or n is equal to 1.
-When Arr2 is a one-dimensional array, it is treated as an array consisting of one row.
-When Arr3 is a one-dimensional array, it is treated as an array consisting of one column.

```
                    -The same array variable name must not appear
                    on both sides of the "=" sign; this would
                    yield an erroneous result although no error is
                    reported.
                    -Mathematically, Arr2*Arr3 is not equal to
                    Arr3*Arr2.
Example 9.6 : Matrix multiplication.
10 DIM A (2,3),B(3,4),C (2,4)
15 MAT INPUT A
20 PRINT
25 MAT INPUT B
30 MAT C=A*B
35 MAT PRINT C
RUN
? 1
?4 56
? 10 11 12 13 ( entering B )
?
? }18\quad19\quad20\quad2
\begin{tabular}{llll}
92 & 98 & 104 & 110 \\
218 & 233 & 248 & 263
\end{tabular}
```


### 9.8 Scalar operations

General form : MAT Arrl = Arr2 oper ( exp )
where :
.Arrl and Arr2 are names of one- or two-dimensional numeric arrays. .oper is one of the following operators : $+{ }_{p}$, $_{\text {, }} /$. - exp is an arithmetic expression which must be specified between parentheses.

Purpose : Scalar addition and subtraction allow an arithmetic expression to be added to, or subtracted from all the elements of the array Arr2, and to store the results in the array Arcl. With scalar multiplication or division, each element of the array Arr2 is multiplied or divided by the specified arithmetic expression, and the results are stored in the array Arrl.

Comments : Arrl and Arr2 must be either both one-dimensional, or both two-dimensional arrays.
.The size of the dimensions of Arrl and Arr2 need not be identical; however, the number of elements in Arr2 must not exceed the number of elements in Arrl (after re-dimensioning, if any).
."MAT Arrl = Arrl oper ( exp )" is a valid operation.
. After execution, Arrl is re-dimensioned to the size of the dimensions of Arr2.
.Numeric type conversions are performed, if required (see example 9.7).

Example 9.7: Scalar division.

9.9 Identity matrix

General form : MAT Arrl = IDN ( xpl, xp2 ) where:
.Arrl is the name of a two-dimensional numeric matrix.
.xpl and xp2 are arithmetic expressions.
Purpose : To establish Arrl as an identity matrix and optionally specify a new working size.

Comments : . An identity matrix is one having all its elements set to zero, except those residing on its diagonal from upper left to lower right which are set to one.
.If a new working size is not specified, the original matrix must be square (the number of rows must equal the number of columns, after re-dimensioning if any).
.The clause "( xpl, xp2 )" is optional. If present, it specifies a new working size for Arrl, and therefore has the same effect as a DIM, BYTE or INTEGER statement . xpl and xp2 must obey the same rules as those followed by


### 9.10 The MAT SET statement

General form : MAT Arrl = SET (xpl, xp2) [ exp ] where:
.Arrl is the name of a one- or two-dimensional numeric array.
. xpl, xp2, and exp are arithmetic expressions.
Purpose : To set all the elements of an array Arrl to the value specified by "exp" and to optionally establish a new working size as indicated by (xp1, xp2).

Comments : .The new working size specification is optional; the rules given under 9.9 apply, except that xpl and xp2 need not be identical.

Example 9.9: Erasing ( filling with blanks ) a video RAM based at hex address \$E000.

10 BYTE SCREEN $(22,80)$ ADDRESS $\$ E 000$
20 MAT SCREEN $=\operatorname{SET}[\$ 20$ ] $\backslash$ or SET [ASC(" ")]
9.11 The MAT ZER and MAT CON statements

These two statements are particular cases of the MAT SET statement, in that they allow to fill an array with two

```
    specific values : 0 (MAT ZER), or l (MAT CON). The syntax is
as follows :
General form : MAT Arrl = ZER ( xpl, xp2 )
    MAT Arrl = CON ( xpl, xp2 )
    where Arrl, xpl, xp2 have the same meaning as
    in the MAT SET statement.
9.12 Matrix transposition
General form : MAT Arrl = TRN ( Arr2 )
    where :
    .Arrl and Arr2 are names of two-dimensional
    numeric arrays.
Purpose : To replace the elements of an array Arrl with
        the matrix transpose of another array Arr2.
Comments : .The number of elements in Arr2 must not
        exceed the number of elements in Arrl.
    .The values in column y of Arr2 become the
        values in row y of Arrl.
        .The dimensions of the resulting matrix Arrl
        are set to be the reverse of the original
        matrix Arr2. For instance, if A has dimensions
        of (4,2) and MAT B=TRN(A), B will be assigned
        the dimensions of (2,4).
        .Matrices cannot be transposed into
        themselves.
Example 9.10 : Matrix transposition.
10 DIM A (50,2),B(2,3)
20 MAT INPUT B
30 MAT A = TRN (B)
40 MAT PRINT A
RUN
? 1 2 3
?456
\begin{tabular}{lll}
1 & 4 & (from now on A assumes \\
2 & 5 & the dimensions of \((3,2)\) )
\end{tabular}
3 6
```

9.13 Matrix inversion
General form : MAT Arrl = INV ( Arr2)

```
where :
-Arr2 is the name of a two-dimensional square numeric array.
.Arrl is also a two-dimensional numeric array to be dimensioned as Arr2 after inversion.
Purpose : To establish a square matrix Arrl as the inverse of a specified square matrix Arr2.
Comments :
.For the square matrix Arr2 of dimensions ( \(m, m\) ) , the inverse matrix Arrl, if it exists, is a matrix of identical dimensions such that:
Arrl*Arr2 = Arr2*Arrl \(=\) I, where
I is an identity matrix.
. Not every matrix has an inverse: the inverse of a matrix Arr2 exists if its determinant is different from zero.
-When the determinant is equal to zero, an error occurs. In some cases, the determinant is very close to zero, thus causing either error conditions, or yielding a result which is far from the true inverse.
Example 9.11 : Solving a system of linear equations.
Giving the following :
```

```
\[
\begin{aligned}
& a 11 . x l+\ldots .+\operatorname{aln.xn}=b l \\
& a 21 . x 1+\ldots+a 2 n . x n=b 2 \\
& a n 1 . x 1+\ldots \ldots+a n n . x n=b n
\end{aligned}
\]
the values \(x l, \ldots\), \(x n\) which satisfy all the equations are such that:
\[
X=\operatorname{INV}(A) * B
\]
\(X\) is the resulting vector \(\{x 1, \ldots, x n\}\),
A is the square matrix containing the coefficients aij,
\(B\) is the vector \(\{b l, \ldots, b n\}\)
```

```
DOIM A(4,4),B(4),X(4)
```

DOIM A(4,4),B(4),X(4)
20 PRINT "enter aij "
20 PRINT "enter aij "
30 MAT INPUT A
30 MAT INPUT A
40 MAT INPUT "enter bi ", B
40 MAT INPUT "enter bi ", B
50 MAT A = INV (A)
50 MAT A = INV (A)
60 MAT X = A*B
60 MAT X = A*B
70 MAT PRINT X

```
70 MAT PRINT X
```

where :

```
RUN
enter aij
? 1 5 8 7
? }90366
? 2 7 4 9
? 9 1 3 2
enter bi ? 10 3 6 2
\(-0.130643612\)
```

1. 34005764
2. 19788665
$-0.878962535$

## 10. FUNCTIONS AND PROCEDURES

Much of the art of programming lies in recognizing problems which can be solved by a repetitive sequence of operations. Repetition is mainly desired because it enhances the effectiveness of a given number of instructions, results in a shorter code, and makes for economy of thought on the part of the programmer.

Two kinds of repetitions are found in programming, as illustrated in the following time sequences where "ti" stands for task i :

| (1) | $t 1$ | $t 2$ | $t 2$ | $t 2$ | $t 3$ | $\ldots .$. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (2) | $t 1$ | $t 2$ | $t 3$ | $t 2$ | $t 4$ | $t 2$ |$\ldots$.

The connected repetition in (1) would be written as a loop; task "t2" would then be written once only in the source program, and the corresponding instructions coded once only in the object program.

Disconnected repetitions, as in (2), can be solved by using subroutine calls, a subroutine being a sequence of instructions, written and stored once only. In BASIC-M, subroutines are called by the GOSUB statement. There are two main drawbacks in using GOSUB's:

1/ Programs are not very readable because the subroutine is not represented by a label which would help to guess its function, but rather by a line number.
2/ Arguments or parameters cannot be passed easily to the subroutine.

In BASIC-M, these problems can be overcome by using procedures and functions:

- A procedure is a sequence of instructions, thus represented on several statement lines, which is executed whenever the procedure name is encountered in the program. Arguments can be associated with procedures, and passed back and forth between the calling program and the procedure.
- A function is a type of subroutine which returns a single result to the calling program. Two types of functions exist:
.User-defined functions declared on a single statement line.
- Built-in BASIC-M functions such as sine, substring search, or logarithms.

The rest of this chapter details the user-defined procedures and functions, while chapter 11 discusses the built-in functions.
10.1 User-defined functions

Such functions are useful when a particular numeric or literal expression appears many times in a program. They are declared by using the DEF statement whose form is shown next.

General form : DEF funct( arg1, arg2, ... ) $=\exp$
where :
.funct , argl, arg2 are the names of the function and formal arguments respectively; these names conform to the rules followed by the BASIC-M variable names.

- exp is an arithmetic or literal expression, depending on whether the function is of the numeric or character type.

Purpose : The DEF statement is used to define a user function and its associated formal parameters, if any.

Comments : .The DEF statement defining a function must appear before any use of the function.
.If the function name "func" ends with a dollar sign "\$", the function is of the character type; consequently, the expression on the right-hand side of $"="$ must be literal.
. If the function name does not end with the dollar sign, the function is numeric and assumes the type real; the expression must then be an arithmetic expression (its components may be of any numeric type, not necessarily real).

- A function must not have the name of a variable or procedure.
. A user-defined function can be used wherever an expression is allowed by writing:
...... func (arg1, arg2, .... $\operatorname{argN)~......~}$
.When the function is invoked, the actual arguments (those stated in the function call.) are used to evaluate the expression that yields the function result. As an example, let's consider a function "Sum $(X, Y)$ " which is supposed to return the sum of two parameters $X$ and $Y$. The following listing shows how the
function is defined, then further invoked to print the sum of two input values $A$ and $B$.

```
\(10 \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{Sum}(X, Y)=X+Y\)
20 INPUT A,B
30 PRINT Sum (A, B)
40 IF A \# 0 THEN 20
50 STOP
```

$X$ and $Y$ are the formal parameters of the user-defined function "Sum", while A and B are the actual parameters.
When the function "Sum" is invoked in line 30 . the following action is taken by the runtime package :
-The values in $A$ and $B$, are converted to the type of $X$, respectively $Y$, if the types of the actual arguments do not match those of the formal parameters.
-These values, once converted, undergo the computation dictated by the function definition (line l0), where the value of $A$ is equivalent to the value of $X_{\text {, }}$ and the value of $B$ is equivalent to the value of $Y$.

The conversion, which may occur when the function is invoked, can be illustrated on the same example, in which an additional statement line would declare $Y$ as an integer (5 INTEGER Y). The following results would be obtained:

RUN
? 29
11
? 232769
-32765
At first glance, the second set of inputs does not produce the expected result; this is due to the fact that $Y$ has been declared as an integer; because integers are l6-bit signed quantities, 32769 corresponds to -32767 , hence the final result. It is recommended to insure type compatibility between the actual and the formal arguments.

The number of arguments in a function call also calls for some comments. If the number of actual arguments in the call is less than the number of formal arguments in the definition, the extra arguments appearing in the expression of the definition assume the value they were given prior to the function call. The following is an example:

```
10 D?EF Sum (X,Y)=X+Y
20 INPUT A,B
50 Y= !
80 PRINT Sum(A)
RUN
? 100 200
101
?
```

If the number of arguments in the call is greater than the number of formal arguments in the definition, the extra actual arguments are merely ignored. This is visualized on the following:
$10 \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{Sum}(X, Y)=X+Y$
20 INPUT $\mathrm{A}_{\bullet} \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{D}$
30 PRINT $\operatorname{Sum}(A, B, C, D)$
RUN
? 1101001000
11

The actual arguments argl, arg2,.... argN involved in a function call may be any valid expressions, and therefore may consist of simple variables, array elements, ... or user-defined functions. Complete arrays, however, cannot be passed as arguments. Below is another example of function calls.

1 REM Sum the elements of a matrix $A$
10 DIM A(4)
20 MAT INPUT A
$30 \operatorname{DEF} \operatorname{Sum}(X, Y)=X+Y$
40 PRINT Sum (Sum (Sum (A (1), A(2)), $A(3)), A(4))$
50 REM same as .....
60 PRINT Sum (A (1), A (2) $+\mathrm{A}(3)+A(4))$
RUN
$\begin{array}{lllll}? & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4\end{array}$
10
10

Example 10.1 : Compute the roots of a quadratic equation.

10 DEF $\operatorname{DET}(R, S, T)=S * S-4 * R * T$ \unction to return determinant
20 INPUT $A, B, C$ enter coefficients of equation
30 A $\$="[C-3(\circ) 2]+-([C 3() 2]) "$.$\ define format string$
$40 \mathrm{D}=\mathrm{DE}-\mathrm{T}(\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{C}) \quad \backslash$ call function
50 IF D>=0 THEN 80

```
60 AS=AS+"*i" \ if determinant is < 0, then
70 D=-D \ negate, and modify format string
80 PRINT USING A$, -B/(2*A),SQR(D)/(2*A) \ print roots
90 GOTO 20
RUN
? }344\quad(9*X*X+3*X+4
-000.17 +- (000.65)*i
?-104 6 (-10*X*X + 4*X + 6)
000.20 +- (000.80)
?
```

Example 10.2 : Defining a string function.

```
10 DEF QUEST(A$) = A$+"?" \ function to append a
20 INPUT X$ \ question mark to a string
30 PRINT QUEST (X$)
40 PRINT QUEST (QUEST(QUEST(X$))) \ append 3 "?"
RUN
? "DOES IT WORK "
DOES IT WORK ?
DOES IT WORK ???
```


## 10. 2 Procedures

Procedures are defined using a different form of the DEF statement.

General form : DEF proc ( argl, arg2, ... )
where :
.proc, argl, arg2 are the names of the procedure and formal arguments respectively, which conform to the rules followed by BASIC-M variable names. A procedure must not be given the name of a variable or function.

Purpose : The DEF statement is used to define a series of statements which may be later invoked by writing the name of the procedure, possibly followed by an argument list. Alternatively, the CALL statement can be used to invoke the procedure execution; the syntax of the CALL statement is as follows:

CALL proc ( argl, arg2 .... )
Comments : .The procedure is exit on execution of the first balancing RETURN statement which is encountered.
.The procedure definition must appear before any use of the procedure.

```
.A procedure does not assume any type since no
result is returned to the calling program.
.The rules applying to the arguments of a
user-defined function apply also to the
arguments of a procedure (see paragraph 10.1).
.The programmer must make sure that program
control is never transferred directly to the
procedure (unless carely planned), as would be
the case with the following program structure:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
& \(\stackrel{\vdots}{n}\) \\
110 & \(\mathrm{~A}=1\) \\
120 & DEF DELAY (X) \\
& \(\vdots\) \\
150 & RETURN \\
160 & PRINT A \\
& \(:\)
\end{tabular}
The execution of the RETURN statement at line 150 would cause the stack to be updated without any valid reason (no procedure call was made before). This would result in a runtime fatal error. To avoid this situation, it is a good programming practice to precede a procedure definition by a GOTO statement so as to skip the procedure body in case of in-line execution. The compiler issues a warning message whenever a procedure (not a user-function !) definition is not preceded by a GOTO statement. A warning message does not prevent the program from being executable. These two detections (at compile and run time) are illustrated below:
```

$10 \quad A=1$
20 PRINT A
30 DEF DELAY (X)
40 FOR K=1 TO X
50 NEXT K
60 RETURN
70 PRINT 2*A

```
RUN
*** WARNING *** PROCEDURE LINE 00030 (compilation)
l
( execution )
*** FATAL ERROR #133 AT LINE 60
```

Example 10.3 : Procedure to complement the bit \#i of a byte (bit \#0 is the rightmost bit).

```
10 BYTE BYT, PIA ADDR $8008
20 GOTO l00 \ skip procedure definition
30 DEF COMP (BYT,I) \ .. procedure definition ....
40 BYT[I] = IEOR(BYT[I] ,I)
5 0 ~ R E T U R N ~ \ ~ . . ~ p r o c e d u r e ~ p h y s i c a l ~ e n d ~ . . ~
90 REM ---- MAIN -----
100 INPUT K
110 COMP(PIA,K) \ invert bit #K of PIA
120 IF PIA = 0 THEN STOP
```

    :
    Example 10.4: Exchange two elements of a string vector.

| 10 | DIM A\$ (3) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 20 | GOTO 100 |  |
| 30 | DEF EXG ( $1, J)$ | \ procedure definition |
| 40 | T\$ = A ${ }^{\text {( }} \mathrm{I}$ ) | $\backslash$ : |
| 50 | A ${ }^{(1)}(\mathrm{I})=\mathrm{A}$ \$ ( J$)$ | \ procedure body |
| 60 | $A \$(J)=T \$$ | $\backslash$ : |
| 70 | RETURN | $\backslash$ physical end |
| 80 | REM ---- MAIN |  |
| 100 | MAT INPUT A\$ |  |
| 110 | MAT PRINT AS |  |
| 120 | EXG (1, 2) |  |
| 130 | MAT PRINT AS |  |

RUN
? "DO " "YOU ","UNDERSTAND"
DO YOU UNDERSTAND ( due to line ll0)
YOU DO UNDERSTAND ( due to line 130 )

Example 10.5 : .The sample program below makes use of 3 procedures to set a bit in a byte, to store the byte in a buffer when all eight bits have been set, and finally to output the buffer once full.

This example is intended to demonstrate the nesting of procedures.

```
10 BYTE BUF (3),II
20 GOTO 500
30 REM
100 REM ------ PUT_REC
110 DEF PUT_REC - \(\backslash\) when buffer is full, then
120 MAT PRIN̄T BUF \print it and ....
\(130 \mathrm{P}=0\) \ reset pointer
140 RETURN
150 REM ------ PUT BYTE
200 DEF PUT BYTE (I)
210 INDEX \(=(\overline{\mathrm{P}}+7) / 8\)
220 BUF (INDEX) \(=\mathrm{I}\) \ store byte according to
230 IF INDEX=3 THEN PUT_REC \ value of pointer
```

```
240 RETURN
250 REM ------ PUT BIT --------
3 0 0 ~ D E F ~ P U T ~ B I T ( J ) ~ \ ~ s e t ~ b i t ~ c u r r e n t l y ~ p o i n t e d ~
310 II[7-IANDD(P,7)]=J \ to by P to the value J
320 P=P+1 \update pointer, and store
330 IF IAND (P,7)=0 THEN PUTBYTE(II) \ full byte if
340 RETURN \ appropriate.
350 REM
360 REM ***** MAIN PROGRAM ********
500 P=0 \ initialize pointer.
730 PUTBIT(K)
    :
```

10.3 Assembly language intexface

In some cases, to speed up the execution of the overall program, it is more efficient to code certain tasks in assembly language. This section discusses how to link these portions of codes to a BASIC-M program.

The assembly language programs must obey the following rules: -they must be structured as subroutines, and therefore should terminate with an "RTS" instruction or the like. -they must be declared as "external" subroutines (refer to 7.4).

Depending on the context (the way they are invoked), the assembly language subroutines will be used as procedures or as user-defined functions (these latter only are supposed to return a value onto the MC6809 User Stack.).

Context: .When an external subroutine is called like a procedure, i.e, by just writing its name optionally preceded by the CALL keyword, it executes exactly as a procedure does. The subroutine exits upon execution of the "RTS" or equivalent instruction. The following are valid examples of assembly language procedure calls.

```
10 EXTERNAL ERASE ADDR $D400, Switch $D430
                        :
35 IF SCREEN (22,80) #$20 THEN ERASE
60 CALL Switch(X)
8 5 \text { Switch}
```

.When an external subroutine is referenced in an expression, it is used as a user-defined function, and therefore must return a single result on the user stack. When used in this

|  | context, assembly routines whose name ends with a "\$" are expected to return a string result ( 32 bytes), whereas the others are supposed to return a real data onto the user. stack (5 bytes). The format of the returned data must agree with the BASIC-M internal representation of the character or real variables (refer to chapter 3). |
| :---: | :---: |
| Arguments : | .When arguments are associated with external subroutine call, the subroutine entered with the MC6809 Y-register pointing to a table that contains the addresses of the arguments; this table is structured as follows: |


where each line stores a l6-bit address, with the last one being zero (terminator).
.The actual arguments may be simple variables, or expressions. The user is responsible for insuring type compatibility between the BASIC-M variables and his assembly language variables: in other words, BASIC-M byte variables must be handled as bytes, integer as l6-bit words, ... etc.

Example 10.6 : Defining an assembly subroutine to erase the EXORset display ( alphanumeric memory based at hex address \$E000 ).

10 BYTE Screen $(22,80)$ ADDRESS $\$$ E000
20 EXTERNAL ERASE ADDRESS \$D400
30 ERASE
:
Assembly subroutine
ORG \$D400

|  | SCREEN | EQU \$E000 | Display base address |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  |
| ERASE | LDX \#SCREEN |  |  |
|  | LDD \#\$2020 | Two blanks |  |
| ERS | STD O++ |  |  |
|  | CMPX \#SCREEN+2048 |  |  |
|  | BNE ERS |  |  |
|  | RTS |  | Go on erasing |

```
Example 10.7 : Change all upper-case characters of a string
    to lower-case. This is an example of an
    external assembly language user function call
    with a literal expression as argument.
10 EXT LOWERS ADRRESS $D500
20 INPUT AS,B$
30 PRINT LOWER$ (A$+B$)
40 GOTO 10
RUN
? "BASIC-M ","User's Guide"
basic-m user"s guide
?
Assembly language function
ORG $D500
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 33 & C8 E0 & LOW & LEAU & -32,U & create room for string \\
\hline 6 F & C4 & & CLR & , U & default to empty string \\
\hline AE & A4 & & LDX & , Y & get string address \\
\hline 27 & 13 & & BEQ & EXIT & no argument in call \\
\hline 86 & 1 F & & LDA & \#31 & \\
\hline E6 & 86 & LOOP & LDB & A, X & transfer string to stack \\
\hline C1 & 41 & & CMPB & \#* \({ }^{\text {A }}\) & upper-case char ? \\
\hline 25 & 06 & & BLO & IGNOR & \\
\hline C1 & 5A & & CMPB & \#'Z & (the string length byte is \\
\hline 24 & 02 & & BHI & IGNOR & not an upper-case char code) \\
\hline CA & 20 & & ORB & \#\$20 & yes. change to lower-case \\
\hline E7 & C6 & IGNOR & STB & \(A_{\text {, }}\) U & store in result string \\
\hline 4 A & & & DECA & & tally counter \\
\hline 2A & EF & & BPL & LOOP & \\
\hline 39 & & EXIT & RTS & & All done. Return. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```


## 11. BUILT-IN FUNCTIONS

This chapter covers the functions defined in BASIC-M, which fall into five categories. The first part of the chapter lists and describes these while the second part contains several application examples.
11.1 Trigonometric functions

SIN (X) sine of $X$ radians.
$\operatorname{CoS}(X) \quad$ cosine of $X$ radians.
TAN (X) tangent of $X$ radians.
ATN (X) arctangent of $X$. result in radians.
$-\mathrm{PI} / 2$ < result < +PI/2.
$\operatorname{ATN}(X, Y) \quad \operatorname{ATN}(X / Y)$.
ASN (X) arcsine of $X$. result in radians.
ACS (X) arcosine of $X$. result in radians.
SINH (X) hyperbolic sine of $X$.
COSH (X) hyperbolic cosine of $X$.
TANH (X) hyperbolic tangent of $X$.
$\operatorname{COTH}(\mathrm{X}) \quad$ hyperbolic cotangent of X .
11.2 Other mathematical functions

EXP (X) natural exponent of. $X$.
LOG (X) logarithm of $x$ to the base e.
DCLOG (X) logarithm of $X$ to the base 10.
SQ (X) square of $X(X * X)$.
SQR(X) square root of $X$.
ABS (X) absolute value of $X$.
SGN (X) sign of $X$.
SGN (X) $=-1$ if $X<0$ 。
$\operatorname{SGN}(X)=0$ if $X=0$ 。

|  | SGN (X) = 1 if $\mathrm{X}>0$ 。 |
| :---: | :---: |
| SGN (X,Y) | $\operatorname{SGN}(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y})=\mathrm{ABS}(\mathrm{X}) * \operatorname{SGN}(\mathrm{Y})$. |
| INT (X) | truncate value of $X$ to an integer. |
| $\operatorname{MOD}(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y})$ | modulus. returns the remainder of the division of $X$ by $Y$. |
| RND | generates a pseudo random number between 0 and 1. A new random number is produced each time the "RND" function is invoked within the program; the sequence of random numbers using "RND" is identical each time a program is run. |
| RND (X) | initializes the congruential series to the value of $X$ and returns a random number. Because random numbers generation depends on the initial value of the series, RND ( X 1 ) $=$ RND ( X 2 ) if $\mathrm{X} 1=\mathrm{X} 2$ 。 <br> $X$ must be in the range 0,1 . Note that RND ( 0 ) is equivalent to RND. |
| FIX (X) | returns the 2 -byte integer corresponding to the real value $\mathrm{X}(-32768<=\mathrm{X}<=32767$ ). |
| FLOAT (X) | returns the 5-byte real corresponding to the integer value X . |
| 11.3 Logical functions |  |
| IAND ( $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}$ ) | logical AND of X and Y . |
| IOR (X, Y) | logical inclusive $O R$ of $X$ and $Y$. |
| IEOR (X, Y) | logical exclusive $O R$ of $X$ and $Y$. |
| ISHFT (X, Y) | shifts the binary value of $X$ by $Y$ positions to the left if $Y>0$ or to the right if $Y<0$. |
| 11.4 String functions |  |
| LEN (X\$) | returns the length of X \$. |
| LEFT\$ (X\$, ${ }^{\text {P }}$ ) | returns the leftmost $Y$ characters of the string $\mathrm{X} \$$. |
| RIGHT\$ (X\$,Y) | returns the rightmost $Y$ characters of the string X \$. |
| MID\$ (X\$,Y,Z) | extracts a string from the string $X \$$, which begins Y positions from the left and continues for $Z$ characters. |
| TRIM\$ (X\$) | removes trailing blanks from X\$. |


| ASC (XS) | returns the numeric value of the code of the |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | first ASCII character within a string X\$. |
| CHR (X) |  |
| returns a single character whose ASCII code is |  |
| equivalent to the value of X. |  |

[^1]As already mentioned, BASIC-M takes care of the conversion of the arguments involved in a function call to the type of the formal arguments. These conversions, when necessary, consume some of the overall program execution time. When speed is at a premium, it is of benefit that the types of the actual arguments match those of the formal arguments. The type of the formal arguments involved in the BASIC-M built-in functions is shown in the next table.

| function | Argl | Arg2 | Arg 3 | Result |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SIN (X) | R | - | - | R |
| $\cos (\mathrm{X})$ | R | - | - | R |
| TAN (X) | R | - | - | R |
| ATN (X,Y) | R | R | - | R |
| ASN (X) | R | - | - | R |
| ACS (X) | R | - | - | R |
| SINH (X) | R | - | - | R |
| COSH (X) | R | - | - | R |
| TANH (X) | R | - | - | R |
| COTH (X) | R | - | - | R |
| EXP (X) | R | - | - | R |
| LOG (X) | R | - | - | R |
| DCLOG (X) | R | - | - | R |
| SQ (X) | R | - | - | R |
| SQR (X) | R | - | - | R |
| ABS (X) | R | - | - | R |
| SGN (X,Y) | R | R | - | R |
| INT (X) | R | - | - | R |
| MOD (X,Y) | R | R | - | R |
| RND (X) | R | - | - | R |
| FIX (X) | R | - | - | I |
| FLOAT (X) | I | - | - | R |
| IAND ( $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}$ ) | I | I | - | I |
| IOR ( $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}$ ) | I | I | - | I |
| IEOR ( $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}$ ) | I | I | - | I |
| ISHFT ( $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}$ ) | I | I | - | I |
| LEN (X\$) | S | - | - | B |
| LEFT\$ (X\$, Y) | S | B | - | S |
| RIGHT\$ (XS,Y) | S | B | - | S |
| MIDS (XS, Y, Z) | S | B | B | S |
| TRIM\$ (X\$) | S | - | - | S |
| ASC (X\$) | S | - | - | B |
| CHR\$ (X) | B | - | - | S |
| STR\$ (X,Y\$) | R | S | - | S |
| VAL (X\$) | S | - | - | R |
| SUBSTR (X\$,Y\$) | S | S | - | B |
| PEEK ( X ) | I | - | - | B |
| PORE (X, Y) | I | B | - | - |
| LOC (X) | - | - | - | R |
| TAB (X) | B | - | - | - |
| POS | - | - | - | B |
| ERR | - | - | - | B |
| FREY | - | - | - | B |
| EOF (X) | B | - | - | B |

$B=$ byte
$I=$ integer
$R=r e a l$
$S=$ string

### 11.7 Illustrative examples

Example 11.1 : Using the RND function.

10 PRINT RND, RND $\backslash 2$ different numbers
20 REM are produced because no argument
30 PRINT RND (.2) ,RND, RND (.2)
40 REM "RND(.2)" always yields the same number
RUN

| $1.39698386 \mathrm{E}-09$ | $9.15583223 \mathrm{E}-05$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0.199987794 | $7.32536428 \mathrm{E}-05$ | 0.199987794 |

Example 1l.2 : Display a date in the form Date : MM/DD/YY on the bottom line of the EXORset screen.

10 DIM DATE\$ (1) ADDRESS \$E6B0
20 BYTE Dummy ADDR DATE\$
30 INPUT Date
40 DATES=STR\$ (Date,"Date: [C2/2/2]")
50 Dummy=ASC(" ")
60 GOTO 30
RUN
? 70479
? Date: 07/04/79
Note : line 50 blanks the location corresponding to the byte that contains the length of the string DATE\$.

Example 11.3 : Count the number of characters "M" in an input string A\$.

```
10 INPUT A$ \ input string
20 K=0 \ default to no "M"
30 Posit = SUBSTR(A$,"M") \ search for next "M"
40 IF Posit=0 THEN 80 \ none. exit.
50 K=K+1 \ another one. update counter.
60 A$=RIGHT$(A$,LEN(A$)-Posit) \ shrink string.
70 GOTO 30 \ go on searching for next "M"
80 PRINT K \ print amount of "M" found
90 GOTO 10
RUN
? BASIC-M MANUAL
2
?
```

Example 11.4 : Using "POS" to print column numbers.

10 LINE=60
20 PRINT
30 PRINT " ";
40 PRINT USING "[1]",POS/10;
50 IF POS \# 1 THEN 30
60 PRINT USING "[1]",MOD(POS,10);
70 IF POS \# 1 THEN 60
RUN
$1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 2 & 3\end{array}$
$123456789012345678901234567890123456789012 \ldots .$.
( partial listing of the result )

When running in an XDOS/MDOS environment, a BASIC-M program may transfer data to or from disk files. This chapter describes the disk $I / O$ statements and the file interface between BASIC-M and XDOS/MDOS floppy disk operating system.

### 12.1 General description

BASIC-M file management package uses some XDOS/MDOS routines to interface with disks, that means file input/output is allowed only within a program running under XDOS/MDOS control. The user is recommended to be familiar with the file and disk structures described in the MDOS III User's Guide or the XDOS User's Guide prior to manipulating files with BASIC-M.

Since BASIC-M performs all its I/O transfers through logical units, a number has to be assigned to each file when it is opened: this number must be a positive integer, not greater than 255 and may not be a standard peripheral logical unit number.

There are three file access types available with BASIC-M: sequential, random and indexed. These will be discussed in paragraph 12.1.1.

Also, there are three open modes: for input only, for output only, for both input and output (update).

IMPORTANT WARNING

SINCE THE DISK FILE INPUT/OUTPUT PACKAGE AND THE DISK OPERATING SYSTEM ARE NOT REENTRANT, A PROGRAM WHICH MANIPULATES DISK FILES MUST NOT BE INTERRUPTED. INTERRUPTING A DISK FILE I/O INSTRUCTION MAY DESTROY THE DISK DATA AND FILE STRUCTURE. DO NOT USE "ON KEY". "ON NMI", "ON IRQ", "ON FIRQ" AND DISK I/O SIMULTANEOUSLY.
12.1.1 File types
-------------------

Three file types are available :
sequential the file is read or written one record after another, beginning with the first one. No positioning is allowed. This type follows the ASCII source record structure described in the XDOS user"s quide or the MDOS III User"s Guiđe.

| random | a random file is made of fixed length records, each of them may be addressed by its ordinal position in the file, beginning with record 1. Each record physically exists, even if it has not been written into it, except those records following the last record written in the file. This means that any unused record between existing records occupies the same amount of room in the file as if it were initialized. |
| :---: | :---: |
| indexed | as a random file, an indexed file is made of fixed length records. A table follows the last data record in the file: it contains numbers which are used as record access keys. An index key is not the position of the record in the file, but only a number assigned to it. Since records are entered sequentially in the file when a new key is used, no "holes" appear between existing records. For example, an indexed file in which only records with index keys 4 and 2097 have been written, contains effectively two records. |
| Use of choice between access speed requires more are not contig when the file choose the mo own application | random and indexed files is very similar; the these two file structures is a matter of and mass storage occupation: a random file room than an indexed file if the records used uous, but the access is much faster, especially contains a lot of records. The user has then to most convenient file structure, depending on its n requirements. |

For listing purposes, any type of file is created as an XDOS/MDOS ASCII file, however, the physical organization slightly differs from one file type to another.


From this table, we see that a sequential file is completely compatible with XDOS/MDOS software, whereas the random and indexed files are not standard because special entries in RIB are used.

Care should therefore be exercised when manipulating random and indexed files with XDOS/MDOS subsystems or other non-BASIC-M programs:

- Copying one of these files will destroy the pointers in the destination file.
- MDOS REPAIR command will find discrepancies in RIB and will generate a warning message.
- Garbage records will appear at the end of an indexed file listing ; they are due to the output of the index table.

File accesses

File accesses refer to the operations performed for transferring data to or from a record in the file. The access of a specific file is declared in an OPEN statement (see paragraph 12.2).

For each opened file, there is a pointer. This pointer indicates the file record on which the next data transfer will be performed. After complete transfer of a record, the pointer points to the next record, which allows consecutive record transfer through execution of a program.

This pointer may be modified at each data transfer request (INPUT AT, PRINT. AT) or by a REWIND statement (see paragraph 12.6): this allows the user to transfer data to or from a specific record without reading or writing the file completely. Use of pointer positioning clauses depends of the access in use within the file:

Sequential The positioning requests issued within data transfer statements are ignored. The user may only Rewind the file.

Random Positioning requests within data transfer statements are optional: If not specified, transfers occur sequentially, else, the integer value provided by the request is considered as the position in the file of the record to be accessed. Subsequent accesses without positioning request are performed on the consecutive records. The first record in the file is in position l. REWINDing a random file will cause the next data transfer to occur on record position 1 , unless there is a positioning request issued by the data transfer statement.

Indexed The positioning clause in data transfer statements is compulsory. The value provided by this clause is the index key, and will be searched in the index table. Index key may be any integer value between -32768 and +32767 . If the positioning request clause is omitted, the data transfer will be performed on the record whose index key is 0. A REWIND statement has no effect when issued on a file open for indexed access.

Any of the three file types may be opened for sequential access, while only random files may be open for random access and only indexed files for indexed access.

When a record is not terminated (the previous file access statement was a PRINT and the last delimiter was a comma or a semi-colon), the only statement which will continue the same record is a PRINT without pointer positioning clause. A record may never be continued in an indexed file.


Depending on mode, access and file existence, OPEN performs different operations :



A maximum of five files may be open at the same time. If more files are needed, an opened file must be closed before opening another one.

### 12.3 The file INPUT statement

This statement is used to position the file pointer and accept data from the file.

General form : INPUT \#LU AT key,varl,var2,..., varn
where :
LU
is an expression whose result is translatable to a byte value, representing the logical unit

| number assigned to the file upon which data |
| :--- |
| transfer will be performed. |

key
is an expression translatable to an integer
value which will be used as the index key. The
"AT key" clause is optional. See paragraph
l2.l.2 for details about file pointer
positioning.

An illegal logical unit number causes an error message to be printed and data to be accepted from the console keyboard.

Positioning the file pointer (by the AT clause) with a valid index key always resets the end of file flag.

The end of file flag is set upon statement completion if :

The end of a sequential file has been read.

- A record located beyond the last record of a random file - has been read.
- An index key which is not yet entered in the table (uninitialized record) has been given for the positioning of an indexed file pointer.

After an end of file condition has occured, consecutive read without positioning the file pointer will cause a fatal error.

Care should be taken if reading of a sequential file opened in update mode is needed : the file pointer is at end of file. To read the existing records in file, a REWIND statement (see paragraph 12.6) must occur prior to the first INPUT statement execution.

Data input from an uninitialized random file record is not detected and the data read are unsignificant, since the file is not zero filled at creation time.

Example 12.1: The following program interprets operation codes located in a random file considered as a "virtual memory" (the program which creates the file is not shown). Each record is 40
op-code

1

2

3

4

5
6

7
8
9
bytes long and contains at most two numbers: the first one is the operation code or data, the second one is an optional parameter representing the record number upon which the operation must be performed. Operation codes are defined as follows.
function

Jump to record specified by the parameter.
Load the first number contained in the record pointed by the parameter into the accumulator.
Add to the accumulator the first number contained in the record pointed by the parameter Multiply the accumulator by the first number contained in the record pointed by the parameter.
Store the accumulator content in the record pointed by the parameter. Input a number from the keyboard and store it in the record pointed by the parameter.
Print the first number contained in the record pointed by the parameter. Stop the execution. Test the first number of the record pointed by the parameter: if zero, do not execute the next operation code.

```
10 OPEN #4,"MEMORY",U, RAN \ open virtual memory file
20 PC=] \ initialize program location counter
30 ACC=0 \ reset accumulator
40 INPUT #4 AT PC ,OPCODE,MEM \ fetch op-code & operand
5 0 ~ I F ~ O P C O D E < 1 ~ O R ~ O P C O D E > 9 ~ T H E N ~ 3 9 0 ~ \ ~ i l l e g a l ~ o p - c o d e
60 PC=PC+1 \ point to next program location
70 ON OPCODE GO TO 80,110,140,180,220,250,290,330,350
80 REM -JUMP- OPCODE = 1
90 PC=MEM
100 GO TO 40
110 REM -LOAD ACCUMULATOR- OPCODE = 2
120 INPUT #4 AT MEM ,ACC \ MEM is value address
130 GO TO 40
140 REM -ADD MEMORY TO ACCUMULATOR- OPCODE = 3
150 INPUT #4 AT MEM ,DUMMY
160 ACC=ACC+DUMMY
170 GO TO 40
180 REM -MULTIPLY ACCUMULATOR BY MEMORY- OPCODE = 4
190 INPUT #4 AT MEM ,DUMMY
200 ACC=ACC*DUMMY
210 GO TO 40
220 REM -STORE ACCUMULATOR IN MEMORY- OPCODE = 5
230 PRINT #4 AT MEM ACC
240 GO TO 40
250 REM -INPUT A VALUE AND STORE IN MEMORY- OPCODE = 6
```

```
260 INPUT DUMMY
270 PRINT \#4 AT MEM DUMMY
280 GO TO 40
290 REM -PRINT MEMORY CONTENT- OPCODE \(=7\)
300 INPUT \#4 AT MEM „DUMMY
310 PRINT DUMMY
320 GO TO 40
330 REM -STOP- OPCODE \(=8\)
340 STOP " **** END OF RUN ****"
350 REM -SKIP IF 2ERO- OPCODE \(=9\)
360 INPUT \#4 AT MEM,DUMMY
370 IF DUMMY \(=0\) THEN \(\mathrm{PC}=\mathrm{PC}+1\)
380 GO TO 40
390 REM
400 STOP \(7 * * * *\) ILLEGAL OP CODE ****"
410 END
```

12.4 The end of file test

There are two non-standard forms of test statements used to take special actions upon reading the end of a file. These are :

IF EOF (LU) THEN action WHEN EOF (LU) THEN action
where :
LU is an expression representing the logical unit number on which the file to be tested is open (see paragraph 12.3).
action is a line number or an executable statement which does not include a THEN clause (exceptions : FOR, NEXT). See paragraph 5.11 for a complete description.

The EOF function value is true if the end of file flag of the requested logical unit is set. That means the action will be taken if the end of the file has been encountered or an unknown index key has been used in the last file access.

Immediately after opening a file in input mode, the function result is true if the file does not exist.

In addition, if the last DATA item (see paragraph 5.3) has been read, EOF(0) is true.

```
Example 12.2 :
READY
RUN
00010 REM THIS PROGRAM LISTS ITSELF ON THE CONSOLE,
00020 REM ASSUMING IT IS LOCATED IN A FILE CALLED "PROG",
00030 REM WITH SUFFIX "SA" ON DISK DRIVE 1.
00040 REM
00050 OPEN #10,"PROG:1",I \ OPEN ITSELF, SE QUENTIAL INPUT
00060 A$="" \ INITIALIZE VARIABLES
00070 B$=""
00080 C$=""
00090 INPUT #10 ,A$,B$,C$ \ READ ONE RECORD
00100 IF EOF(10) THEN STOP "END OF FILE" \ EXIT WHEN EOF
00110 PRINT A$;B$;C$ \ NOT EOF, WRITE RECORD TO CONSOLE
00120 GO TO 60 \ GO READ NEXT RECORD
00130 END
STOP END OF FILE
```

READY
Note that this example is the program listing AND the execution too.
Example 12.3:

| 10 | REM PROGRAM TO CONVERT A NUMBER IN ROMAN NUMERALS. |
| :---: | :---: |
| 20 | REM |
| 30 | DATA 1000, "M", 900, "CM", 500 , "D", 400 , "CD" |
| 40 | DATA 100, "C",90, "XC", 50, "L", 40, "XL" |
| 50 | DATA 10,"X",9,"IX", 5 , "V", 4 , "IV" |
| 60 | DATA 1,"I" |
| 70 | REM |
| 80 | INPUT "GIVE ME A NUMBER ( 0 TO STOP ) ",N |
| 90 | REM |
| 100 | IF $\mathrm{N}<=0$ THEN STOP |
| 110 | RESTORE \ rewind data pointer |
| 120 | IF EOF (0) THEN 180 \ if end of data, all done. |
| 130 | READ I,AS \ fetch a test value and roman equivalent |
| 140 | IF I>N THEN 120 \ go fetch next test value if too big |
| 150 | $\mathrm{N}=\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{I} \quad \backslash$ update number by the current test value |
| 160 | PRINT AS; \print the roman equivalent of test value |
| 170 | GO TO 140 \ go see if value can be subtracted again |
| 180 | PRINT $\backslash$ end of roman numeral output |
| 190 | GO TO 80 \ go prompt user on next line |
| 200 | END |

READY
RUN
GIVE ME A NUMBER ( 0 TO STOP ) ? 1979
MCMLXXIX
GIVE ME A NUMBER ( 0 TO STOP ) ?4602
MMMMLCII
GIVE ME A NUMBER ( 0 TO STOP ) ?0
STOP

### 12.5 Output transfer to file via the PRINT statement

To output data to a file, an extension of the PRINT statement is used whose general form is given below:

PRINT \#LU AT key USING format, expl dell ... expn deln

See paragraph 5.5 for the description of expl to expn and dell to deln.
See chapter 6 for the "USING format," optional clause description.
See paragraph 12.3 for the description of $L U$ parameter and for the "AT key" optional clause description.

The effect of this statement is the output of the variable list content to the file opened on logical unit number "LU", at the record numbered "key".

If the file is opened in input mode, a fatal error occurs.

If the positioning clause is not specified or ignored (see paragraph 12.3), the output transfer is made to the currently pointed record. If one record is not sufficient to hold all data output, the remaining data will be stored in the consecutive records (see paragraphs 5.6 and 12.2). Consecutive records in an indexed file are records whose keys are consecutive.

Remember that indexed or random files have fixed length records: If the record is not completely filled with the output data, trailing blanks are added up to the record length (These spaces may appear as data if read back in a string variable by an INPUT statement).

Writing to an unexisting record (or unknown key) extends the data file space (and the index table) automatically.

Care must be exercised when accessing sequentially a non-sequential file: output transfers may completely destroy the file structure and/or the index table.

Example 12.4: A deck of punched cards has been accidentally shuffled! The shuffled card deck image has been put in a sequential disk file by an external program. Providing the cards are numbered from 10 to 20000 by step of 10 in columns 1 to 5 and there is a space in column 6, re-build the original card deck image in
the same file.

| 10 | OPEN \#3,"CARDS" "U ${ }^{\text {U }}$ ( update original file |
| :---: | :---: |
| 20 |  |
| 30 | REWIND \#3 \ update sequential file - read it first |
| 40 | A\$="" \ initialize variables |
| 50 |  |
| 60 | C\$=" " |
| 70 |  |
| 80 | IF EOF (3) THEN 110 \file transferred to work file |
| 90 | PRINT \#25 AT NUMBER A\$;B\$;C\$ \ key is card number |
| 100 | GO TO 40 \ go input next record |
| 110 | REWIND \#3 \ rewrite sequential file |
| 120 | FOR NUMBER=10 TO 20000 STEP 10 |
| 130 | INPUT \#25 AT NUMBER ,A\$,B\$,C\$ \ read work file |
| 140 | IF EOF (25) THEN STOP "CARD MISSING" |
| 150 |  |
| 160 | NEXT NUMBER \ transfer next record |
| 170 | STOP "DONE" \ card deck sorted, exit. |
| 180 | END |

### 12.6 The REWIND statement

This statement is used to position the record pointer of a file at the first record in this file.

General form : REWIND \#LU
See paragraph 12.3 for the description of the LU parameter.

The REWIND statement has no effect when applied to an indexed file.

REWIND \#O is equivalent to the RESTORE statement (See paragraph 5.3).

### 12.7 The CLOSE statement

This statement is used to close a file and release its assigned logical unit number. CLOSE can also be used to provide for file truncation and deletion.

General form : CLOSE \#LU (normal)
CLOSE \#LU,T (truncate)
CLOSE \#LU,D (delete)
See paragraph 12.3 for the description of the LU parameter.

Although this is done implicitly by the STOP and END
statements and by the normal termination process of a BASIC-M program, it is often needed to close a file before terminating a program, for example to open another file or to change the open mode. The CLOSE statement allows it.

The table below summarizes the actions performed on the file for the second and the third form of the close statement. The actions taken depend on the file open mode.

| OPEN MODE | T | D |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SEQ |  |  |
| RAN Input IND | normal file closing norm | file closing |
| IND Output Update | normal file closing | file deleted |
| SEQ Output RAN | normal file closing | file deleted |
| RAN Update | file is truncated after the last referenced record | file deleted |
| SEQ Update | file is truncated after the last referenced record although the file pointer is positioned to the logical end of the file upon file opening | file deleted |

NOTES:

- the "last referenced record" is the higher order record which has been read or written (not the one that chronologically preceded the CLOSE statement).
- CLOSE \#LU,T without any prior reference to the file, deletes the file.

Example 12.5 : To concatenate several files and store in another one (MERGE source files).

```
10 OPEN \#3,"RESULT", O \ create result file
20 DATA "FILE1", "FILE2", "FILE3", "FILE4", "FILE5"
30 IF EOF (0) THEN STOP "DONE" \ no more exist, exit
40 READ A\$ \ fetch a file name
50 OPEN \#4,A\$,I \(\backslash\) open input mode, sequential access
60 IF EOF (4) THEN 140 file not found, open next file
70 A\$="" \(\quad\) initialize variables
80 B\$=""
90 C\$=""
100 INPUT \#4 ,A\$,B\$,C\$ \read a record from source file
110 IF EOF (4) THEN 140 \ end of input file, go open next
120 PRINT \#3 A\$;B\$;C\$ \output record to destination file
130 GO TO \(70 \quad\) go input next record
140 CLOSE \#4 \close current source file
150 GO TO 30 \ go open next input file
160 END
```


### 12.8 Alphanumeric access key

The BASIC-M user will sometimes need to index files with alphanumeric strings: BASIC-M does not provide such a facility since for each application, the user may find a specific and appropriate coding algorithm. However, the following example illustrates the use of an indexed file as a phone directory. The first program must be used to enter or modify records in the file. The second program is executed to consult the phone directory. A hashcoding routine is called before each data transfer with the file to find the numeric access key assigned with the given string.

Example 12.6 : Phone directory

| 10 | INTEGER AKEY, CHAR \ Hashcode routine variables |
| :---: | :---: |
| 20 | GO TO 200 \ skip procedure |
| 30 | DEF HASH (KEY\$,LU) |
| 40 | AKEY=0 \ initialize access key |
| 50 | A\$=KEYS+" " \ 31 chars. |
| 60 | FOR I=1 TO 31 \ use all characters |
| 70 | $\operatorname{CHAR}=\operatorname{ASC}(\operatorname{MID}(\mathrm{A}$ (,I,1)) \ next character code |
| 80 | AKEY $=$ IOR ( ISHFT (AKEY, 3), ISHFT (AKEY, -13)) \ rotate |
| 90 | AKEY $=$ IEOR(AKEY,CHAR) $\$ 3 bit left, 13 right  \hline 100 & NEXT I \ same with next character code  \hline 110 & INPUT \#LU AT AKEY ,B\$ \ read record  \hline 120 & IF EOF (LU) OR (AS=B\$) THEN RETURN  \hline 130 & $A K E Y=A K E Y+1$ \redundant definition, see next record |
| 140 | GO TO ll0 \ loop until found or empty record |
| 150 | REM |
| 160 | REM --MAIN PROGRAM-- |
| 170 | REM |
| 200 |  |
| 210 | INPUT "GIVE NAME AND PHONE NUMBER " $N A M E$, PHONE |
| 220 | IF NAMES="END" THEN STOP \ type END to quit |
| 230 | HASH (NAME\$,4) \ compute numeric access key |
| 240 | PRINT \#4 AT AKEY USING "[31][X][9] "NAMES.PHONE |
| 250 | GO TO 210 \ recorded, go input next name |

```
    10 INTEGER AKEY,CHAR \ Hashcode routine variables
    20 GO TO 200 \ skip procedure
    30 DEF HASH(KEY$,LU) \ same as in creation program
    4 0 ~ A K E Y = 0
    50 A$=KEY$+"
        |
    60 FOR I=1 TO 31
    70 CHAR= ASC( MIDS (AS,I,1))
    80 AKEY= IOR( ISHFT(AKEY, 3), ISHFT (AKEY,-13))
    90 AKEY= IEOR (AKEY,CHAR)
100 NEXT I
110 INPUT #LU AT AKEY ,B$
120 IF EOF (LU) OR (AS=B$) THEN RETURN
130 AKEY=AKEY+1
140 GO TO 110
150 REM
160 REM --MAIN PROGRAM--
170 REM
200 OPEN #4,"PHONE" "I,IND \ open phone directory file
210 INPUT "WHO DO YOU WANT TO PHONE TO ",NAME$
220 IF NAME$="END" THEN STOP \ type END to quit
230 HASH(NAME$,4) \ compute numeric access key
240 IF EOF (4) THEN 300 \ test empty record
250 INPUT #4 AT AKEY ,NAMES,PHONE \ read phone number
260 PRINT TRIM$(NAME$);"'S PHONE NUMBER IS ";PHONE
270 GO TO 210 \ go ask for another name
300 PRINT TRIM$ (NAME$);" IS NOT IN THE PHONE DIRECTORY"
3 1 0 ~ G O ~ T O ~ 2 1 0 ~ \ ~ g o ~ a s k ~ f o r ~ a n o t h e r ~ n a m e
```


### 12.9 Array input/output with disk files

The MAT INPUT (paragraph 9.3) and MAT PRINT (paragraph 9.4) statements may be applied to disk files too. This is discussed in this paragraph.
12.9.1 Input of an array from a file

General form : MAT INPUT \#LU, Arr
where :
LU is the logical unit (See description in paragraph 12.3).
Arr is the name of the array in which the input data will be stored.

This statement is equivalent to the BASIC-M-like sequence :

FOR Cntr $=1$ TO Number_of_rows_in_Arr
 NEXT Cntr

One can notice that positioning the pointer in a file is not possible within this statement. For this reason, arrays may not be properly input from an indexed file, since the absence of index key is interpreted as a zero value key. This means that each row of the array will be read from the zero key record.
12.9.2 Output of an array to a disk file

General form : MAT PRINT \#LU Arr
where :
LU is the logical unit (See description in paragraph 12.3).
Arr is the name of the array to be stored in file.
See paragraph 9.4 for the exact definition of operations.

As for the MAT INPUT statement, the index key cannot be specified; for this reason, a MAT PRINT statement execution on an indexed file will store the first array row in the record of zero value key, and the other rows in the records consecutively numbered.

Example 12.7 : This is a complete program to test the validity of a specific matrix inversion. The user may choose the output device at execution time without modifying the program. The output device may be the console, the line-printer or a disk file. In the latter case, the user is prompted for the output file name.

```
DATA "CN",1,"cn",1,"LP", 2,"lp", 2,"FILE",99,"file",99
    INPUT "GIVE OUTPUT DEVICE (LP, CN OR FILE) ",DEVICE$
    REM Strip leading and trailing blanks
    IF SUBSTR(DEVICES," ")<>1 THEN }7
    DEVICE$= TRIM$( RIGHT$(DEVICES, LEN(DEVICE$)-1))
    GO TO 40
    IF EOF(0) THEN ll0 \ see if legal input
    READ NAME$,LU
    IF NAMES=DEVICES THEN 140 \ if found, exit loop
    GO TO 70
    PRINT "ANSWER CORRECTLY, PLEASE" \ bad input, reask
    RESTORE
    GO TO 20
    IF LU#99 THEN 170 \ if disk, ask for a file name
    INPUT "GIVE FILE NAME PLEASE ",FILE$
    OPEN #LU,FILES,O, SEQ \ create output file
    PRINT #LU USING 190,"MATRIX INVERSION" \ device ok
    PRINT #LU USING 190,"----------------" \ print header
    IMAGE "[78,C]"
    PRINT
    INPUT "MATRIX DIMENSION ",N
```

```
220 IF N>0 AND N<11 THEN 250
230 PRINT "MATRIX DIMENSION ALLOWED BETWEEN 1 AND 10"
240 GO TO 210 \ REASK FOR CORRECT INPUT
250 MAT A= ZER(N,N) \ initialize matrix dimensions
260 PRINT #LU " MATRIX DIMENSION : ";N;"X ";N \ echo DIM
270 PRINT #LU
280 INPUT "GIVE INPUT DATA FILE NAME",DATAS
290 OPEN #100,DATAS,I, SEQ \ open input file
300 IF NOT( EOF(100)) THEN 340 \ file exists, ok
310 PRINT "FILE NOT FOUND"
320 CLOSE #100
3 3 0 \text { GO TO 280 \ reask for file name}
340 MAT INPUT #100 ,A \ input matrix data
350 PRINT #LU "INPUT MATRIX"
360 MAT PRINT #LU A \ echo data on output device
370 MAT B= INV(A) \ invert matrix
380 PRINT #LU "MATRIX INVERSE"
390 MAT PRINT #LU B \ print inverse to output device
400 MAT C=A*B \ multiply: must find identity matrix
410 PRINT #LU " A*B"
4 2 0 ~ G O S U B ~ 4 7 0 ~
430 MAT C=B*A \ identity must be found this way too
440 PRINT #LU " B*A"
4 5 0 ~ G O S U B ~ 4 7 0 ~
4 6 0 ~ S T O P ~ " D O N E " ~
470 MAT PRINT #LU C \ print multiplication result
4 8 0 ~ R M S = 0 ~ \ ~ c o m p u t e ~ a c c u r a c y ~ o f ~ t h e ~ p r e v i o u s ~ c a l c u l a t i o n ~
490 MIN=1.E38
500 MAX=0
510 FOR I=1 TO N \ scan full matrix
520 FOR J=1 TO N
530 E=0 \ compare to identity matrix
540 IF I=J THEN E=1
550 E= ABS (C (I,J)-E)
560 RMS=RMS+ SQ(E)
570 IF MIN>E THEN MIN=E
580 IF MAX<E THEN MAX=E
590 NEXT J
600 NEXT I
610 RMS= SQR(RMS/ SQ(N))
620 PRINT #LU USING 630,"STATISTICS",MIN
630 IMAGE "[23,C][/2]BEST : [2,8,3]"
640 PRINT #LU USING 650,MAX,RMS
650 IMAGE "WORST : [2,8,3][/]RMS : [2,8,3]"
660 PRINT #LU
6 7 0 ~ R E T U R N
680 END
```


## 13. SYSTEM COMMANDS


#### Abstract

This chapter covers the commands used to invoke BASIC-M, create a source program, run it and save it and compile it. There are several system parameters, such as the compiler re-entry point, which are dependent on the implementation; they are hereafter referred to by symbols, rather than their absolute address. The user is requested to carefully read the instructions which are given separately when purchasing BASIC-M, in order to know the absolute values of the system parameters. These are available on a "NEWS" file in the system disk.


### 13.1 Operating Modes

There are two possible modes of operation with BASIC-M.
The first mode is Interpreter Mode, in which new source programs can be created and immediately executed using the RUN command. The interpreter mode can also be used to load an old source program, possibly created by the CRT editor, from disk, and to execute this program with the RUN statement. The prime advantage of Interpreter mode is that it allows the user modify the source and subsequently save this to disk either overwriting the old file or creating a new one. This permits a fast change-tryout-change iteration when writing new software.
Programs to be executed in Interpreter mode are restricted in use of many additional features of BASIC-M such as Interrupt Handling, use of assembly sub-routines, real external addresses, as they may interfere with BASIC-M's operation. Nor can they access the graphic RAM area of the EXORset.
For these programs, the source can be created either using the CRT editor or within BASIC-M, and partially debugged in Interpreter Mode. Then the programs should be compiled by invoking BASIC-M in Compiler Mode (option O), in order to create an object module on disk. The size of these programs can be larger than is possible in Interpreter Mode, as they need not be entirely resident in memory at compile time.

### 13.2 Invoking BASIC-M

The BASIC-M compiler/interpreter is invoked under control of the disk operating system; once this latter has been loaded, the "=" prompt sign is displayed. The operator can then invoke BASIC-M by typing the following command:

$$
=\text { BASICM <name } 1>[,<\text { name } 2>][i<o p t i o n s>]
$$

where :
<name $1>$ is the name of the file to be further executed, possibly after some BASIC-M editing,
<name 2> optionally specifies the name of an output file which is created when BASIC-M is exit.
Both file specifications are in the standard disk-operating system format:

```
<file name> [.<suffix>] [:<logical unit number> ]
```

The default values "SA" and zero are used for the suffix and the logical unit number, respectively, if they are not explicitly entered.

The following options are valid:
If no options are specified BASIC-M operates in Interpreter Mode.

| ! | Autostart, i.e. chain the loading, compilation and execution of an existing source file whose name is <namel>. <br> This option is mutually exclusive with all the other options defined below. After execution of the user program, control is returned to the operating system. |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{O}[=: \mathrm{DRV}]$ | Invoke BASIC-M in the compiler mode. file <namel> must exist. <br> file <name2> must not be specified. <br> In the compiler mode, BASIC-M returns the object code in a file whose name is <namel>, whose suffix is ".LO", and which is constructed in the same drive as the source file <namel>, unless a destination drive number $D R V$ is specified. In this case, the object file and the compiler scratch file are both constructed on this drive. |
| -0 | Invoke BASIC-M in the compiler mode without generation of a user object code file; "-O" is used to get a compilation listing only. |
| S | Produce a compacted object code (see paragraph 13.3.13). |
| M | Output a symbol table to the listing device. |
| -M | Do not output the symbol table. |
| $\mathrm{L}[=\# \mathrm{CN}$ ] | Output compilation listing to console. |
| $\mathrm{T}=$ \#LP | Output compilation listing to printer. |
| L=<name3> | Output compilation listing to the file whose name is <name3>, whose suffix is ".BL". Destination drive defaults to drive 0 . |
| -L | Do not output a compilation listing. Message and error indications, if any, will be displayed on the console. |
| $\mathrm{R}=\mathbf{\$ X X X X}$ | Produce object code to execute in conjunction with |

```
                                    the Runtime package based at address XXXX in the
                                    end user system.
D=$YYYY User Data Section base address.
P=$WWWW User Program Section Origin. WWWW is the load and
                start address of the user object file; this
                information is saved in the object file RIB.
Default options for compiler mode:
-S, M, -L, L=#CN if L only specified
R=$6B00
D=$2000
P=$4000
```

Each record of the input file must be numbered (line numbers are in the range 1 to 65535), and should not contain more than 80 ASCII characters.

If the diskette file <name l> already exists, the input will be taken from it. If <name l> does not already exist, then it will be automatically created, and the user program may be further saved to it upon exit.

The second file name specification can only be used if the file <name l> to be edited already exists on the diskette. The output file is used to receive the user program <name l> after it has been edited and/or run by BASIC-M. When BASIC-M is exit, the output file contains a complete copy of the input file plus any changes that were made to the BASIC-M source program once it was loaded in the workspace buffer. The input file is preserved.

One of the standard operating system error messages will be displayed if the input file <name $1>$ is delete or write protected and <name $2>$ is not specified, or if the output file <name 2> already exists.

The following are examples of BASIC-M valid invocations:
=BASICM DEMO:1 (1)
=BASICM:1 TEST.BS, NEWTEST.BM (2)
A slightly different form makes provision for chaining automatically the loading, compilation and execution of an existing BASIC-M source program. For instance, to execute a program named "DEMO" residing in drive 1 , (l) could be typed in as :
=BASICM DEMO:1;!
Likewise, (2) would be :
=BASICM:1 TEST.BS;!

### 13.3.1 Creating the source program

The BASIC-M source program can be edited either "off-line" under control of the system text editor, or "on-line" under control of the BASIC-M editor. For editing long programs, it is recommended to use the system text editor which provides more facilities than the BASIC-M editor; the user must keep in mind that his source program must be line-numbered. For a complete description of the system editor, refer to the relevant manual.

The BASIC-M editor is line-oriented. It provides for line insertion, deletion or replacement. Again, it is emphasized that all the statement lines must start with a valid line number (in the range 1 to 65535), followed by at least one space character.

If the user wishes to insert a statement between two others, he types a statement number that falls between the other two followed by the statement he wishes to insert. After the statement has been completely entered, the user enters a carriage return to complete the insert.

If the user wishes to delete a statement line, he merely enters the number of the statement followed by a carriage return.

If the user wishes to replace a statement, the number of the statement to be replaced must be typed, followed by the new statement and a carriage return.

When a statement is being typed in, the user may delete the last entered character by hitting the "RUBOUT" (the character just deleted is echoed to the console). The whole statement line may be cancelled by striking the " X " key while holding down the "CTRL" key.

### 13.3.2 Auto line-numbering

The "N" command requests BASIC-M to automatically output line numbers.

N [N1] [,N2]
Where :
-"N1" is the first line number to be prompted. -"N2" is the value to be added to "N1" to form each succeeding line number prompted.

The "N" command initiates the input process in which all data following the command is inserted into the BASIC-M workspace buffer. The two parameters N1 and N2 default to the value 10 . Prompting will continue until a carriage return is entered as first character of a statement.

### 13.3.3 RESEQuence

This command is used to renumber the statement lines of a program.

Syntax : RESEQ [N1]
where :
"N1" is the line number at which to begin resequencing and the increment to be applied to form each subsequent line number within the source program.

Nl defaults to the value 10 .
Prior to actually resequencing, BASIC-M checks that the highest line number resulting from the resequence operation does not exceed the allowable range (65535); if this condition is not met, the message "UNABLE" is displayed to the console.

### 13.3.4 LIST and LIST Erroneous statement lines

The "LIST" command allows the display of all or a portion of the source program.

Syntax : LIST [\#LU] [N1-N2]
where :
-N1 and N2 specify the first and last statement lines respectively, to be listed. -LU specifies the output device.

The list defaults to the entire program to be displayed to the console ( $L U=1$ ); LU should be set equal to 2 in order to direct the printout to the system line printer.

The "CTRL-W" and "CTRL-P" codes can be entered while the program is being listed to suspend, or respectively abort, the list operation. Once the printout has been temporarily suspended with the "CTRL-W" code, it can be resumed by striking any key.

Statements whose syntax is incorrect appear as REM statements, with the error code listed after the REM keyword. The following is an example of the LIST command:

LIST 25-55

```
00027 REM ... INPUT STRING ...
00035 INPUT AS
00043 REM **13** 00043 PRINT A$+B+CHR$(7)
00051 GOTO 35
READY
```

The above listing shows that the statement line 43 has an error whose code is 13. The user still does know where the error resides within the line. To detect the level of the error, he may ? then use the LISTE command which is syntaxically the same as the simple LIST command.

LISTE displays only those statements which have been flagged as syntactically erroneous. A pointer points to the token in error. The following listing would be obtained on the system line printer if the LISTE command was appljed to the previous sample program:

```
READY
LISTE #2 25-55
```



```
00043 REM **13** 00043 PRINT A$+B+CHR$(7)
00001 ERRORS ( B is a numeric variable, and
    therefore cannot be embedded
READY in a literal expression. )
```


### 13.3.5 FLAGON and FLAGOFF

Normally, syntax errors, if any, are not reported until the program is listed with the LIST or LISTE errors. A command exists for the user to be informed immediately of syntax errors, as each statement line is entered. This immediate detection is activated by giving the command "FLAGON", which can be further disabled by entering its counterpart "FLAGOFF" command (default state). An example is presented next:

```
READY
FLAGON
N 27,8
    27 REM ... INPUT STRING ...
    35 INPUT AS
    43 PRINT A$+B+CHR$ (7)
ERROR #13
    5 1
```


### 13.3.6 The DELete command

This command permits the user to delete a block of lines in the program using a single command. A single line can be deleted by entering the line number immediately followed by a carriage return. To delete a block of lines the syntax is as follows:

DEL N1 [-N2]
Where: Nl is the line number of the first statement to be removed N2 is the line number of the last statement to be removed.
13.3.7 The RENAME command

As is implied, this command is used to rename the variables of the source program, if the user so desires. This is a convenience for changing the one- or two-character variable names of a standard BASIC program into more meaningful names.

Syntax : RENAME VAR1 VAR2
where :
VARI stands for an existing variable whose name is to be changed into VAR2.

VAR1 and VAR2 must be of the same type (numeric or string).
VAR2 must not have been used previously in the program.
The substitution is not applied to the names which may be defined in comment lines or in literal constants.

Below is an illustration of this command :

## LIST

```
00010 REM ... INPUT STRING A$ ...
00020 INPUT A$
00030 PRINT A$+B$
00040 GOTO 20
READY
RENAME A$ NEW_NAME$
READY
LIST
00010 REM ... INPUT STRING A$ ...
00020 INPUT NEW NAME$
00030 PRINT NEW_NAME$+B$
00040 GOTO 20
```

13.3.8 Returning to the disk-operating system

Once a session is terminated, the user may return to the disk-operating system by using the "QUIT" command. When this
command is entered, the user is requested whether he wishes to save his source program (to the output file defined by the command line which was entered to invoke BASIC-M) (see 13.1). If the answer is "Y", the program is first dumped to the output file, and the disk-operating system is then re-entered (the prompt "=" is displayed). If the answer is "N", step 2 only occurs. If the answer is not satisfactory, the question "SAVE(Y/N) ?" is issued again.

IMPORTANT NOTE

BECAUSE PROGRAMMING ERRORS MAY CAUSE THE ALTERATION OF THE MEMORY-RESIDENT SOURCE PROGRAM AT EXECUTION TIME, THE USER IS HIGHLY ENCOURAGED TO SAVE HIS SOURCE ONTO A DISKETTE FILE PRIOR TO ISSUING THE "RUN" COMMAND.

### 13.3.9 The RUN command

The execution of a BASIC-M source program is invoked by the "RUN" command, which operates internally in three steps:

1/ If the source program has already been compiled successfully, control is transferred directly to step 3 below.

2/ Otherwise, the source program is first compiled thus producing a position-independent object code.

3/ The object code is executed under control of the run-time package. Execution proceeds until one of the following conditions is met:

```
-the last statement line has been executed.
-a STOP or END statement is encountered.
-a fatal error occurs.
-the operator aborts the execution by entering
the "CTRL-P" code.
```

Either of the above conditions will cause the execution of the object code to terminate and control to be transferred back to BASIC-M. Note also that typing "CTRL-W" causes the execution to be suspended until another keystroke causes it to resume.

If the RUN command is entered again without the source program being modified meanwhile, step 1 of the RUN process depicted above is omitted, and the overall execution will proceed slightly faster.
13.3.10 TRON and TROFF

The TRON command is used to trace a BASIC-M program, with each statement line number being displayed prior to its execution. The TROFF command cancels a TRON request.

### 13.3.11 The PATCH command

The PATCH command is used to exit temporarily from BASIC-M and transfer control to the system monitor. Once in the monitor, BASIC-M may be re-entered by typing the proceed command ";P".

### 13.3.12 The NEW command

The NEW command causes the working storage area in memory and pointers to be reset. The effect of using this command is to erase all traces of the program currently stored in memory in order to start over.

### 13.3.13 The COMPILE command

The COMPILE command allows the user to generate a compiler listing when operating in interpreter mode.

Syntax: COMPILE [<options,>]
Where the possible options are:
"S" request code generation optimization
"M" display symbol table
"L" print the compile address of each line
"R" specify the base address of the runtime package.
"D" specify the base address of the data section.
the effect of these options is discussed next
Option "S" : Normally, each executable statement line compiles into the following:

```
JSR RUN1
FDB statement line number
    :
code reflecting
the statement
    :
```

RUN1 is a subroutine in the runtime package which, in particular, takes care of displaying statement numbers when the trace mode is active, of checking for stack overflow, operator abort or suspend, and of testing conditions associated with the WHEN ... THEN statements.
.The option "S" prevents the compiler from generating the first two lines shown in the above code expansion, thus providing for a saving of 5 bytes per statement line ... and for faster execution. Again, it must be stressed that this option suppresses the

```
following features during program execution:
-line number printing on error.
-WHEN...THEN monitoring.
-stack checks.
-operator's action checks.
-trace.
Therefore, this option should be used
essentially to recompile programs which have
proven error free, and which do not contain
WHEN statements.
Option "M" : Causes the printout of the symbol table which
shows the attribute and location of each
variable / procedure / function defined within
the BASIC-M program.
The following attributes are defined:
-B : byte variable.
-I : integer variable.
-R : real variable.
-S : string variable.
-RF: real user-defined function.
-SF: string user-defined function.
-P : user-defined procedure.
-E : external function/procedure.
In addition, this option also causes the
printout of the data section (RAM) and program
section (ROM) limits of the compiled program.
Example :
10 BYTE Screen (22,80) ADDR $E000
20 INPUT A$
30 DEF SUM (X,Y) =X+Y
40 PRINT USING A$, SUM (3,8)
COMPILE S,M
NO ERROR dimension
Screen ......................E000.... V
A$ ....................S........990C......
SUM ..................RF.....002C......
x ...........................992C......
Y .....................................
DSCT: 990A-9D81
PSCT: 9D82-9ElB
```

Option "L" : To print the absolute compile address of each statement, so that breakpoints can be inserted at the beginning of each line of the program.

Example : compiling the previous program.

```
COMPILE S,L
\(00010 \ldots .9\) D97
00020....9D97
00030 ....9DAE
00040 ...9DD2
```

Option "R" : To specify the absolute base address of the runtime package in the end-user system (the package is position-independent).

Option syntax : R=\$nnnn , where
\$nnnn is the hexadecimal base address of the runtime package.

NOTE : PROGRAMS COMPILED WITH THIS OPTION MUST NOT BE EXECUTED WITH THE "RUN" COMMAND.

Option "D" : To specify the absolute base address of the scratchpad RAM (the one storing the BASIC-M variables and stacks) in the end-user system.

Option syntax : $D=\$ m m m m$, where
\$mmmm is the hexadecimal base address of the scratchpad RAM.

NOTE : THE FIRST 34 BYTES OF MEMORY ( LOC 0 TO \$21) ARE RESERVED.

The following system dependencies are defined. Refer to the attached documents for reading their absolute addresses :

RUN.ST : Run-time package start address.
RUN.EN : Run-time package end address.
BASICM : BASICM warm-start entry point.

### 13.4 Compiler mode

Most of the time, BASICM is used in the interpreter mode because this mode provides the desirable interaction for the operator to quickly write and debug small to medium-sized programs. In this mode, the system memory is shared as follows :

where :
ENDUS is the address of the last location of contiguous RAM The symbol table expands towards 0000 .
I-code is the buffer storing the intermediate source code, that expands towards the symbol table.
RUN.ST and RUN.EN denote the starting and ending address, respectively, of the Runtime package as loaded by the BASICM system command.

As is shown, BASICM allocates storage for object data and object code in the area which lies in between the upper end of the $I$-code buffer and the top of the symbol table. Clearly, as the source program expands and/or as the object data section requires more and more memory space, one may end up in a situation where the memory space left cannot accommodate the object code section. This situation results in the message "NO ROOM" being displayed when attempting to "RUN" the source program. It is then suggested to use BASICM in the compiler mode. In this mode of operations, BASICM will allocate the buffers mentioned above from the location labelled OVERW in the map shown before. This extends the available space for the compiler by 12 K bytes approximately. Since most of the Runtime package is overwritten in this mode, the execution of the object program cannot be directly envoked. The user will have to merge the produced object code and the runtime package prior to loading and executing the resulting module. Note that the environment parameters (DSCT address and Runtime origin) must be specified when compiling the source program.

The Compiler Mode is activated by envoking BASIC-M with the
following command line :
$=$ BASICM <name>;O[=:DRV][S][M][L][R=\$xXXX][,D=\$xxXx][,P=\$xXxX]
where :
<name> is the name of the input file to be compiled, and conforms to the file specifications set in section 13.1. "O" (standing for object output) is the option activating the compiler mode. Refer to section 13.2 for a description of the other options.

The following is an example:
$=$ BASICM SAMPLE: $1 ; O S M L R=\$ 8400, D=\$ 100, \mathrm{P}=\$ 3000$
BASIC-M INTERACTIVE COMPILER
COPYRIGHT BY MOTOROLA 1979
EXORset release 3.00

PAGE 01 SAMPLE .SA:1
00010 INPUT $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}$
00020 PRINT A+B
00030 IF $A=0$ THEN STOP
00040 GOTO 10

A ................... $R . . . . . . . . .0100 . . .$.

DSCT: 0100-0555 PSCT: 3000-3085
RUNTIME BASE : 8400
END OF COMPILAATION

The user program SAMPLE.LO will execute when loaded with the runtime package of BASIC-M. The BLOAD utility can be used to load the user module together with the runtime package, or to merge them into one file that can be later downloaded into a target system.
Note that for programs to execute in the EXORset under XDOS, the data section, program section and runtime package must be located above $\$ 2000$. Otherwise they will overwrite XDOS.

### 13.5 The BLOAD Utility

The BLOAD utility is available with BASIC-M as a.CM file on the the system diskette. Its function is to merge a user module or modules with the runtime package and either create a disk file or load the module into memory for immediate execution. BASIC-M must be resident in drive 0 during the operation of BLOAD.

Syntax: BLOAD <name $1>[$, <name 2>, ... , <name n>] [; <options>]

Where: <name l> is the name of a user code file generated by the BASIC-M Compiler.
<name $2>$, .... <name $n>$ are the names of object files to be loaded/merged with <name $1>$ and the Runtime package. These can be assembly-language written or BASJ.C-M written routines.
<options> are as follows:

| Option | Default | Function |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{O}[=<$ concat $>$ ] | -0 | Merge all files <name $j>\quad(j=1$ to $n)$ and the Runtime package in to a single object file <concat>. <concat> defaults to file <name l> with "CM" as suffix. |
| G | -G | Load all files <name $j>(j=1$ to $n$ ) and the Runtime package, and execute program from origin of <name l>. |
| $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{L}}=\mathbf{\$} \mathbf{X X X X}$ | $\mathrm{L}=\$ 0020$ | Patch the first 2 bytes of the Runtime package with the value XXXX which |
|  |  | represents the address of DCST LINK where the Runtime memorizes the origin of the user data section. |
| R |  | Extract the Runtime package from the |
|  |  | BASIC-M file on drive 0 and load it in |
|  |  | memory at the address implied by the |
|  |  | user object file <name l>. <br> "R" implied if option "G" is selected. |
|  |  | If option "O" is selected and "G" is not |
|  |  | the Runtime is not loaded/merged. |
| M | M | Include matrix operations in Runtime. |
| D | D | Include disk operation in Runtime. |
|  |  | The combination "-MD" is not allowed. |

## Notes:

If niether option "O" nor option "G" are selected, the object files and the Runtime package are loaded into memory and control is passed to the debug monitor.

Object files may be loaded over the disk operating systyem and/or the BLOAD command provided that option "O" is selected.

As the Runtime package is extracted from the BASIC-M compiler during the load / merge process, BLOAD expects to find the file "BASICM.CM" on drive 0. As a result, make sure that this file is available on drive, and furthermore never rename BASIC-M.

Example:
The following is an example of creating a disk command (suffix "CM")。

Example problem: The STOP statement causes the system monitor to be reentered if the program is run on the EXORset, while control is transferred to MDOS if the program is run on the EXORciser. If the Exorset user desires to return to the XDOS operating system, he can program a procedure to do this. A possible solution is shown below:

```
=BASICM DOS:1;OLMS
BASIC-M INTERACTIVE COMPILER
    COPYRIGHT BY MOTOROLA 1979
        EXORset release 3.00
```



Rentering the operating system as shown above does not cause the open files to be closed; therefore, if files have been opened by the BASIC-M program, the user should provide the necessary statements to get them closed.

NOTE: BASIC-M programs with system calls must not use the first 8 K bytes of memory.

BASIC-M programs with disk $I / O$ imply that the operating system be loaded in memory
14. PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS
14.1 Requirements

The disk-version of BASIC-M runs on the EXORciser / EXORterm, or EXORset development tools equipped with a minimum of 48 kilobytes of RAM. The supported disk-operating system (MDOS or XDOS) is used for loading and saving the source programs, and for exchanging data with the diskettes when the BASIC-M programs contain disk input/output statements.

The Compiler / Interpreter and the runtime package occupy about 14 K bytes of RAM each. The runtime package is ROM-able and position-independent.

### 14.2 Space estimates

As the ASCII source program is entered, BASIC-M takes each incoming line and processes it to an intermediate code which takes less memory than the original program and allows for a faster compilation. In this intermediate code, in particular, variable or function/procedure names are coded as pointers to a symbol table, line numbers and hexadecimal constants as l6-bit words, and each keyword as an 8-bit code. Hence, the following hints:
-feel free to use readable names.
-keep the number of comments and their length to a minimum (comments are reproduced "as-is" in the intermediate code).
-whenever possible, use hexadecimal constants.
-if a constant appears several times in the program, equate it to a variable and use this variable name to reference it.

When the RUN or BASICM;O commands are entered, the intermediate code is translated into the final object code, and memory is allocated to the variables. In order to minimize the size of the program (object code) and data sections (scratchpad), the following simple rules should be observed:
-do not omit to dimension arrays prior to referencing their elements with subscripted variable names.
-do not use real variables where byte or integer variables could be used.
-avoid mixed-mode expressions.
-compile the source program with the "S" option, whenever possible (refer to paragraph 13.11).

The compiled code uses approximately $1 / 3$ to $1 / 2$ as many bytes as the source text; this value is an estimate only and may vary in either direction from program to program.

```
14.3 Speed estimates
```

Herebelow are some execution times of a few runtime routines:


The following sample programs and results give more significant figures as far as speed is concerned.

Benchmark BKI

10 FOR $K=1$ TO 10
20 NEXT K
a/ Program compiled without option "S" $1.8 \mathrm{~ms} /$ loop
b/ Program compiled with option "S"
$1.67 \mathrm{~ms} / \mathrm{loop}$
c/ Program modified to declare $K$ as an integer, and to code the constant 10 as an hex constant (\$A). $0.16 \mathrm{~ms} / \mathrm{loop}$

Benchmark BK2
$10 \quad K=0$
$20 \mathrm{~K}=\mathrm{K}+1$
30 IF K<10 THEN 20
40 STOP
a/ same as a/ in BKl
$2 \mathrm{~ms} / \mathrm{pass}$
b/ same as b/ in BKl
$1.73 \mathrm{~ms} /$ pass
c/ same as c/ in BKI
$0.4 \mathrm{~ms} / \mathrm{pass}$
Benchmark BK3
$10 \quad \mathrm{~K}=0$
$20 \mathrm{~K}=\mathrm{K}+1$
$30 \quad A=K / K * K+K-K$
40 IF $\mathrm{K}<10$ THEN 20
a/ Program compiled without option "S"
$6.8 \mathrm{~ms} / \mathrm{pass}$
b/ Program modified to declare $K$ and $A$
as integer variables, and to code 10 as an hex constant. Option "S" is used. $1.8 \mathrm{~ms} / \mathrm{pass}$

Benchmark BK4

```
-
```

300 PRINT "START"
$400 \mathrm{~K}=0$
430 DIM M(5)
$500 \mathrm{~K}=\mathrm{K}+1$
$510 \mathrm{~A}=\mathrm{K} / 2 * 3+4-5$
520 GOSUB 820
530 FOR L=1 TO 5
$535 \quad \mathrm{M}(\mathrm{L})=\mathrm{A}$
540 NEXT L
600 IF $K<1000$ THEN 500
700 PRINT "END"
800 END
820 RETURN
a/ Program compiled without option "S"
20.8 sec
b/ Program compiled with option "S"
18.9 sec

## A. ASCII Character Set



## APPENDIX

## B. Syntax Error Messages

Invalid logical expression in an IF or WHEN statement Missing THEN in an IF or WHEN statement THEN must be followed by an executable statement Uncomplete bit selector (missing "]") Illegal procedure name or bit selector not followed by $"="$ Equal sign expected

Illegal branch statement
GOTO or GOSUB not followed by a valid line number
CALL is not followed by a valid procedure name Missing ")" in an argument list, selector or array size Illegal arithmetic expression

Missing ")" in an arithmetic expression
Illegal literal expression
Missing or invalid argument list in a POKE statement
Invalid unsigned integer constant
Invalid exponent
Filename must be a string variable or constant
Invalid variable name in a DIM statement
Illegal or unspecified array size in a DIM statement
Illegal ADDRESS clause in a DIM or EXTERNAL statement
Illegal variable name in a BYTE or INTEGER statement (string variable names not allowed)

Missing address specification in an EXTERNAL statement
Illegal operands in a READ statement No separator, or expression or illegal variable name

Illegal operands in a DATA statement
Operand is neither numeric, nor hexadecimal, nor string
Missing "\#" in an OPEN, CLOSE or REWIND statement
Missing comma in an OPEN statement
Undefined data transfer mode in an OPEN statement Neither $I_{\text {, }}$ nor $O$, nor U.

Illegal file access
Neither SEQ, nor IND, nor RAN
"=" required in a LINE or DIGITS statement
Illegal index name in a FOR or NEXT statement
Index not followed by "=" in a FOR statement
Missing TO in a FOR statement
Invalid NEVER or ON statement
Invalid line numbers list in an ON ..GOTO statement
IMAGE not followed by a format string
Illegal variable or procedure name
Missing parentheses in a logical expression
Invalid file number in an EOF function
Invalid relational operator
Illegal or missing separator in an INPUT statement
Invalid key
No argument list following the TAB keyword, or Expression not enclosed between parentheses in a matrix scalar operation

Invalid operand in a MAT READ, INPUT or PRINT statement Expressions are not allowed

Missing comma in a MAT INPUT or MAT PRINT statement
Missing "=" in a matrix assignment statement
expression not enclosed in [ ] in a MAT SET statement
Missing argument in a MAT INV or MAT TRN statement
Illegal character scanned
Illegal statement
Statement too long

## C. Compilation Error Messages

variable is redefined.
forward reference
first dimension is null or overflows
two dimensions specified while first one exceeds 255
second dimension is null or overflows
second dimension exceeds 255
more than 64 K are spanned
function redefined
DATA statement operand is not a constant
signed hexadecimal constant
constant overflows
exponentiation requires that one of the operands be real
invalid dimensioned variable or undefined user-function or procedure
bit reference does not apply to a BYTE or INTEGER variable attempt to invert or transpose a simple variable
illegal call of a user-defined procedure / function
implicit redimensioning of a variable
variable not recognized during previous pass
user function is defined forwards
expression used as argument in the "LOC" function
too many arguments in a built-in function
built-in function does not support argument
missing argument in a built-in function

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TAB is used in a "PRINT USING" statement
Too many nested "FOR-NEXT" loops (21 max.)
Nested "FOR-NEXT" loops with same variable used as index
Imbricated "FOR-NEXT" loops
Illegal THEN clause in a "WHEN ... THEN" statement
Illegal THEN clause in a "ON IRQ, FIRQ, NMI, ERROR or KEY statement

Illegal operation ( matrix division )
Record length too large in an OPEN statement

## D. Runtime Error Messages

| 0 | no error |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1 | integer division by 0 |
| 2 | byte division by 0 |
| 3 | conversion overflow |
| 4 | floating-point operation overflow |
| 5 | SIN / COS overflow |
| 6 | SQR overflow |
| 7 | ExP overflow |
| 8 | exponentiation (power) overflow |
| 9 | LOG / DCLOG overflow |
| 10 | ASN / ACS overflow |
| 11 | Illegal image |
| 12 | string to numeric conversion error |
| 13 | computed GOTO / GOSUB index out of range |
| 14 | Function key index out of range |
| 15 | invalid output logical unit |
| 16 | invalid input logical unit |
| 17 | illegal input data |
| 18 | attempt to read past end-of-data (READ statement) |
| 19 | array bounds overflow |
| 20 | illegal bit number |
| 21 | not enough arguments in calling sequence |
| 22 | modulus overflow |
| 23 | dynamic array bounds setting error |

```
illegal array (MAT IDN)
illegal array (MAT INV)
attempt to inverse a (almost) singular matrix
dimension number error (matrix copy)
conversion error or overflow in matrix operation
illegal array (scalar operation)
illegal array (matrix add / subtract)
illegal array (matrix transpose)
illegal array (matrix multiplication)
hyperbolic function overflow
illegal logical unit in an end-of-file test
```

FATAL, RUNTIME ERRORS

stack overflow
spurious IRO
spurious NMI
spurious FIRQ
return from main program
no disk or operating system not functional
illegal or already opened logical unit
attempt to open too many logical units at
the same time
illegal file name (OPEN)
no such device
device already reserved
device not reserved
device not ready
invalid device
duplicate file name

| 144 | file name not found |
| :--- | :--- |
| 145 | invalid open/closed flag |
| 146 | end-of-file |
| 147 | invalid file type |
| 148 | invalid data transfer type |
| 149 | end of media |
| 150 | buffer overflow |
| 151 | checksum error |
| 152 | file is write protected |
| 153 | logical sector number out of range |
| 154 | no disk file space available |
| 155 | no directory space available |
| 156 | no segment descriptor space available |
| 157 | invalid directory entry number |
| 158 | sector buffer size error |
| 166 | invalid retrieval information block |
| 169 | cannot deallocate all space |
| 160 | binary record length too large |
| 163 | inved |

```
                    APPENDIX
E. Summary of BASIC-M Statements and Functions
E.l Declaration statements
BYTE
INTEGER
DIM
EXTERNAL
DEF
E.2 Input/output statements
INPUT
PRINT
PRINT USING
IMAGE
DATA
READ
RESTORE
OPEN
CLOSE
REWIND
E.3 Control statements
IF ...... THEN
WHEN .... THEN
GO TO
GOTO
GOSUB
ON ....... GOTO
ON ....... GOSUB
CALL
RETURN
FOR .. TO .. STEP
NEXT
ON KEY ..THEN
ON NMI THEN
ON IRQ THEN
ON FIRQ THEN
NEVER KEY
NEVER NMI
NEVER IRQ
NEVER FIRQ
NEVER WHEN
STOP
PAUSE
```

```
E.4 Matrix statements
MAT INPUT
MAT READ
MAT PRINT
MAT V1 = V2 {+, -,*} V3
MAT V1 = V2 {+, -,*,/} ( exp )
MAT V1 = ZER
MAT Vl = IDN
MAT Vl = TRN
MAT Vl = INV
MAT V1 = CON
MAT V1 = SET [ ]
E.5 Miscellaneous statements
POKE
LINE =
DIGITS =
REM
E.6 Built-in functions
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
& & \\
SIN & ASN & SINH \\
COS & ACS COSH & \\
TAN & ATN & COTH \\
& & \\
EXP & LOG & DCLOG \\
SQ & SQR & \\
ABS & SGN & \\
INT & MOD & \\
FIX & FLOAT & \\
RND & &
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
IAND & IOR & IEOR & ISHFT \\
LEN & LEFT\$ & RIGHT\$ & MID\$ \\
TRIMS & ASC & CHRS & STR\$ \\
VAL & SUBSTR & & \\
& & & \\
PEEK & LOC & TAB & POS \\
ERR & FKEY & EOF &
\end{tabular}
```


# CHAINING THE EXECUTION OF DISK RESIDENT BASIC-M PROGRAM OVERLAYS 

Prepared by<br>Herve Tireford<br>and<br>Patrick Monnerat


#### Abstract

The BASIC-M repertory of statements does not make provision for a CHAIN instruction as do a few other BASIC interpreters. This note describes a simple method to implement this function thanks to the XDOS system call .COMND. As this system call is available in the XDOS Disk Operating System only, the following description applies to the EXORset BASIC-M interactive compiler.


## GENERAL

The general idea behind a CHAIN statement is to partition a large BASIC-M program to run in a disk environment into several modules (or overlays) to be subsequently loaded and executed when needed. This technique, although resulting in some speed degradation due to the overlay loading, is primarly intended to minimize the memory requirements, as there is only one overlay loaded in memory at execution time.

## OVERLAYS

Overlays are separately compiled BASIC-M programs. The first overlay loaded in memory must include the BASIC-M Runtime package, if not resident in ROM. The subsequent overlays, however, need not include the Runtime, and therefore consist of the user code only, provided they were compiled with the " $R$ " option specifying the same Runtime start address as the first overlay.

## DATA PRESERVATION

Data (variables) which are to be shared by the overlays must be defined in a common memory area; this is usually done by declaring the variables with an address assignment specification (ADDRESS clause). This type of variables is not initialized by the Runtime package, so no assumption must be made as to their initial value. In addition, for XDOS 3.0, the common variables area must not start below $\$ 2200$ when using the method described. For XDOS 4.0, the lowest origin for the common variables is $\$ 2400$.

An alternate solution for passing variables from one overlay to another is to save them in a disk file on completion of the current overlay and to retrieve them on execution of the next overlay.
When establishing a program memory map, take into account that 60 bytes following the last memory address loaded are used during the overlay load process, and the last 200 bytes at the top of available RAM are used by XDOS.

## CHAIN PRINCIPLE

Upon termination of the current overlay, an external procedure CHAIN is initiated; actually, this procedure consists in initializing the MC6809 X-register to point to a buffer containing the name of the next overlay to load/execute, prior to executing the XDOS system call .COMND. As a result, and instead of re-entering the XDOS command interpreter, the overlay whose name is stored in the buffer pointed to by the X-register will be loaded and brought to execution. The reader is encouraged to refer to the XDOS User's Guide (paragraph 20.5.6) for the complete description of the .COMND System Call.
The user-supplied CHAIN procedure consists of the following:

|  | instruction |  | code |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| CHAIN | LDX | \#BUFFER | 8E XX XX |
|  | SCALL | .COMND | 3 3 40 |

It may be defined in an assembly language module; due to its short size, however, it can be more easily
supplied as part of the BASIC-M program as shown below:

| $000 \% 0$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $000 \% 0$ |  |  |
| 00030 |  | \1..DX M: |
| 00040 |  |  |
| $000 \% 0$ |  |  |
| 00060 |  | - SWTI |
| 00070 |  | - Cominl. |
|  | : |  |
|  | ! |  |
| 00900 |  | :merrer for Crman |
| 0000 | OHAXN |  |

The sample program shown in the appendix uses another method for supplying the CHAIN procedure code from the BASIC-M program, based on the DATA and MAT READ statements. Whichever method is used, the user is cautioned that the X -register is to point to the first ASCII character of the buffer, whose address is given by the function $\operatorname{LOC}(\mathbf{C} \$)+1$. In effect, it should be remembered that the first byte of a string C\$ (the one at address LOC(C\$)) actually contains the string length, and not the first ASCII character of the string!
The BASIC-M program above equates the CHAIN procedure with the 5 -byte table CALLOV(5) (lines 10 and 20); in other words, when control is transferred to the CHAIN procedure, the MPU actually begins to execute the sequence of code contained in this table. This code is stored in the table during execution of lines 30 thru 70 . Lines 40 and 50 store the most significant and least significant, respectively, byte of the address +1 of the buffer $\mathrm{C} \$$ in the second and third location of the table CALLOV. Line 500 merely initializes the command buffer $\mathrm{C} \$$ with the name of the overlay to execute next, terminated by carriage return. Of course, this implies that a file OVJ.LO be found in the disk directory at execution time. Should this file not be found, the message "WHAT ?" will be displayed.

## EXAMPLE

The appendix illustrates the method just described. A BASIC-M program has been partitioned in three source overlays OV0, OV1, and OV2, all starting at the same address $\$ 3000$, and all using the same data sec-
tion based at $\$ 2500$. They all assume that the runtime originates at $\$ 6500$. In this example, the sole variable common to the three overlays is a vector $A(5)$ which is based at $\$ 2200$ (lowest address for a common section).
.OV0 is the first overlay; it reads in 5 numeric values from the keyboard and stores them in the vector A(5). It also requests a string variable DOS which may assume the value "SIN" or the value "COS"; depending on DO\$, OV0 will invoke either OVSIN. LO (the object file corresponding to the source overlay OV1) or OVCOS.LO (the object file corresponding to the source overlay OV2).
.OVSIN.LO stores in a disk file names RESULT each element of A(5) and its sine value.
.OVCOS.LO stores in RESULT each element of A(5) and its cosine value.
.OVSIN.LO and OVCOS.LO each chains the execution of the XDOS LIST command to list the file RESULT they constructed. This implies that the LIST command be available on the disk in drive 0 . On completion of LIST, XDOS is re-entered.
The listing in the appendix shows the different steps to be followed. Note the use of the compiler-mode (option " O " is specified when invoking BASIC-M) to return the user-code directly to the disk. Also note that OV1.LO and OV2.LO are renamed OVSIN.LO and OVCOS.LO, respectively, to be compatible with the names of the overlays which can be called from the first overlay OVO.LO.

## APPENDIX

:::
:H:ASTCM OU0\%O

```
            EAsTC....M "% 0%
```


F:MDY
1...®T
00010 EYTE: CAl.....OU(:G)

00030 DIM Cls (I) ADDF


00060 FK: K




00110 C.:


001.40 CHAXN

Fil: AD
COMFTIN: M, F:
NO EFFOFO


C旃....................................................
A....................................................

DSCT: 2000… \%90
F6Cr: 6098-6F21
Fif:ADY
(2uTr



```
#:%TWin OUJ%O
```




FEADY
$1 . .5 \mathrm{sr}$
00010 EYTE：CMALOU（：B）
$000 \% 0$ シ＂



00060 FEMM
00070 DXM A（：A）ADF $\$ 2 \times 00$
00080 सЕ：М

00100 以゙：WNNO
00110 FOK
$001 \% 0$ FWNT：

001.40 NE：XT X


00170 C．
00180 以ल

Fil：my

NO FFFOR







FEADY
QuTy



# PARTITIONING A BASIC-M SOURCE PROGRAM 

Prepared by<br>Herve Tireford<br>and<br>Patrick Monnerat


#### Abstract

BASIC-M source programs may be such that their size or memory requirements render their compilation impossible due to the BASIC-M compiler design approach which assumes the source be wholly memory-resident at the time compilation is initiated. There are several methods which can be used separately or jointly to overcome this problem: use of the compiler-mode, use of the compiler "S" option to minimize the object code requirements, assignment of the Data Section, coding of constants as hexadecimal values, definition of integer or byte variables whenever possible, partitioning of the source into several modules to be compiled separately and chained at execution using the XDOS SCALL .CMND, . . . etc. This note describes how to partition the source into several modules which are compiled separately, and which may reside in ROMs in the final environment. It outlines the user-program design constraints, and illustrates the assembly routine used to call one module from another. We are restricting this study to a two-object module partition.


## COMPILER CODE GENERATION

The following code is generated by the BASIC-M compiler at the beginning of each object program:

| Sramt | C. Cl FiA |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $1.15 \%$ | \#STMck | Stiact wointer anci catas sertiom |
|  | USF | XNX:Y |  |
|  | PCO | ハUVFFFi/ |  |
|  | FIDE: | Dsem |  |
|  | F T De: | F-SFECMST | ART Offset to mtatemert come |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | FCE: | 0 |  |
| FOEEC: | E:COU | * | Eess rruires of statemerot come |

## PARTITIONING THE SOURCE <br> PROGRAM

Let's assume that the source needs to be partitioned in two modules, hereafter referred to as M1, and M2. M1 is the main module, i.e., it contains the object code to which control is transferred first. The following rules apply:

1. M2 must be written as a subroutine and therefore must terminate with a RETURN statement, unless control is not given back to M1.
2. The variables local to M1 and those local to M2 must reside in two distinct data sections, the origins of which are specified in the COMPILE command. Of course, the user must insure that the two data sections do not overlap. To that end, it is recommended to compile M1 first, and then to deduce the origin of the data section for M2 from the highest data section address of M1 as reflected in the symbol table issued on completion of the compilation of M1.
3. The global variables, i.e., those common to M1 and M2, must be explicitly defined in each module by a declaration statement to assign the variable absolute address (ADDRESS clause). It should be emphasized that such variables will not be initialized by the runtime package, therefore no assumption must be made as to their initial value.
4. All the DATA statements must reside in M1.
5. In order to obtain an accurate indication of error in the event one occurs, it is recommended (but not mandatory) that line numbers in M1 be distinct from line numbers in M2.
6. M1 statements cannot transfer control to a specific statement in M2, and vice-versa. It is only possible to call a secondary module (M2) from another module.
7. M1 cannot call user-written functions/procedures defined in M2, nor can M2 call functions/procedures defined in M1.
8. In order to transfer control to M2 from M1, an external assembly procedure, hereafter referred to as "CALLM2", needs to be declared in M1, and further activated when desired.
9. Statements which may implicitly transfer control from one module to the other must be deactivated prior to entering a given module and reactivated upon return from the called module. Those statements include:

.WHEN ... THEN<br>.ON ERROR THEN<br>.ON NMI (IRQ, FIRQ) THEN<br>.ON KEY ... THEN

## ASSEMBLY CONTRROL

## ROUTINE "CALLM2"

This subroutine is listed in Figure 1. It supports a real or integer argument which dictates whether the data section of module $M 2$ must be cleared or not upon entry in M2. Note that on the first call to CALLM2 one must specify no argument or an argument equal to zero so as to initialize the data section of M2. Not doing so may preclude the normal recognition of execution errors. Further calls to M2 may specify an argument different from zero if the user desires to preserve the data of M2 as set up by the previous call.

## EXAMPLE

The appendix contains a sample program to illustrate the procedures and rules described. A BASIC-M program has been split in two modules M1 and M2. M1 is intended to generate 100 random numbers in a vector $\mathrm{A}(100)$. M2 is aimed at printing a subrange of the same vector $A$ between two subscripts $K$ and $L$ to be input at execution time. The example assumes that the BASIC-M runtime package starts at $\$ 6500$. The MERGE command concatenates the object modules CALLM2 (org \$2000), M1 (org \$2200), and M2 (org $\$ 2800$ ) into the final user code OBJECT, and forces the M1 origin as start address.



CHECK TFF ARCIMENT
NO AROUMENT OIEAR DSCT. ARCUMENT=0?

NO. DO NOT CLEAB DATA SEUTMON


\#STAFT\%
$9 Y$
1.3
$-$
$\stackrel{\times}{ \pm}$
$3, \times$
WRMAD. EFAMAD $]$ $14 \% \times$
E

：＂：

## APPPENDIX

FलST．．．．＂


```
F%:ADY
1..%s%
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 00010 & FF：M & ．．．．．．．．．．．．．．． & \multicolumn{8}{|l|}{MOD）UNI．．E：MI} \\
\hline \(000 \% 0\) & Fil：M & &  & AT & \(13 \% 00\) & жжж & В¢CT & MASED & A & \＄600 \\
\hline 00030 & W：E：M & & & & & & & & & \\
\hline 00040 & FWM & & OE：N： & 00 & KMNMOM & VAI．．． & ： & AFFI & & （1．00） \\
\hline \(000 \% 0\) & FEM & & \multicolumn{8}{|l|}{\multirow[t]{2}{*}{}} \\
\hline 00060 & Fl：M & & & & & & & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
000%0 F゙ド:MM ..............
```




```
00100 FEEM ........... COMMON SFCTXON EASED AT $100
```



```
00N%0 DTM A(N00) ADDF 报ON%
00130 FF!:M .............
```




```
00160 FOW X=: J. TO 100
001.70 A(T):= |゙ND)
001.80 N:"X'r X
```





```
00%%0 F%NNT M1:SO%
00%%0 F%:STONE:
00240 6oro 160
以以:%%Y
```



```
NO) NFFOF
```



```
F=&%\mp@code{............................0100.......}
```



```
X......................隹......060%登.....
M1:.6%方............................060%......
WST: 0600\cdots0mb< ... So let's start M2 DSCT at $B00.
FGCT: 6EDDM...7048
BE:MOY
(3UXYT
```




```
:":
```

```
#%%s%M OU%%O
```

EASTC....m $2,0 \%$
COFYFTBMT HY MOTOROIA, XNO - $1.97 \%$

```
FEE:ADY
1..TS%
00010 EYTE: CAM1..OW(:5)
```





```
000%0 MAT F!:ADD CAL.....NU
00060 F゙V:MM
```



```
00080 RE:MM
```



```
001.00 FF!:WXTN|: ##3
00110 FFOF゙ T=% TO %
```




```
001.40 N::XT %.
```



```
00160 Cl.os%: :#3
```



```
00.80 EMNTN
FE::ADY
```



```
NO EFWOF
```









```
FEEADY
QuTx
```




```
#:NAM位 OUI.LOO%OUSXN.LO
NMME:OW%&%yOWOS..."
##:GTCM DUMMY
```

    EASXC…M \({ }^{3}-02\)
    COYFXBMT EY MOTOWIA, X.NC. 1.979

FI:ADY
(2UTTY
SMUE (Y/N) PN load/execute first overlay

enter SIN or COS: ? TAN
erber STN or COS: ? COS
CAIITING OVEFFI...AY . . ONCOS. I...
(What follows is the result of the execution of the "LIST RESULT" command invoked from OVCOS.LO)

FACE: 00: FE:SUIITT - SA: 0

| A( A$)=$ | 3.1 .41 .69 | Cos (A)(x) ) = | 0.9999999 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A(T) $=$ : | 1. 0.17000 | Cos (A(x) ) =: | 0.0007963 |
| A( X ( ) : $=$ | 0.00000 | $\operatorname{COS}(\mathrm{A}(\mathrm{x}) \mathrm{O}=$ | 0.9999999 |
| A(x) $=:$ | 1. .00000 | $\cos ($ A (x) ) $=:$ | 0.50403023 |
| $A(X)=$ | 2.00000 | $\cos (A)(X))=$ | $\cdots-0.4161 .468$ |
| (END) Ol: | FTIEERFO |  |  |

EASxC…ल $2 ?$


```
BEADY
1..%@T
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 01000 & Filew & \\
\hline 01010 &  & DSCT E:ASE:D AT \#E:00 \\
\hline 01020 & RE:M M .............. & \\
\hline 01030 &  & OF: Afrixay A(100) \\
\hline 01040 &  & \\
\hline 01030 &  & \\
\hline 01060 & DTM A(100) Ablye & \\
\hline 01070 & File:M ............. & \\
\hline 01080 & F-W:M) M M & \\
\hline 0.1090 & FFEXNT ME & \\
\hline 011100 &  & \\
\hline 0.11 .10 &  & \\
\hline 0.1200 &  & \\
\hline 0.11 .30 & XF K... TH:N \(11 \geq 0\) & \\
\hline 011.40 & W\%\% & \\
\hline 0.11 .50 &  & \\
\hline 0.11 .60 &  & \\
\hline 0.1170 & FE: TuFen & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
F:E:MDY
```



```
NO EFFOM
```



```
DSCT: 0E:00-(0):EO
```



```
FH::M|Y
QuTY%
```




```
:":
```



```
:WESSXCM DUMMMY
```




```
    This is just for loading the Runtime at $6500
FBE:=10.)Y
MuxY
SAUE: (Y/N) ?N
```




```
THXS XS F'ASS ## I
BUNFMNGE:K AND L...:% % 4
%) 9.1.%%83%%%3%-0%%
3 6.4088730 JE:-04
```



```
WI:: AFFE:= NOW EACHK INN M.
W:: mfit:: NOW ITN M%
TMKS IKs F"ASS |l:"
SUEFKNNGI:. K AND) 1.. % ? 9% 1.0%
9% 0.67471.08833
100 0.8966%4964%%
*** EFFFOF: #1.9 AT L..NNE: 1.1.:0 (index out of range)
1.0.1 --41.:31.162.%.E
W:: AFI:: NOW E:ACMK TIN MJ
WE: AlF:: NOW XN M%
THXS xS F'AsG:#
GU:HFANGE:E KNND L..: ? 1. 0
```



```
3.. 0.93233404%
WI:: ARIE: NOW EACKK XN MI
WE: MFFE: NOW XIN M%
TMxS XS F'AsS ## 4
GUEM&NGIE K AND L.E:?
```



```
(CTRL-P was typed)
```

```
                        APPENDIX H
                        ----------
SUPPLEMENTARY MANUAL
KERNEL REQUIREMENTS
```


### 1.1. INTRODUCTION

This manual is a supplement to the M6809 BASIC-M User"s Guide; it discusses the requirements for a user-written firmware which allows the object code produced by the EXORset BASIC-M compiler (release 3.00 and higher) to run in conjunction with the EXORset BASIC-M Runtime package, in an M6809-based end user system.

A complete example is presented in appendix $B$ that outlines the procedures to be followed to develop a specific application firmware to run in a Micromodule environment (M68MM19).

### 1.2. BASIC-M SOFTWARE ENVIRONMENT

Three levels of program code are needed for the execution of a BASIC-M program:

- LEVEL A: Highest level consisting in the object code produced by the BASIC-M compiler; this is the true user program; it is hereafter referred to as the "user code".
- LEVEL B: The Runtime package code.
- LEVEL C: The lowest level routines which form what we will call the "kernel". The kernel is the only object code which is system-dependent; it contains the I/O routines, interrupt handlers, and so forth.

Level A code interfaces with Level B subroutines, which in turn, interface with Level $C$ code, as is represented in figure 1.1 .


Figure 1.l. BASIC-M Software Environment

The User and Runtime Codes are both ROMable and position-independent. Position independency implies that these codes can be physically located anywhere among the 64k memory map. However, the user code assumes that the Runtime Package is installed at the same address as the one specified at compilation time. The Runtime and User Code origins, as well as the origin of the data section can be specified at the time BASICM is invoked in the "compiler" mode. Of course, there must be no hardware conflict (no overlap) between the following sections :

```
.The Kernel.
.The Runtime Package,
.The User Code,
.The RAM Data Section.
```

The kernel installation requirements are detailed in the next paragraph. The Runtime Package origin and RAM Data Section starting address are suppljed in the BASICM invoking command ("compiler" mode); for instance, the following command generates a user code that will execute in a target system where the Runtime Package is installed at hex base address 8000 and where RAM exists from E000 onwards.

$$
=\text { BASICM SAMPLE;OL=\#LP, R=\$8000,D=\$E000 }
$$

The memory sizes of the user code and RAM Data Section are shown in the symbol table printout. The size of the Runtime Package required to run the User Code varies between 10 K and 14 K bytes depending on the BASIC-M source program (see paragraph 1.8).

### 1.4. THE KERNEL FUNCTION

The task of the user-written kernel is to provide the hardware/software interface. The functions it must fulfill can be split in four categories:

```
a. Start-up routine
```

This routine is given control at the time of the system start-up or restart. It must initialize the system peripherals and pass control over to the User Code (level A).
b. I/O routines
-----------------

They are the standard peripheral device drivers, and are accessed each time a BASIC-M I/O statement is encountered in the course of program execution, or when an error message is output by the Runtime Package.

## C. Interrupt control

The kernel must include the interrupt vectors and the interrupt primary handlers.
d. Closeout routine

This is the portion of code which is executed when a "STOP" or "END" statement is encountered, or upon completion of the user code. It may halt the processor (CWAI instruction), or start another process.

### 1.5. THE KERNEL SPECIFICATIONS

The following rules must be observed to insure compatibility between the kernel and the Runtime Package.
. Rule A: the kernel must respond to the address range F000 thru FFFF, even though it does not fully occupy this address space.
.Rule B: the RESTART vector points to the kernel start-up routine.
.Rule C: the start-up routine must initialize the standard peripherals that may be attached to the user system (console, printer); this is not done by the Runtime Package, nor by the User Code.
.Rule D: upon completion, the start-up routine must transfer control to the first byte of User Code (level A).
. Rule E: Interrupt handling.
The highest locations of the kernel, i.e those responding to the address range FFF2 to FFFF, must contain the restart and interrupt vectors. The RESTART vector has already been discussed (Rule B). The other vectors must point to primary interrupt handlers which themselves must transfer control to secondary interrupt handlers (Runtime-resident) whose addresses are maintained in a table in RAM data section. The pointer to the top address of the secondary interrupt vector table is held in a l6-bit RAM location whose address is to be specified in the kernel locations FFEE, FFEF. This pointer is controlled by the Runtime Package; further to the execution of a STOP or END statement, the pointer is reset to zero; therefore, interrupts that may occur afterwards should be handled separately; usually the user should treat them as spurious
(undesirable) interrupts.
Figure 1.2 illustrates the indirect interrupt vectoring scheme just described; figure 1.3 contains a listing that shows how the kernel must be structured as far as interrupt handling is concerned.
.Rule F: Input/Output drivers.
Two standard peripheral devices are treated by the Runtime package: the console and the line printer. This implies the definition of three functions:
. input from console,

- output to console, . output to line printer.

The line printer output driver is only required if the BASIC-M source program includes a statement of the type PRINT \#LU or MAT PRINT \#LU where LU (logical unit specification) is equated to 2 .

The console input driver is required if the source program contains one of the following statements :

INPUT, MAT INPUT, INPUT \#LU, MAT INPUT \#LU, or PAUSE, where LU is equated to 0 or 1.

The console output driver, however, must be provided anyway, since the error processing, the STOP, PAUSE, and END statements may access it any time.

The driver entry points and functions must be provided in the kernel as follows:

INCHNP $\$ F 015$ Input a character from the console to the A register (most significant bit must be cleared) and echo it. The other registers must be preserved. Optional entry point.

OUTCH $\$ F 018$ Output the character in the A register to the console display device. The registers must be preserved. Mandatory entry point.

PDATA $\$ F 024$ Output to the console display device a carriage return and line feed characters followed by the character string pointed to by the $X$ register and terminated with an EOT character (04). Mandatory entry point.

LIST \$F042 Output the character in the A register
to the line printer. The registers must be preserved. If successful, return with carry bit clear, if not, set carry bit upon return. Optional entry point.

In addition, a break condition test routine must be provided if the BASIC-M source program has not been compiled with the "S" option, or if the BASICM program performs line printer output or matrix operations.

CKBRK $\$ F 045$ Test a break condition; return with carry clear if no break, with carry set if the user program is to be aborted. The A register can be altered; the other registers must be preserved.

I MPORTANTNOTE

Never modify the stack pointers $U$ and $S$ other than with PSH and PUL instructions.
. Rule G: Closeout routine.
The entry to this routine is performed upon execution of the STOP or END statements, or upon program completion. This routine may not return.

EXIT $\$ F 02 D$ Terminates the program execution.

### 1.6. RAM STORAGE

The starting address of the RAM DSCT section which is used by the program variables and stacks, is memorized by the Runtime Package in a 16-bit RAM word referred to as the Data Section Link (DSCT LINK). The address of the DSCT LINK is held in the first two bytes of the Runtime Package. The "as-delivered" address of the DSCT LINK for the EXORset BASICM Runtime Package is $\$ 0020$; it can be changed, if desired. The BLOAD utility which is supplied on each BASICM diskette provides a convenient means to change this value (see paragraph l.9). The DSCT IINK is controlled by the Runtime and MUST not be altered during the execution of the program.
1.7. FUNCTION REYS

A function keys interrupt handler is included in the Runtime Package. This handler is accessed on every NMI interrupt which occurs when keys interrupts are enabled further to the execution of "ON KEY..." statements. Should the user desire to take advantage of function keys monitoring, he must provide in his system a hardware
circuitry which is fully compatible with the one in EXORset 30. Refer to the EXORset User's Guide for a complete description.

### 1.8. RUNTIME PACKAGE SIZE

BASIC-M programs which do not include matrix-oriented statements (those starting with the "MAT" keyword) nor disk I/O statements require that the first 10 K bytes bytes of the Runtime Package be resident at execution time, whereas the full 14 K bytes are needed to cope with matrix operations.

Using the BLOAD utility provides an easy means to tailor the Runtime Package to the application requirements.
1.9. BLOAD UTILITY

The BLOAD command available on the EXORset BASICM diskette allows to merge multiple files comprising the User Code file, assembly language-written files and all or part of the Runtime package into a single file which represents the application firmware that runs in conjunction with the user-supplied kernel. In addition, BLOAD produces a memory map showing the boundaries of each module loaded. The BLOAD functions and options are described in the BASCNEWS file of a BASICM diskette. Below is just an example of the construction of a file TEST.CM that is the concatenation of a User cod e file TEST.LO (generated by the BASICM compiler) that is origined at $\$ A 800$, and of the Runtime package without matrix nor disk routines. The Runtime package has been specified at compile time to origin at $\$ 8000$ in the end-user system. The DSCT LINK (see paragraph 1.6.) is located at address \$E7FC.

```
=BLOAD TEST;ORL=$E7FC -M
TEST .LO:0 A800 - A8A7
RUN-TIME 8000 - A7A6
DSCT LINK E7FC - E7FD
DATA SECTION E000 - E4B4
LOAD BOUND S 8000 - A8A7
=
```



Figure 1.2. Interrupt handling

The primary interrupt handlers transfer control to the Runtime secondary handlers by accessing the secondary interrupt vectors contained in a table pointed to by the pointer whose address is specified in FFEE, FFEF. The pointer and secondary interrupt vectors contents are set up by the Runtime Package upon entry in the BASIC-M program (user code).

* INTERRUPT VECTORS


Figure 1.3. Listing of the kernel interrupt routines ---------- and vectors structure.

## CHAPTER 2. KERNEL FOR MICROMODULE M68MM19

### 2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes a general-purpose kernel that has been specifically written to interface a BASIC-M application software to an end-user system based on micromodule M68MM19, thereafter referred to as MM19. The proposed kernel makes some assumptions as to the usage of the MM19 I/O adapters and memory map; for instance, the ACIA port is used as the system console port, thus requiring that a terminal be connected to it, and the PIA port is used to interface to a Centronics-type line printer. In addition, the kernel also offers facilities to load into the system RAM the XDOS 4 disk operating system, and possibly the application software; therefore, disk I/O operations under control of the application program are feasible, with the restriction that no interrupt must occur during disk operations.

The features incorporated in the kernel are likely to satisfy most of the users needs. However, there are certainly applications requiring a hardware environment different from the one implied by the proposed kernel; for those, the kernel listed in Appendix A should still provide a valuable aid as a starting point for an adaptation.

### 2.2. HARDWARE ENVIRONMENT

The following environment is assumed by the proposed
.kernel based at \$F000,
-top of addressable memory at \$FFFF,
. Console ACIA based at \$ECl4,

- line printer PIA based at \$EC10,
. 2 K bytes of RAM based at $\$ E 000$ (can be used to hold the Data section of the application program).

If disk $I / O$ operations are required, the user shall install in his system the EXORset mini-floppy disk controller or the EXORdisk III floppy-disk controller equipped with the appropriate EXORset disk driver. Either of these boards occupies memory space between \$E800 and \$ECOF; if the EXORset mini-floppy disk controller is used, the on-board 16K RAM must be disabled. In addition, the system must include the amount of contiguous RAM necessary to hold the XDOS 4 disk operating system and the application program, should it not be resident in (E) ROM's.

### 2.3. THEORY OF OPERATIONS

This section gives some explanations on the operations of the proposed kernel listed in Appendix A.
2.3.1. Start-Up

Upon system start-up or restart, the console ACIA and the line printer PIA are initialized, and a l6-bit word is retrieved from the first two locations of the kernel labelled APSTRT; if the word just retrieved is not zero, it is supposed to be the starting address of the application program; control is then passed over to it. If APSTRT contains a l6-bit null value, the kernel loads the XDOS 4 disk operating system by entering the disk driver at \$E800. In case no disk is available (ready) in drive 0 , the user is prompted with the message:

## INSERT DISK IN DRIVE 0

An automatic disk bootstrap is performed as soon as the disk is ready; upon its completion, the $\operatorname{XDOS} 4$ prompt sign " $=$ " is displayed at the system console and the user may enter a command of its choice; generally it will be a command to load and execute the application program.

The start-up process is summarized in the flowchart of figure 2.1.


Figure 2.1. Kernel Start-Up Process

```
2.3.2. Kernel Jump Table
```

The kernel jump table includes all the entry points and routines necessary to the execution of a BASIC-M program that are described in chapter 1. It is derived from the EXORbug monitor jump table; entry points which could be accessed from assembly-language routines, and which would transfer control to utilities not implemented in the proposed kernel all. direct the execution to a common routine that, first, displays the address of the routine the user attempted to call, and second, enters the EXIT routine.

### 2.3.3. EXIT Routine

This routine is entered upon termination of the BASICM application program (STOP, END statements or physical end of program are encountered), or on occurence of a fatal error or operator abort.

If the application program came to its normal completion, the EXIT routine will transfer control to a user-supplied sequence whose address is found in the third and fourth bytes of the kernel (ARSTRT); this routine may for example just restart the application program.

If the application program has not been entered yet, the EXIT routine will prompt the user with the message:

PRESS RESET TO RESTART
and wait idle until the system is restarted.

### 2.3.4. Other

The other routines of the kernel do not call for special comment as they conform to the specifications described in chapter 1.

The RAM locations labelled ATOP, RAMAD, AECHO, STACK in the kernel (assembly listing lines 71 thru 74) may be assigned addresses other than those listed; however, if XDOS 4 has to be loaded in the system, the definitions of ATOP, AECHO, and STACK must no be changed.

### 2.3.5. More On Disk I/O

If XDOS 4 is used in the end-user system, the parameters which normally reflect the alternate map disk controller (see XDOS 4 User's Guide) must all be cleared. This is achieved by setting to zero the six values in the Disk Identification Block (PSN 0000) starting at offset $\$ 76$.

The start-up routine detailed under 2.3.1 describes how the user may optionally load the disk operating system upon
system start-up. This process ends up with XDOS 4 displaying its prompt character $("=")$ and awaiting a system command from the console.

A simple modification to XDOS 4 allows to automatically load and execute a user-selectable command (the application program) instead of entering the normal XDOS 4 command interpreter after XDOS has been loaded. The modification is as follows?:

1/.Concatenate with the file "XDOS.SY" a data file which initializes the XDOS command buffer (CBUFF\$ EQU \$AE) with the name of the user-selected program terminated by carriage return.

2/.Change the start address of the file XDOS.SY to its current start address +2. This may be accomplished by using the following procedures:
(a) Build and assemble the file containing the name of the command to execute on start-up. This name must be loaded from CBUFFS upwards and must be terminated with a carriage return character. For the sake of explanation, the file which contains the name of the command to execute on cold-start is referred to as NAMECMD.LO, whereas the user-command file associated is referred to as USERCMD.CM.
(b) Unprotect file XDOS.SY by using: =NAME XDOS.SY;NX
(c) Read the XDOS.SY normal start address in RIB by using:

$$
=\mathrm{DUMP} \text { XDOS.SY }
$$

: S FFFF
The XDOS start address is found at offset 7A, 7B. Let it be YYYY.
(d) Concatenate XDOS.SY and NAMECMD.LO, giving the new XDOS.SY named XDOSI.SY. Use the following command where WWWW is equal to YYYY+2 (see step (c) above): =MERGE XDOS.SY,NAMECMD.LO,XDOS1.SY;WWWW
(e) Rename XDOS.SY by using:
=NAME XDOS.SY,XDOS2
(f) Rename XDOS1.SY to become XDOS.SY, by using: =NAME XDOSI.SY,XDOS.SY;WDS
(g) Generate a new diskette in drive \#l, by using: =BACKUP ; R
Select the files you want to have copied (the user command USERCMD.CM must be selected !). The "BACKUP ; R" command insures that the XDOS.SY load and start addresses are written into sector 18 of the diskette.
(h) Restore original XDOS.SY on drive \#0, by using:
=NAME XDOS.SY,XDOSI;NX
=NAME XDOS2.SY,XDOS.SY;WDS

The new diskette thus generated in drive \#1 is then ready for autostart.

This chapter describes an application based on MM19. For the sake of simplicity, the application is kept simple even if it may look somewhat academic; the aim is more to detail the procedures that lead to the execution of the application program in a micromodule environment than to detail the program itself.

### 3.1. APPLICATION DESCRIPTION

The MM19 is used as a computer whose function is to find how to combine six numbers in order to yield a given target number by applying elementary arithmetic operations (* ${ }^{+}{ }_{,}-$). The seven numbers ( the first six and the target) are input from the console; for example, if MM19 is given the 6 numbers

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
5 & 25 & 4 & 75 & 6 & 5
\end{array}
$$

and the target number 469 , the application program must be able to determine that the target can be obtained by applying the following successive operations:

| $4 \times 25$ | $=100$ |
| ---: | :--- |
| $100-5$ | $=95$ |
| $95 \times 5$ | $=475$ |
| $475-6$ | $=469$ |

As is shown on this example, the solution need not use all the six input numbers; however, a number can be used only once.

Of course, there may be several solutions to a problem; the program is required to output only one (that may not be the most efficient !). Also, there may be no exact solution; in that case, the program will report it.

Optionally, the seven numbers may be generated randomly instead of being input from the console. In any event, the target number is included between 100 and 999, and the other six numbers can be any of the following:

$$
1, .9,10,25,50,75,100
$$

The problem and its solution can be at will listed to the system console or line printer. To have more fun, the MM19 is requested to find a solution in a fixed time frame of one minute; if a solution is found before this time elapsed, the program will report the time it took to come to it.

A sample run of the program will help to understand how the program works (see 3.4. now ... or later on).

### 3.2. HARDWARE ENVIRONMENT

Keeping track of the time implies that a real-time clock be available in the system; a timer of the MM19 PTM (MC6840) is programmed to fulfill this function.

The MM19 ACIA and PIA are used to interface to the system console and line printer, respectively.

The kernel is the one listed in Appendix A except that PGSTRT is defined as the application program start address \$D000; it occupies the EROM sockets U27 and U28.

The MM19 2K-byte RAM starting at $\$ \mathrm{E} 000$ is used to hold the program variables and stacks (data section).

The user code firmware is located in two 2K-byte EROM's located at \$D000 (MM19 sockets U29 and U30).

The Runtime package resides externally on a M68MM04 micromodule based at $\$ 8000$.

### 3.3. IMPLEMENTATION STEPS

The following steps are taken once the BASICM application program has been edited:

1/ The source program (SAMPLE) is compiled with the following command line:
$=$ BASICM SAMPLE; OL=\#LP, $\mathrm{R}=\$ 8000, \mathrm{D}=\$ \mathrm{E} 000, \mathrm{P}=\$ \mathrm{SO} 00, \mathrm{~S}$
The listing shown in appendix $B$ is then obtained on the development system line printer, and the user code is saved in the object file SAMPLE.LO.

As is shown in the previous command line, option "S" was selected for this particular program; this is because the program uses the IRQ interrupt: if option "S" was not specified, the "check break" function would be performed prior to executing each statement, and those of the IRQ service routine in particular; as the "check break" function basically checks the ACIA for the CTRL-P code in its receiver or for a framing error (see kernel), it would then empty the ACIA receiver, thus causing the characters expected by an INPUT statement to be lost.

2/. A single load module is constructed by invoking the BLOAD utility, that comprises the user code (SAMPLE.LO) and the part of the runtime package necessary to this application (Runtime disk I/O are not used).

$$
=\text { BLOAD SAMPLE;ORL=\$E7FC }-D
$$

Note that the DSCT LINK (see paragraph 1.6) is specified at \$E7FC, i.e, in the MM19 2K-byte RAM block.

The load module is constructed under the name SAMPLE.CM, and the following map is produced by BLOAD:

| SAMPLE .LO: | D000-DFB0 | (see note (1) ) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| RUN-TIME | $8000-$ B10C | (see note (2) ) |
| DSCT LINK | E7FC-E7FD | (see note (3) ) |
| DATA SECTION | E000-E563 | (see note (3) ) |
|  |  |  |

note (1) : will be firmware in MM19 sockets U29, U30.
note (2) : will be firmware on Micromodule M68MM04.
note (3) : in MM19 2K-byte RAM block.
The user just has then to burn into EROM's the relevant sections of the file SAMPLE.CM whose boundaries are indicated in the map.

The BLOAD command above could have included the kernel as load module; for this application however, the kernel was PROM-programmed from a separate file.
3.4. RUNNING THE PROGRAM

The following shows a sample run of the application program:

Results to printer ? N
Random or Input ( $R / I$ ) ? R
given numbers : $\begin{array}{lllllll}6 & 50 & 4 & 2 & 9 & 10\end{array}$
Target number to find : 380
I made it in 4.10 seconds !

| $4 \times 6$ | $=24$ |
| ---: | :--- |
| $24+9$ | $=33$ |
| $33+10$ | $=330$ |
| $330+50$ | $=380$ |

Quod Erat Demonstrandum.
Results to printer ? N
Random or Input ( R/I ) ? I
Enter the 6 numbers (1..10, 25, 50, 75, 100): ? 123579
Target number to find (101-999) ? 101
given numbers : $\begin{array}{lllllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 5 & 7 & 9\end{array}$
Target number to find : 101
I made it in 0.90 seconds !

| $7+3=$ | 10 |
| ---: | :--- |
| $10 x$ | 50 |
| $50 x$ | $=100$ |
| $100+1$ | $=101$ |

Quod Erat Demonstrandum.

Results to printer ? N
Random or Input ( R/I ) ? R
given numbers : $\begin{array}{cccccc}8 & 100 & 8 & 50 & 50 & 9\end{array}$
Target number to find : 580
I can't find the solution

## A P P E N D I X I

MIN I MUM K E R N E L F O R M M 1 9
PAGE 001 MM19BK .SA:1 MM19BK -- BASIC-M MINIMUM KERNEL FOR MM19



PAGE 003 MM19BK .SA: 1 MM19BK -- RAM STORAGE

00066
00067 00068 00069 00070 00071 00072 00073 00074


| PAGE 0 | 004 | MM19BK |  | A : 1 | MM19BK - | -- Ju | TABLE | AND PROGRAM START ADDRESS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 00078A | F000 |  |  |  |  | ORG | \$F000 |  |
| 00079A | F000 |  | 0000 | A | APSTRT | FDB | PGSTRT | BASIC-M PROGRAM START ADDRESS |
| 00080A | F002 |  | D000 | A | ARSTRT | FDB | \$D000 | FATAL ERROR RECOVERY ENTRY POINT ADDRESS |
| 00081A | F004 |  | E7FC | A | ARAMAD | FDB | RAMAD | ADDRESS OF DSCT LINK |
| 00083A | F006 | 17 | 003F | F048 |  | LBSR | UNIMP | CBCDHX UNIMPLEMENTED |
| 00084A | F009 | 16 | 0065 | F071 |  | LBRA | CHEXL | CONVERT MS BCD TO ASCII HEX |
| 00085A | F00C | 16 | 0066 | F075 |  | LBRA | CHEXR | CONVERT LS BCD TO ASCII HEX |
| 00086A | F00F | 17 | 0036 | F048 |  | LBSR | UNIMP | INADDR UNIMPLEMENTED |
| 00087A | F012 | 17 | 0033 | F048 |  | LBSR | UNIMP | INCH UNIMPLEMENTED |
| 00088A | F015 | 16 | 0193 | Flab |  | LBRA | INCHNP | INPUT CHARACTER, STRIP PARITY |
| 00089A | F018 | 16 | 0182 | F19D | XOUTCH | LBRA | OUTCH | OUTPUT CHARACTER |
| 00090A | F01B | 16 | 0041 | F05F |  | LBRA | OUT2HS | DISPLAY HEX 2 DIGITS |
| 00091A | F01E | 16 | 003C | F05D |  | LBRA | OUT4HS | DISPLAY HEX 4 DIGITS |
| 00092A | F021 | 16 | 0173 | F197 | XPCRLF | LBRA | PCRLF | DISPLAY CARRIAGE-RETURN, LINE-FEED |
| 00093A | F024 | 16 | 0163 | F18A | XPDATA | LBRA | PDATA | DISPLAY CR, LF, STRING |
| 00094A | F027 | 16 | 0162 | F18C |  | LBRA | PDATA1 | DISPLAY STRING |
| 0,0095A | F02A | 16 | 0034 | F061 |  | LBRA | PSPACE | dISPLAY SPACE |
| 0,0096A | F02D | 16 | 0122 | F152 | XEXIT | LBRA | EXIT | END OF BASIC-M PROGRAM EXECUTION |
| 01097A | F030 | 17 | 0015 | F048 |  | LBSR | UNIMP | XLDA UNIMPLEMENTED |
| 00098A | F033 | 317 | 0012 | F048 |  | LBSR | UNIMP | XSTA UNIMPLEMENTED |
| 00099A | F036 | 17 | 000F | F048 |  | LBSR | UN IMP | XTOGL UNIMPLEMENTED |
| 00100A | F039 | 16 | 0144 | Fle0 |  | LBRA | ZAPBRK | NO BREAKPOINT, DUMMY ENTRY POINT |
| 00101A | F03C | 17 | 0009 | F048 |  | LBSR | UNIMP | SAVREC UNIMPLEMENTED |
| 00102A | F03F | 17 | 0006 | F048 |  | LBSR | UNIMP | GETREG UNIMPLEMENTED |
| 00103A | F042 | 16 | 0147 | FlEC |  | LBRA | LIST | OUTPUT CHARACTER TO PRINTER |
| 00104A | F045 | 16 | 017 F | FlC7 |  | LBRA | CKBRK | CHECK BREAK CONDITION |

PAGE 005 MM19BK .SA:1 MM19BK -- ILLEGAL ENTRY TO MONITOR --

| 00108A | F048 | 30 | 8C |  | UNIMP | LEAX | <ILLENT | PCR |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 00109A | F04B | 8D | D7 | F024 |  | BSR | XPDATA | DISPLAY | "CALL TO UNIMPLEMENTED | ROUTINE \$" |
| 00110A | F04D | 35 | 10 | A |  | PULS | X | COMPUTE | ROUTINE ADDRESS |  |
| 00111A | F04F | 30 | 1D | A |  | LEAX | $-3,8$ |  |  |  |
| 00112A | F051 | 34 | 10 | A |  | PSHS | X |  |  |  |
| 00113A | F053 | 30 | E4 | A |  | LEAX | 0,5 | DISPLAY | ROUTINE ADDRESS |  |
| 00114A | F055 | 8D | 06 | F05D |  | BSR | OUT4HS |  |  |  |
| 00115A | F057 | 8D | C8 | F021 |  | BSR | XPCRLF | NEW LINE |  |  |
| 00116A | F059 | 32 | 62 | A |  | LEAS | 2,S | DROP ROU | TINE ADDRESS |  |
| 00117A | F05B | 20 | D0 | F02D |  | BRA | XEXIT | ABORT |  |  |



PAGE 007 MM19BK .SA:1 MM19BK -- RESTART RESPONSE ROUTINE -- PERIPHERAL INI



```
PAGE 009 MM19BK .SA:1 MM19BK -- INTERRUPT HANDLER
```

| 00253A | F13D | AF | 64 | A |  | STX | 4,S REPLACE RETURN ADDRESS | WITH INTERRUPT ROUTINE ADDRESS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 00254A | F13F | 35 | 95 | A |  | PULS | CC, $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{X}, \mathrm{PC}$ RESTORE REGISTERS AND | GO TO INTERRUPT ROUTINE |
| 00255 |  |  |  |  | * |  |  |  |
| 00256A | F141 |  | 4E | A | NVECTM | FCC | /NO VECTOR/ |  |
| 00257A | F14A |  | OD | A |  | FCB | CR, LF, EOT |  |
| 00258 |  |  |  |  | * |  |  |  |
| 00259A | F14D | 30 | 8 C | F1 | NOVEC | LEAX | NVECTM, PCR OUTPUT ERROR MESSAGE |  |
| 00260A | F150 | 8D | 38 | F18A |  | BSR | PDATA AND ABORT |  |

00262 TTL -- EXECUTION TERMINATE ROUTINE


PAGE 011 MM19BK .SA:1 MM19BK -- INPUT/OUTPUT ROUTINES



PAGE 012 MM19BK .SA:1 MM19BK -- INPUT/OUTPUT ROUTINES



PAGE 013 MM19BK .SA:1 MM19BK -- INPUT/OUTPUT ROUTINES



PAGE 014 MM19BK .SA:1 MM19BK -- HARDWARE INTERRUPT VECTORS


| ACCLK | 0001 | ACCTL | 0009 | ACIA | EC14 | ACPAR | 0002 | ACRES | 0003 | ACRINT | 0000 | ACRTST | 0000 | AECHO | E714 | APSTRT | F000 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ARAMAD | F004 | ARSTRT | F002 | ATOP | E72E | ATOPA | FFEE | BRK1 | F1E1 | BRK2 | F1DF | BRK3 | F1C0 | BRK4 | F1C2 | CA2 | 0003 |
| CA2DIR | 0001 | CB2 | 0003 | CB2DIR | 0001 | CHEXL | F071 | CHEXR | F075 | CKBRK | FlC7 | CLOCK | E887 | CR | 000D | CURDRV | 0000 |
| DDRA | 00FF | DDRB | 0000 | DKMSG | F101 | DKNRDY | FOEC | DKWAIT | FODF | DLE | 0010 | DRSEL | 0004 | EDGEA1 | 0000 | EDGEB1 | 0000 |
| EOT | 0004 | ETB | 0017 | EXIT | F152 | EXITM | F169 | FDINIT | E822 | FE | 0010 | FIRQ | F125 | GEXEC | FOFF | GOLOAD | F0FA |
| ILLENT | F080 | INCH1 | F1AD | INCHNP | FlAB | INTER | F12E | IRQ | F122 | IRQAIM | 0000 | IRQBIM | 0000 | LF | 000A | LIST | F1EC |
| LIST1 | F1FD | LIST2 | F20B | NMI | F11C | NOVEC | F14D | NVECTM | F141 | OSLOAD | E800 | OUT2H | F065 | OUT2HS | F05F | OUT4HS | F05D |
| OUTCH | F19D | OUTCH2 | FlA1 | PCRLF | F197 | PDATA | F18A | PDATAl | F18C | PDATA2 | F196 | PGSTRT | 0000 | PIA | EC10 | PIACTL | 0038 |
| PIBCTL | 0038 | PSPACE | F061 | PTM | EC18 | RAMAD | E7FC | RAMTOP | E7FF | RDRF | 0001 | RECOV | F165 | RES | FOAO | RESTOR | E875 |
| RTN | F07F | SPACE | 0020 | STACK | E703 | SWI | F11F | SWI 2 | F128 | SWI 3 | F12B | TDRE | 0002 | UNIMP | F048 | XEXIT | F02D |
| XOUTCH | F018 | XPCRLF | F021. | XPDATA | F024 | YOUTCH | F063 | ZAPBRK | Fle0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## A P P E N D I X J

APPLICATIONPROGRAMLISTING

```
PAGE 01 SAMPLE .SA:0
```

| 006C | 00010 | REM ***** SAMPLE PROGRAM FOR MM19 **** |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 006C | 00020 | REM |
| 006C | 00030 | INTEGER Time, Dummy |
| 006 C | 00040 | BYTE Tswch,Tmout |
| 006 C | 00050 | BYTE PTM_cr13 ADDRESS \$EC18 |
| 006 C | 00060 | BYTE PTM-cr 2 ADDRESS \$EC19 |
| 006C | 00070 | BYTE PTM stat ADDRESS PTM_cr 2 |
| 006C | 00080 | INTEGER PTM tl ADDR \$ECIA |
| 006C | 00090 | INTEGER PTM ${ }^{-} 2$ ADDR \$ECIC |
| 006C | 00100 | INTEGER PTM ${ }^{\text {t3 }}$ ADDR \$ECIE |
| 006 C | 00110 |  |
| 006C | 00120 | INTEGER $\mathrm{A}(12), \mathrm{N}(7), \mathrm{II}(12), \mathrm{T}(7)$,Numbers (14) |
| 006C | 00130 | REM |
| 006C | 00140 |  |
| 006 C | 00150 | DATA \$0,\$1,\$64 |
| 006C | 00160 | REM |
| 006C | 00170 | DEF Odd= IAND (M,One) |
| 008F | 00180 | REM |
| 008F | 00190 | MAT READ Numbers |
| 0096 | 00200 | READ Zero, One,Hundred |
| 00AF | 00210 | REM |
| 00AF | 00220 | PTM_cr2=One $\$ Select CRI  \hline OOBE & 00230 & PTM cri3=One \ Clear CRI, preset state  \hline 00CD & 00240 & PTM cr $2=$ Zero $\$ Select CR3  \hline 00DC & 00250 & PTM_crl3=Zero \ Clear CR3  \hline 00EB & 00260 & PTM_cr2=One $\$ Clear CR2, select CR1  \hline 00FA & 00270 & Tswch=Zero  \hline 0109 & 00280 & GOSUB 1710 \ Start timer for randomize  \hline 010E & 00290 & INPUT "Results to printer ",R\$  \hline 0133 & 00300 & I= SUBSTR("YESNO" ,R\$)  \hline 015D & 00310 & Prnt=One  \hline 016C & 00320 & IF I=4 THEN 370  \hline 018F & 00330 & Prnt=\$2  \hline 0142 & 00340 & IF $\mathrm{I}=1$ THEN 370 |
| 01 C 5 | 00350 | PRINT "Answer YES or NO, please !!!" |
| OlFl | 00360 | GOTO 290 |
| 01F6 | 00370 | $\mathrm{P}=$ Zero |
| 0205 | 00380 | INPUT "Random or Input ( $R / I$ ) " $R$ ( |
| 022F | 00390 | ON SUBSTR("RI", LEFT\$ (R\$,1)) +One GOTO 400,420,510 |
| 0287 | 00400 | PRINT "Invalid answer" |
| 02A5 | 00410 | GOTO 370 |
| 02AA | 00420 | $\mathrm{J}=$ RND (PTM tl/10000) |
| 02 D 8 | 00430 | FOR I=One TO \$6 STEP One |
| 0303 | 00440 | CN=Numbers ( FIX (14* RND ) +One) |
| 0343 | 00450 | $N(I)=C N$ |
| 035C | 00460 | IF CN=Hundred THEN $\mathrm{P}=\mathrm{CN}$ |
| 037 F | 00470 | NEXT I |
| 0382 | 00480 | $X=\operatorname{FIX}\left(900^{*}\right.$ RND $)+$ Hundred |
| 03B8 | 00490 | IF $X=P$ THEN 480 |
| 03D1 | 00500 | GOTO 680 |
| $03 \mathrm{D6}$ | 00510 | PRINT "Enter the ?6 numbers (1...10, 25, 50, 75, 100) |
| 0415 | 00520 | INPUT N (One) ${ }_{\text {O }} \mathrm{N}(\$ 2), \mathrm{N}(\$ 3), \mathrm{N}(\$ 4), \mathrm{N}(\$ 5), \mathrm{N}(\$ 6)$ |
| 049A | 00530 | FOR I=One TO \$6 STEP One |
| $04 \mathrm{C5}$ | 00540 | $\mathrm{CN}=\mathrm{N}$ (I) |
| 04DE | 00550 | IF CN=Hundred THEN P=One |
| 0501 | 00560 | FOR J=One TO \$E STEP One |
| 052C | 00570 | IF CN=Numbers (J) THEN 610 |
| 054F | 00580 | NEXT J |
| 0552 | 00590 | PRINT "Invalid input" |

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| 056F | 00600 | GOTO 510 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0574 | 00610 | NEXT I |
| 0577 | 00620 | $\mathrm{P}=\mathrm{P}+$ Hundred |
| 058 F | 00630 | PRINT "Target number to find ( ";P;"- 999 ) "; |
| 05 CD | 00640 | INPUT X |
| 05DF | 00650 | IF $X>=\mathrm{P}$ AND $\mathrm{X}<$ \$03E8 THEN 680 |
| 060 E | 00660 | PRINT "Invalid number" |
| 0 ¢2C | 00670 | GOTO 630 |
| 0631 | 00680 | FOR LU=One TO Prnt STEP One |
| 0658 | 00690 | PRINT \#LU USING "[/3] given numbers : [3] "N(One); |
| 069D | 00700 | FOR I=\$2 TO \$6 STEP One |
| 06CC | 00710 | PRINT \#LU USING " [3]",N(I); |
| 06FD | 00720 | NEXT I |
| 0700 | 00730 | PRINT \#LU |
| 0716 | 00740 | PRINT \#LU USING " Target number to find : [3] "X |
| 0755 | 00750 | NEXT LU |
| 0758 | 00760 | GOSUB 1780 \ Stop timer |
| 075D | 00770 | Tswch=One \ Count time |
| 076C | 00780 | Time=Zero \Initialize time accumulator |
| 077B | 00790 | Tmout=Zero \No timeout yet |
| 078A | 00800 | GOSUB 1710 \ Start timer |
| 078F | 00810 | A (One) $=$ X |
| 07A8 | 00820 | MAT II = ZER |
| 07B6 | 00830 | MAT T= ZER |
| 07C4 | 00840 | N (\$7) = Zero |
| 07E1 | 00850 | M=Zero |
| 07F0 | 00860 | $\mathrm{M}=\mathrm{M}+$ One |
| 0808 | 00870 | $\mathrm{P}=0 \mathrm{dd}$ |
| 0819 | 00880 | $C I=I I(M)$ |
| 0832 | 00890 | $C I=C I+O n e$ |
| 084A | 00900 | IF CI<\$7+P THEN 1020 |
| 0870 | 00910 | II (M) = Zero |
| 0889 | 00920 | $\mathrm{M}=\mathrm{M}-$ One |
| 08A1 | 00930 | IF M=Zero THEN 1200 |
| 08BA | 00940 | $\mathrm{P}=0 \mathrm{dd}$ |
| 08CB | 00950 | CI= II (M) |
| 08E4 | 00960 | $\mathrm{CT}=\mathrm{T}$ (CI) |
| 08FD | 00970 | IF CT=\$FFFF THEN 1000 |
| 091A | 00980 | $T(C I)=$ Zero |
| 0933 | 00990 | GOTO 890 |
| 0938 | 01000 | CT=One |
| 0947 | 01010 | GOTO 1050 |
| 094 C | 01020 | $\mathrm{CT}=\mathrm{T}$ ( CI ) |
| 0965 | 01030 | IF CT<>Zero THEN 890 |
| 097E | 01040 | IF CI<>\$ 7 THEN CT=\$2-\$3*P |
| 09BF | 01050 | IF Tmout<>Zero THEN 1200 |
| 09DB | 01060 | II (M) = CI |
| 09F4 | 01070 | $T(C I)=C T$ |
| OA0D | 01080 | $\mathrm{CA}=\mathrm{A}(\mathrm{M})$ |
| 0A26 | 01090 | $\mathrm{CN}=\mathrm{N}$ (CI) |
| 0A3F | 01100 | IF P=Zero THEN 1140 |
| 0A58 | 01110 | $J=C A+C T * C N$ |
| 0 A79 | 01120 | IF J=Zero THEN 1250 |
| 0 A9 2 | 01130 | GOTO 1170 |
| 0 A97 | 01140 | $J=C A / C N$ |
| OAAF | 01150 | IF $J * C N<>C A ~ T H E N ~ 980 ~$ |
| 0 ADl | 01160 | IF J=One THEN 1250 |
| 0AEA | 01170 | IF M=\$C THEN 980 |
| 0B07 | 01180 | $A(M+$ One $)=J$ |

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| 0B29 | 01190 | GOTO 860 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0B2E | 01200 | GOSUB 1780 \ Stop timer |
| 0B33 | 01210 | FOR LU=One TO Prnt STEP One |
| 0B5A | 01220 | PRINT \#LU USING 1540 |
| 0B71 | 01230 | NEXT LU |
| 0B74 | 01240 | GOTO 270 |
| 0B79 | 01250 | GOSUB 1780 \ Stop timer |
| 0B7E | 01260 | FOR LU=One TO Prnt STEP One |
| 0BA5 | 01270 | PRINT \#LU USING 1550,Time/100 |
| 0BD8 | 01280 | NEXT LU |
| 0BDB | 01290 | $\mathrm{J}=\mathrm{N}$ ( II (M) ) |
| OBFE | 01300 | $\mathrm{M}=\mathrm{M}-$ One |
| 0 Cl 6 | 01310 | $\mathrm{CI}=\mathrm{II}(\mathrm{M})$ |
| 0C2F | 01320 | $\mathrm{CT}=\mathrm{T}$ (CI) |
| 0 C 48 | 01330 | $\mathrm{CN}=\mathrm{N}(\mathrm{CI})$ |
| 0 C 61 | 01340 | $C A=A(M)$ |
| 0C7A | 01350 | IF Odd<>Zero THEN 1410 |
| 0 C 98 | 01360 | IF CN=One THEN 1460 |
| $0 \mathrm{CB1}$ | 01370 | FOR LUSOne TO Prnt step One |
| 0 CD 8 | 01380 | PRINT \#LU USING 1510,J,CN,CA |
| OD0E | 01390 | NEXT LU |
| $0 \mathrm{Dl1}$ | 01400 | GOTO 1450 |
| 0 D 16 | 01410 | IF CN=Zero THEN 1460 |
| 0D2F | 01420 | FOR LU=One TO Prnt STEP One |
| 0D56 | 01430 | PRINT \#LU USING 1520,J,-CN*CT,CA |
| 0D98 | 01440 | NEXT LU |
| 0D9B | 01450 | $J=C A$ |
| ODAA | 01460 | IF M<>One THEN 1300 |
| ODC3 | 01470 | FOR LU=One TO Prnt STEP One |
| ODEA | 01480 | PRINT \#LU USING 1530 |
| 0 E 01 | 01490 | NEXT LU |
| 0E04 | 01500 | GOTO 270 |
| 0E09 | 01510 | IMAGE "[9] $x[5]=[5]$ " |
| 0E1B | 01520 | IMAGE "[9] [C+()5] = [5] " |
| 0E30 | 01530 . | IMAGE "[/2][\$22]Quod Erat Demonstrandum.[/3]" |
| 0E58 | 01540 | IMAGE "[/3][X20]I can't find the solution[/3]" |
| 0 E 81 | 01550 | IMAGE "[/3][X22]I made it in[3,2] seconds ! [/]" |
| 0EAB | 01560 | REM |
| OEAB | 01570 | REM ----- IRQ RESPONSE ROUTINE ----- |
| OEAB | 01580 | REM |
| 0eab | 01590 | IF PTM stat=\$81 THEN 1630 |
| 0ECB | 01600 |  |
| OEDA | 01610 | STOP "BAD IRQ" |
| OEE6 | 01620 | REM |
| 0EE6 | 01630 | IF Tswch=Zero THEN 1660 |
| OFO2 | 01640 | Time=Time+One $\ 10$ MORE MILLISECONDS |
| 0F1A | 01650 | IF Time $>=\$ 1770$ THEN Tmout=One $\$ Timeout after 60 seconds  \hline 0 F 41 & 01660 & Dummy $=$ PTM_tl \ Clear IRQ |
| OF50 | 01670 | RETURN |
| 0F51 | 01680 | REM |
| OF51 | 01690 | REM ---- START TIMER ROUTINE ----- |
| 0F51 | 01700 | REM |
| 0F5?1 | 01710 | PTM tl=\$270F ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ( Count 10 ms |
| 0F64 | 01720 | ON IRQ THEN GOSUB 1590 |
| 0F6F | 01730 | PTM_crl3=\$42 \start timer, enable interrupts |
| 0F82 | 01740 | RETURN |
| 0F83 | 01750 | REM |
| 0F83 | 01760 | REM ----- STOP TIMER ROUTINE ----- |
| 0F83 | 01 | R |


| 0F83 | 01780 | PTM_cr13=One | Inhibit interrupts, hold in preset state |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| OF92 | 01790 | NEVER IRQ |  |
| OF95 | 01800 | RETURN |  |
| 0F96 | 01810 | END |  |

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| ime | I ......E000. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Dummy | I . . . . . E002. |
| Tswch | B......E004 |
| Tmout | .B..... E005. |
| PTM_crl3 | .B......EC18. |
| PTM ${ }^{\text {cre }} 2$ | .B......EC19 |
| PTM_stat | .B......EC19 |
| PTM $\mathrm{P}^{\text {cl }}$ | . I ......EC1A. |
| PTM ${ }^{-1} 2$ | . I . . . . .EC1C. |
| PTM ${ }^{-1} 3$ | . I . .....EClE. |
| Prnt. | . I ...... E006 |
| LU | . I . .... E008. |
| X | . $1 . . . . . . E 00 A$. |
|  | . I . . . . .E00C. |
| J | . I ......E00E. |
| M | . I ......E010 |
|  | . I ......E012 |
| CI | . I......E014 |
| CA. | . I ......E016 |
| CN. | .I......E018. |
| CT. | . I......E01A. |
| Zero | .I......E01C. |
| One | . I......E01E. |
| Hundred | . I ......E020 |
|  | . I ......E022.... 1 |
| N | .I......E03C.... 1 |
| II | . I......E04C.... 1 |
|  | .I......E066.... 1 |
| Numbers | .I......E076....1 |
| Odd | .RF . . . . 0071 |
| R\$ . | . S......E094. |
| DSCT: E000-E563 | PSCT: D000-DFB0 |
| RUNTIME BASE : 8000 |  |
| END OF COMPILATION |  |


[^0]:    Constants, by definition , are unvarying quantities. There are two categories of constants defined in BASIC-M: numeric constants, and literal constants ( also called string or character constants ).

    ### 2.3.4.1 Literal constants

[^1]:    11.6 Default type of the arguments

