## BASIC XL゙

## A Language For Your ATARI ${ }^{\circledR}$ Computer

A REfERENCE MANUAL
for

## BASIC XL

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#### Abstract

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### 1.1 Features of BASIC XL

Compatibility with Atari BASIC
Because BASIC XL uses the same tokens as Atari BASIC, programs written in Atari BASIC which have been SAVEd can be LOADed and RUN using BASIC XL.

## FAST Program Execution

BASIC XI allows you to RUN your programs faster than ever with the new FAST command, thus making games written in BASIC almost as fast as arcade games.

Easy Program Formatting
Unlike other BASICs, BASIC XL does not care whether you use upper or lower case letters when you enter your programs. This alone makes programs more readable. However, BASIC $X L$ does even more. It will automatically prompt you with line numbers or renumber an entire program at your request. Also, the LIST command has a program formatter built in, so your programs are easier to follow, no matter how complex or involved they are.

## Built-in Functions

BASIC XL contains over 40 built-in functions covering a
wide range of applications. The chapter titled
FUNCTION LIBRARY explains these functions and their
usages.

## Graphics

BASIC XL offers the same bit-map graphics manipulation available in Atari BASIC, and allows amazing flexibility in color chpice and pattern variety. Chapter 7 explains each command and gives examples of the many ways to use each.

Player / Missile Graphics
BASIC XL allows you easy access to the player / missile graphics available on the Atari through the use of built-in functions and commands. With BASIC XL, $\mathrm{p} / \mathrm{m}$ graphics are as easy to control as common bit-map graphics.

## Game Controllers

Not only does BASIC XL support the game controller functions as Atari BASIC, but it also adds some other game controller functions which make interpreting and using the joysticks much easier.

Sound
The Atari Personal Computer is capable of emitting a large variety of sounds including simulated explosions, electronic music, and "raspberries", and BASIC XL allows you to have control over these sounds available.

Wraparound and Keyboard Repeat
If you enter a program line which is longer than the length of the screen, the line "wraps around" to the next line so that you can view it. Also, if you hold down any key for over $1 / 2$ second, it will start repeating.

Error Messages
If a data entry error is made, the screen display shows an error message and the line on which the error occured (with the character at which the error occured highlighted). Most errors will also display a short, descriptive message along with the error number. Appendix $A$ contains a list of all the error messages and their explanations.

### 1.2 Special Notations used in this Manual

## Line Format

The format of a line in a BASIC program includes a line number (abbreviated to lineno) at the beginning of the line, followed by a statement keyword, followed by the body of the statement and ending with a line terminator command (<RETURN> key). In an actual program, the four elements might look like this:

|  | Statement | Statement |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lineno | Keyword | Body | Terminator |
| 100 | PRINT | $A / X *(z+4.567)$ | <RETURN> |

Several statements can be typed on the same line provided they are separated by a colon (:).

## Capital Letters

In this book, all keywords and functions are printed in uppercase to differentiate them from the other parts of a statement.

## Lower Case Letters

In this manual, lower case letter are used to denote the various classes of items which may be used in a program, such as variables (var), expressions (exp), and the like.

Items in Brackets
Brackets ([]) contain optional items which may be used, but are not required, in the format of a statement. If the item enclosed in brackets is followed by three dots (e.g. [exp,...]), more than one of that item may be entered, but none are required.

## Items Stacked Vertically in Bars

Items stacked vertically in bars indicate that any one of the stacked items may be used, but that only one at a time is permissible. In the example below, type either the GOTO or the GOSUB.

$$
\begin{array}{l|l|l}
100 & \text { gOTO } & 2 ø ø \varnothing \\
& \text { GOSUB }
\end{array}
$$

Command abbreviations in headings
If a command or statement has an abbreviation
associated with it, the abbreviation is placed in
parentheses following the full name of the command in
the heading (e.g., LIST (L.)).
1.3 GLOSSARY AND TERMINOLOGY

| adata | (ATASCII Data) Any ATASCII character, ex- |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | cluding commas and carriage returns. (See |
|  | Appendix C.) |

aexp (Arithmetic Expression) Generally composed of a variable, function, constant, or two arithmetic expressions separated by an arithmetic operator. See section 2.3.2.
alphanumeric
The letters A through 7 (either lower or upper case) and the digits $\emptyset$ through 9.


|  | CAUTION: when filespec is used this way, it must be the last thing on the program or command line. Also, DIR, LVAR, and RUN must always be the last command on the line. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Function | A function is a subroutine built into the computer so that it can be called by the user's program. A function is NOT statement. COS (Cosine), FRE (unused memory |
|  | space), and INT (integer) are examples of functions. In many cases the value is |
|  | simply assigned to a variable (stored in a |
|  | variable) for later use. In other cases it |
|  | may be printed out on the screen |
|  | immediately, See chapter 6 for more on |
| Keyword | Any reserved word "legal" in the BASIC |
|  | language. May be used in a statement, |
|  | command, or for any other purpose. (See |
|  | Appendix $A$ for a list of all "reserved words" or keywords in BASIC XL.) |
| 1 ineno | (Line Number) A constant that identifies a |
|  | particular program line in a deferred mode |
|  | BASIC program. Must be an integer from $\emptyset$ |
|  | through 32767. Line numbering the order of program execution. |
| Logical Line |  |
|  | A logical line consists of one to three |
|  | physical lines, and is terminated either by |
|  | a <RETURN> or when the maximum logical line limit is reached. Each numbered line in a |
|  | BASIC program consists of one logical line |
|  | when displayed on the screen. |
| lop | (Logical Operator) See section 2.2.2. |
| mvar | (Matrix Variable) Also called a Subscripted |
|  | Variable. An element of an array or matrix. |
|  | The variable name for the array or matrix as |
|  | a whole may be any legal variable name. Se section 2.1.2. |
| Operator | Operators are used in expressions to tell |
|  | the computer how it should evaluate the |
|  | iables, constants, and functions in |
|  | expression. There are two types |
|  | operators -- arithmetic and logical. For |
|  | more information, see section 2.2 |


| Physical | Line <br> One line of characters as displayed on a TV or monitor screen. |
| :---: | :---: |
| sexp | (String Expression) Can consist of a string variable, string literal (constant), or a function that returns a string value. See section 2.3.3. |
| String | A string is a group of characters enclosed in quotation marks. "ABRACADABRA" is a string. So are "OSS IS THE BEST" and "123456789". A string is much like a numeric constant (e.g., 12.4), as it may be stored in a variable. A string variable is different in that its name must end in the character $\$$. See section 2.1.3. |
| svar | (String Variable) A location where a string of characters may be stored. See 2.1 .3 and 2.1.4. |
| var | (Variable) Any variable. May be mvar, avar, or svar. See section 2.1. |
| Variable | A variable is the name for a numerical or other quantity which may (or may not) change. Variable names may be up to 120 characters long. However, a variable name must start with an alphabetic letter, and may contain only letters and digits. See section 2.1. |

### 1.4 Operating Modes

## Direct Mode

Uses no line numbers and executes instruction immediately after <RETURN> key is pressed.

Deferred Mode
Uses line numbers and delays execution of instruction(s) until the RUN command is entered.

## Execute Mode

Sometimes called RUN mode. After the RUN command is entered, each program line is processed and executed.

Memo Pad Mode
A non-programmable mode that allows the user to experiment with the keyboard or to leave messages on the screen. Nothing written while in Memo Pad mode affects the RAM-resident program.

NOTE: this mode is only available on the Atari $4 \varnothing \varnothing$ and $80 \varnothing$.

```
VARIABLES, OPERATORS, EXPRESSIONS
Chapter 2
```


### 2.1 Variables (var)

There are two basic types of variables in BASIC XL -arithmetic variables and string variables. Also, there are are three extensions to these -- arrays, matrices, and string arrays.

Arithmetic, array, and matrix variables all store numbers, and can only be used where a number is required.

String and string array variables both store character strings and can only be used where a character string is required.

There are limits to the number of variables you may use, and to the size and format of a variable name, as follows:

1) BASIC XL limits the user to 128 variable names. To bypass this problem, use individual elements of any array instead of having separate variable names. To clear the variable name table (possibly after an error 4), you can save your program using LIST, then type NEW, and then ENTER your program back in.
2) All variable names must start with an alphabetic letter, followed by either letters or digits. The name must be less than 120 characters long. All string or string array variable names must end in the '\$' (dollar sign) character.
```
2.1.1 Arithmetic Variables (avar)
```

Arithmetic variables are those which store a single number, and are the most common variables used. The following are examples of arithmetic variables:

## X

THISISANARITHMETICVARIABLE
TEMP
CHARGE

Here are some examples of arithmetic variables in use:

| $1 \varnothing \emptyset$ | LET $X=76$ | :REM here's one use |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 \emptyset \emptyset$ | FOR $I=1$ TO $1 \varnothing \emptyset$ | :REM here's a second |
| $3 \emptyset \emptyset$ | PRINT $X-2$ | :REM and a third |

460 NEXT I
500 END

### 2.1.2 Array / Matrix Variables (mvar)

An array variable is a group of memory lecations (called elements or subscripts of the array). In each one of these locations is a number; so, in essence, an array is simply a group of arithmetic variables which share a common name.

The manner in which you access a given element of an array is simple -- you merely give the array name followed by the element number in parentheses, as in the following examples:

A(3) ARRAY(14) NUMLIST (40)
The elements are numbered starting at 0 , and continue through to the DIMensioned size of the array. "How do I dimension the size?" It's easy. You use the DIM statement as follows:

| DIM $A(40)$ | REM dimension |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | REM. as as a 40 |

DIM NUMLIST(60) REM dimension 'NUMLIST' as a 60 REM element array.

For more information on the use of DIM, see section 2.1.5.

A matrix is similar to an array, except that it is two dimensional. This means that there are two numbers required to specify a given element: a row number, and
a column number. You can think of a matrix as a grid, with each box being one element. The following is a representation of a 5 by 5 matrix, where each of the boxes contains the subscripts used to access that box (element):


Dimensioning the size of a matrix is very similar to dimensioning an array, but both the row dimension and column dimension are required, e.g.:

```
DIM AMATRIX(4,4) REM a 5 by 5 matrix; remember
    REM that (0, ©), not (1,1) is
    REM the firgt element.
```

NOTE: for more information on DIM, see section 2.1.5.
When you use an element of an array or matrix, you are actually using a single number (which is what an arithmetic variable is). This means that an array or matrix element may be used wherever 'avar' can be used.

## Examples:

```
X=47.4
    ARRAY(7)=47.4
    MATRIX(4,3)=47.4
```

    IF ABS (X) < 100 THEN. . .
    IF ABS (ARRAY (7)) <10ø THEN...
    IF ABS (MATRIX \((4,3))<1 \emptyset \varnothing\) THEN...
    
### 2.1.3 String Variables (svar)

String variables are used to store literal strings of characters. A literal string of characters is simply a group of characters enclosed in double quotes:
"this is a literal string"
"numbers in quotes are strings: 34344.2"
String variable names are just like arithmetic variable names, except that they must end with a 's', as in the following examples:

STRING\$
A
To dimension the size of a string variable (i.e., define how many characters it may hold), you use the DIM statement (also see 2.1.5):

```
DIM STRING$(66)
DIM AS(10)
```

NOTE: BASIC XL will auto-dimension a string variable if you don't manually DIMension it. See 3.15 for more info on this feature.

With arrays and matrices the first element is the zeroeth, but with strings the first element is the first, e.g.:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DIM AS(10) } \\
& \text { AS="A String" }
\end{aligned}
$$

$A \$(1)=" A "$, and $A \$(\theta)$ generates an error because the first element of a string is (1), not ( 0 ) (as in arrays and matrices).
2.1.4 String Array Variables (svar)

A string array is very similar to a normal arithmetic array (section 2.1.2), except that each element is a string, not a number.

As with string variables, a string array variable must have its name end with a 's', and it is dimensioned using DIM. However, there are two quantities which need to be dimensioned -- the number of elements and the size of each element. The following examples show
how to do this (also see section 2.1.5):
DIM Strarray\$(4,40)
DIM AS (10,100)
The first example dimensions a string array called "Strarrays" with 4 elements. Each element is a string 40 characters long. The second example dimensions the string array "AS" to 10 elements, with each element being 100 characters in length.

To access one of the elements of a string array you specify the element number (the first element is number 1. not $\varnothing$ as in arithmetric arrays) followed by a semicolon (;). An example follows:
$100 \operatorname{DIM} \operatorname{AS}(3,6)$
200 AS ( $1 ;$ )="TEST"
300 A\$ (2;)="STRING"
406 AS(3;)="ARRAY"

### 2.1.5 DIM

$$
\left.\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\text { Format: }: & \text { DIM svar }(\operatorname{aexp}[, a \exp ]) \\
& \text { DIM mvar }(\operatorname{aexp}[, \operatorname{sexp}])
\end{array}\right], \operatorname{mvar}(a \exp [, a \exp ]) \ldots\right]
$$

Example: DIM A(10ø)
DIM M(6,3)
DIM BS(20)
DIM A\$ $(20,40)$
A DIM statement is used to reserve a certain number of locations in memory for an array, matrix, string, or string array.

The first example reserves 101 locations (each of which can contain any legal numeric quantity) for an array designated $A$.

The second example reserves 7 rows by 4 columns for a two-dimensional array (matrix) designated M.

The third example reserves .20 bytes for the string ${ }^{\prime} B{ }^{\prime}$.

NOTE: BASIC XL contains an auto DIMension capability for simple string variables only which you can control. For more info, see SET, section 3.15 .

The fourth example reserves a string array of 20 elements, with each string element being 40 characters long.

### 2.2 Operators

BASIC XL has two types of operators:

1) Arithmetic Operators
2) Logical (relational) Operators

As you will see in the expressions sections, either of these two types of operators may be used in arithmetic expressions, while neither may be used in a string expression.

```
2.2.1 Arithmetic Operators (aop)
```

BASIC XL uses 7 arithmetic operators:

```
+ addition (also unary plus; e.g., +5)
```

- subtraction (also unary minus; e.g., -5)
* multiplication
/ division
exponentiation
\& bitwise "AND" of two positive integers (both $<=$ 65535)
1 bitwise "OR" of two positive integers (both < $=65535$ )
\% bitwise "EOR" of two positive integers (both $<=$ 65535)

The first four are straightforward enough, but the last four require some explanation.

The "A" operator is used to raise a number to a specified power. The following examples should clarify this:

| Exponent | Expanded | Result |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $4 \wedge 2$ | $4 * 4$ | 16 |
| $5 \wedge 3$ | $5 * 5 * 5$ | 125 |



```
                                    Bit-wise Or
I returns a value depen-
\begin{tabular}{ccc} 
& \multicolumn{3}{c}{ Bit-wise or } \\
Bit A & Bit & Result \\
1 & 1 & 1 \\
6 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1
\end{tabular}
    Example: 5 | 39 -- 00600101 (5)
                60106111 (39)
                    l ---------
                        60100111 (result of i is 39)
* returns a value depen-
\begin{tabular}{ccc} 
& \multicolumn{3}{c}{ Bit-wise } \\
Bit A & Bit B & Result \\
1 & 1 & 0 \\
6 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 6
\end{tabular}
    Examplez 5: 39-- 00000101 (5)
        00109111 (39)
        * ----------
            g0100010 (result of is 34)
2.2.2 Logical Operators (lop)
The logical operators consist of three types: rela-
tional, unary, and binary.
The rest of the binary operators are relational.
* The firat expression is leas than the second expression.
> The first expression is greater than the second.
* The expressions are equal to each other.
<= The first expression is less than or equal to the second.
>m The first expression is greater than or equal to the second.
<< The two expressions are not equal to each other.
```


## Examples:

```
x >= 7
    X << INT(Y)
```

These operators are most frequently used in IF/THEN statements (i.e.. in relational tests), but may also be used in arithmetic expressions. When used in this way, a 1 remults the logical test proved true, and a $b$ results if the test proved false.

The unary operator is NOT, and the binary operators are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { AND -- Logical AND } \\
& \text { OR -- Logical OR }
\end{aligned}
$$

Examples:

```
1| IF A=12 AND T=| THEN PRINT "GOOD" Both expressions
    must be true before GOOD
    is printed (that is, A
    must equal }12\mathrm{ and T must
    equal ø).
    If both expressions true,
    A = +1; Otherwise A = Ø.
    If either expression true,
    A=+1; Otherwise A = \varnothing.
    If expression is false,
    A= +1; otherwise A= @.
```


### 2.2.3 Operator Precedence

Operators require some kind of precedence, a defined order of evaluation, or we wouldn't know how to evaluate expressions like :

4+5*3
Is this equal to $(4+5) * 3$ or $4+(5 * 3)$ ? Without operator precedence it's impossible to tell. BASIC XL's normal precedence is very precise, as shown in the following table. The operators are listed in order of highest to lowest precedence. Operators on the same line are evaluated left to right in an expression.


Parentheses
Relational Operators when used to evaluate strings
in arithmetic expressions
NOT, Unary Plus and Minus
Exponentiation
bitwise EOR, OR, AND
Multiplicative Operations
Additive Operations
Relational Operators
Logical 'and'
Logical 'or'
Examples showing the above precedence in use can be found in section 2.3.2.
--16--

### 2.3 Expressions (exp)

Expressions are constructions which obtain values from variables, constants, and functions using a specific set of operators. In BASIC XL there are two types of expressions -- arithmetic and string. Each of these is dealt with separately, but before going into the expressions themselves something needs to be said about the constant numbers used in arithmetic expressions.

### 2.3.1 Numbers

All numbers in BASIC $X L$ are $B C D$ floating point, but there are two ways to enter them -- in decimal or hexadecimal.

Decimal numbers may either be whole integers, fractions, or scientific notation. The following are examples of each:

| Integers: | Fractions: | Sci. Notation: |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -4027 | -67.254 | 4.33 E 2 |
| -2 | 325.04 | $23.4 \mathrm{E}-14$ |

The 'E' in the scientific notation examples stands for "exponent". The number following it is the power of ten (e.g., 4.33E2 means " 4.33 multiplied by 10 squared").

Hexadecimal numbers can only be integers, and the digits must be preceeded by a 's', as in the following examples:

| $\$ 4 A 3 \varnothing$ | $-\$ 0 A$ | \$6FF |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $-\$ E$ | $-\$ A \sigma \varnothing \sigma$ | \$FFFF |

The maximum hexadecimal value allowed is \$FFFF.
Internal Format of Numbers:

Numbers are represented internally in 6 bytes. There is a 5 byte mantissa containing 10 BCD digits and a one byte exponent.

The most significant bit of the exponent byte gives the sign of the mantissa ( 0 for postive, 1 for negative). The least significant 7 bits of the exponent byte gives the exponent in excess 64 notation. Internally, the exponent represents powers of 100 (not powers of 10).

$$
--17 \sim
$$

```
Example:
    0.02=2*10^-2=2* * = |^-1
exponent = -1 + 40=3F
    \emptyset.\emptyset2 = 3F Ø2 0\emptyset 0\emptyset \emptyset\emptyset \emptyset\emptyset
```

The implied decimal point is always to the right of the
first byte. An exponent less than hex $4 \varnothing$ indicates a
number less than 1. An exponent greater than or equal
to hex 40 represents a number greater than or equal to
1.

Zero is represented by a zero mantissa and a zero exponent.

In general, numbers have a 9 digit precision. For example, only the first 9 digits are significant when INPUTing a number. Internally the user can usually get 10 significant digits in the special case where there are an even number of digits to the right of the decimal point (0,2,4...).
2.3.2 Arithmetic Expressions (aexp)

Arithmetic expressions are those which evaluate to a number. Following is a list of expression elements which are considered to be numbers:

1) a constant number
2) an avar (including subscripted mvars)
3) a function which returns a number
4) two sexps compared using a relational operator

The first three are straightforward, but the fourth requires an example:
$100 \mathrm{~S} \$=$ "ABC"
200 PRINT S\$く "DEF"
300 END
prints out:

## 1

because the logical comparison of the two strings is true.

An arithmetic expression can simply be one of the above, or two or more of the above separated by

$$
--18--
$$

operators (either arithmetic or logical). The following are examples of arithmetic expressions, including the order of the operators' evaluation (in any) and the result:

| Expression | evaluation Order | Result |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3* $(4+(21 / 7) * 2)$ | /,**** | 30 |
| "ABC" > "DEF"+7* (ASC ( ${ }^{\text {(A") }}$ ) | >, ASC, *, + | 455 |
| $X=100: Y=2$ |  |  |
| INT ( $\mathrm{X} * \mathrm{Y} / 3$ ) | *./. INT | 66 |

2.3.3 String Expressions (sexp)

String expressions are much simplier than arithmetic expressions since there are fewer things they can be. The following list shows all the valid string expression possibilities:

1) a string constant
2) an svar (including subscripted string arrays)
3) a function which returns a string
4) substring of an svar or string array

This is the first time we ve seen the word "substring" used, so we need to define and to explain it.

| String | Definition when Destination String | Definition when Source String |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S\$ | the entire string 1 thru DIM value | from lst thru LEN character |
| $\boldsymbol{s}$ ( n ) | from nth thru DIMth character | from nth thru LENgth character |
| $s$ ( $n, m)$ | from the nth thru the mth character | from the nth thru the mth character |
| SAS (e; ) | same as $\mathrm{s} s$, exceṕt string is eth element of SAS | same as $\mathrm{S} \$$, except string is eth element of SAS |
| SAS (e;n) | same as $s \$(n)$, <br> except string is eth element of SAS | same as $\mathbf{s} \boldsymbol{s}(n)$, except string is eth element of SAS |

```
SAS(e;n,m) same as S$(n,m) same as S$(n,m)
    except string is
    eth element of SAS
except string is
eth element of SAS
```

A destination string is one to which something is being assigned. Any other string is a source string. In

| $\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{Y} \$$ | READ X\$ | INPUT X\$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| RPUT Y\$ | PRINT Y\$ | etc. |

$X \$$ is the destination string, $Y \$$ is the source string.
An error occurs if either the first or last specified character ( $n$ and $m$, above), or the element number (in the case of string arrays) is outside the DIMensioned size. Also, an error occurs if the last character position given (explicitly or implicitly) is less than the first character position.

Source Example:

```
(Assume A$ = "VWXYZ")
```

1) PRINT A\$(2) prints: WXYZ
2) PRINT AS(3,4) prints: $X Y$
3) PRINT A\$(5,5) prints: Z
4) PRINT A\$(7) is an error because $A \$$ has a length of 5 .

Destination Example: (Assume DATA "VWXYZ")

1) READ D\$ PRINT DS prints: VWXYZ

Some of the commands available in BASIC XL are designed specifically to aid in quick and effective program development. The operations these commands execute are too diverse to describe in detail here, so we'll simply give their names and refer you to the section in which the particular command is discussed:

| BYE | LIST | RENUM |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| CLR | LOMEM | RUN |
| CONT | LVAR | SET |
| DEL | NEW | STOP |
| DOS | NUM | TRACE |
| FAST | REM | TRACEOFF |

3.1 BYE (B.)

Format: BYE
Example: BYE
The function of the BYE command is to exit BASIC XL and put the computer in Memo Pad mode. This allows you to experiment with the keyboard or to leave messages on the screen without disturbing any BASIC XL program in memory. To return to BASIC XL, press <SYSTEM RESET>.

### 3.2 CLR

Format: CLR
Example: 200 CLR
This command clears the memory of all previously dimensioned strings, arrays, and matrices so the memory and variable names can be used for other purposes. It also clears the values stored in undimensioned variables. If a matrix, string, or array is needed after a CLR command, it must be redimensioned with a DIM command.

```
3.3 CONT (CON.)
```

Format: CONT

Example: CONT
$10 \varnothing$ CONT
In direct mode, this command resumes program execution after a STOP statement, a <BREAK> key abort, or any stop caused by an error.

CAUTION: Execution resumes on the line following the halt, so any statements following the halt (and on the same line as the halt) will not be executed.

In deferred mode, CONT may be used for error trap handling.

Example:
10 TRAP 100
20 OPEN \#1,12, $0, " D: X "$
30
-•
$10 \varnothing$ IF ERR(Ø)=17ø THEN
OPEN \#1,8, Ø, "D: X": CONT
In line 20 we attempt to open a file for updating. If the file does not exist, a trap to line l0Ø occurs. If the "FILE NOT FOUND" error occured, the file is opened for output (and thus created) and execution continues at line 30 via "CONT".
3.4 DEL

Format: DEL line[,line]
Example: DEL 100Ø. 1999
DEL deletes program lines currently in memory. If two line numbers are given (as in the example), all lines between the two numbers (inclusive) are deleted. $A$ single line number deletes a single line.

Example:
$1 \varnothing 0$ DEL 10øØ.1999
110 SET 9.1:TRAP 1ǿøø
120 ENTER "D:OVERLAY1"
10øø REM These lines are deleted by line 100.
1010 REM Presumably they will be overlaid by
1998 REM the program ENTERed in line 120.
1999 REM See 'ENTER' and 'SET' for more info.

Format: DOS
Example: DOS
The DOS command is used to go from BASIC XL to the Disk Operating System (DOS). If the Disk Operating System has not been booted into memory, the computer will go into Memo Pad mode and the user must press <SYSTEM RESET> to return to Direct mode. If the Disk Operating System has been booted, control is given to DOS. To return to BASIC XL, press 'CAR' 〈RETURN> for OS/A+ or DOS XL, or press 'B' 〈RETURN> for Atari DOS.

NOTE: The command CP is exactly equivalent to DOS.
DOS is usually used in Direct mode; however, it may be used in a program. For more details on this, see your DOS manual.

```
3.6 FAST
```

Format: [1ineno] FAST
Example: FAST
106 FAST
During normal program execution BASIC XL must search (from the beginning) for a specified line number whenever it encounters a GOTO, GOSUB, FOR, or WHILE (this is how most of the other BASICs do it too). However, you can change this by using the FAST command.

When BASIC XL sees 'FAST', it does a precompile of the program currently in memory. During the precompile BASIC XL changes every line number to the address of that line in memory. Now, when a GOTO, GOSUB, FOR, or WHILE is executed, no line number search is needed, since BASIC XL can simply jump right to the specified line's address.

NOTE: if the lineno used in the GOTO or GOSUB is not a constant (i.e., is a variable or an expression), then that lineno will not be affected by FAST, and so will RUN at normal speed.

Format: LIST [lineno [, lineno]
LIST ["filespec"[,lineno [, lineno]]]
Examples:
LIST
LIST 10
LIST 10,106
LIST 19
LIST "P:"
LIST "D:DEMO.LST"
LIST "P:",2ø,1øø
LIST causes the program currently in memory to be displayed. You can display a single line by giving the line number after the 'LIST', or display a group of lines by giving the starting line number and ending line number (separated by a comma) after the 'LIST'.

If you give the starting line number, a comma, and no end address, the ending line number is assumed to be the last line in the program.

If no line number(s) is given, the entire program is displayed.

You can also redirect the display to a file by entering the filespec enclosed in double quotes immediately after the 'LIST'. You can then add any of the line number specifications described above to list only what you want to that file.

LIST can be used in Deferred mode as part of an error trapping routine (See TRAP in Section 4).

NOTE: the quotes around the filespec are required for LIST, unless of course a string variable is used.
3.8 LOMEM

| Format: | LOMEM addr |
| :--- | :--- |
| Example: | LOMEM DPEEK $(128)+1024$ |

This command is used to reserve space below the normal program space. You could then use this space for screen display information or assembly language routines. The usefulness of this may be limited, though, since there are other more usable reserved areas available.

CAUTION: LOMEM wipes out any user program currently in memory.

```
3.9 LVAR (LV.)
```

Format:
Example:

LVAR [filespec]
LVAR $\mathrm{P}:$

This statement will list (to any file) all variables currently in use. Each variable is followed by a list of the lines on which that variable is used. The example above will list the variables to the printer. If no filespec is used then LVAR lists to the screen.

NOTE: strings are denoted by a trailing '\$', arrays by a trailing '('.

WARNING: LVAR must be the last (or only) command on a line.
3.10 NEW

Format: NEW
Example: NEW
This command erases the program stored in RAM. Therefore, before typing NEW, either SAVE or CSAVE any programs to be recovered and used later. NEW clears BASIC's internal symbol table so that no arrays (See Section 8) or strings (See Section 7) are defined. NEW is normally used in Direct mode but is sometimes useful in deferred mode as an alternative to END.
3.11 NUM

Format:
Example: NUM
NUM 50
NUM , 1
NUM 50.1

The NUM command enables BASIC XI's automatic line numbering facility. This facility can increase your program entry speed because it puts in the program line numbers for you.

If no start or increment is given (first example), NUM will start numbering from the last line number currently in the program in increments of 10. If there
is no current program, NUM will start with line number 10.

If the starting line number alone is given (second example), NUM will start numbering from that line number in increments of 10 .

If the increment alone is given (third example), NUM wil start numbering from the last line currently in the program, incrementing by the number you gave it as an increment.

If both the starting line number and the increment are given (last example), NUM will start numbering from the given line number and increment by the given increment value.

Three things cause the automatic line numbering to stop:

1) If you press <RETURN> immmediately following the line number.
2) If a syntax or similar error is encountered on a program line you type in.
3) If the next automatic line number is the same as a line number already in the program. This keeps you from overwriting previously written parts of your program.

NOTE: If the starting line number you give already exists, then the automatic line numbering will not begin.

```
3.12 REM (R.)
```


## Format: REM text

Examples: 10 REM ROUTINE TO CALCULATE X 20 GOSUB 300 : REM Find Totals

REM stands for "remark" and.is used to put comments into a program. This command and the text following it on the same line are ignored by the computer. However, it is included in a LIST along with the other numbered lines. Since all characters following a REM are treated as part of the REMark, no statements following it (on the same logical line) will be executed.

| Format: | RENUM [start][, increment] |
| :---: | :---: |
| Examples: | RENUM |
|  | RENUM $10 \emptyset$ |
|  | RENUM , 30 |
|  | RENUM 1000,5 |
| RENUM renumbers t | ire program as it currently |
| resides in memo | e first line in memory is given |
| the line number | fied by 'start', and each |
| subsequent line n | is one 'increment' greater than |
| the last. |  |
| All line number re | es (e.g., in GOTO, GOSUB, etc.) |
| are also renumbere | he line numbers are absolute |
| numbers. Line | $r$ expressions (e.g., GOTO |
| 1øøø+10*INDEX) wil | be renumbered. |
| If no 'start' line | r is given, RENUM assumes a |
| starting line nu | of 10. If no 'increment' is |
| given, RENUM will | er lines in increments of 10. |
| (That is, just | 'RENUM' is equivalent to typing |
| 'RENUM 10,10'.) |  |

As noted in the examples above, both start and increment are separately optional.

WARNING: If you use LIST in deferred mode (i.e., in a program) the lineno values you want to list will not be RENUMbered.

WARNING: RENUM will not renumber absolute linenos after a lineno expressed as an expression. Example:

ON X GOSUB 100,3*Y,2ø0
In this example 100 will be RENUMbered, but 200 will not, since it follows a lineno expressed as an expression (3*y).
3.14 RUN

Format: RUN [filespec]
Examples: RUN
RUN D:MENU
This command causes the computer to begin executing a program. If no filespec is specified, the current RAM-resident program is executed. If a filespec is included, the computer retrieves the tokenized program
from the specified file, executes a FAST command (see section 3.6 ), and then executes the program.

Before execution begins all variables (including arrays, strings, and matrices) are set to zero, all open files (channels) are closed, and all sounds are turned off.

Unless the TRAP command is used, an error will cause the execution to halt and an error message will. be displayed.

RUN can also be used in Deferred mode.
Examples: 10 PRINT "OVER AND OVER AGAIN." 20 RUN

Type RUN and press <RETURN>. To end, press <BREAK>.
To begin program execution at a point other than the first line number, type GOTO followed by the specific line number, then press <RETURN». CAUTION: arithmetic variables,arrays, and strings are neither cleared or initialized by GOTO.

NOTE: RUN must be the last (or only) command on a line.
3.15 SET

Format: SET aexpl,aexp2
Example: $1 \varnothing 0$ SET 1,5
SET is a statement which allows you to exercise rontrol over a varity of BASIC XL system level functions. The table below summarizes the various SET table parameters (default values are given in parentheses).


| aexpl |  | aexp2 | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | (0) | $\emptyset$ | -FOR...NEXT loops always execute at least once (ala ATARI BASIC). |
|  |  | 1 | -FOR loops may execute zero times (ANSI standard) |
| 4 | (a) | $\emptyset$ | -On a mutiple variable INPUT, if the user enters too few items, he is reprompted (e.g.. with "??") |
|  |  | 1 | -Instead of reprompting, a TRAPable error occurs. |
| 5 | (1) | $\varnothing$ | -Lower case and inverse video characters remain unchanged without causing syntax errors (BASIC XL allows mixed case program entry). |
|  |  | 1 | -For program entry ONLY, lower case letters are converted to upper case and inverse video characters are uninverted. EXCEPTION: characters between quotes remain unchanged. |
|  |  |  | CAUTION: this conversion applies to REMarks and DATA statements also. For total compatibility with Atari BASIC, it might be best to use SET 5, 0 . |
| 6 | (0) | $\varnothing$ | -Print error messages along with error numbers (for most errors) |
|  |  | 1 | -Print only error numbers. |
| 7 | (6) | $\emptyset$ | -Missiles (in Player / Missile Graphics), which move vertically to the edge of the screen, roll off the edge and are lost. |
|  |  | 1 | -Missiles wraparound from top to bottom and visa versa. |
| 8 | (1) | $\emptyset$ | -Don't push (PHA) the number of parameters to a USR call on the stack [advantage: some assembly language. subroutines not expecting parameters may be called by a simple USR(addr) ]. |
|  |  | 1 | -DO push. the count of parameters (ATARI BASIC standard). |



```
    5) 100 SET 3.1
    110 FOR I = 1 TO 0
    120 PRINT " THIS LINE WON'T BE EXECUTED"
    130 NEXT I
3.16 STOP
Format: STOP
Example: 100 STOP
When the STOP command is executed in a program, BASIC XL displays the message STOPPED AT LINE Iineno, terminates program execution, and returns to Direct mode. The STOP command does not close files or turn off sounds (as does END), so the program can be resumed by typing CONT <RETURN> (see section 3.3 for more info on CONT).
3.17 TRACE and TRACEOFF
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Formats: & TRACE \\
& TRACEOFF \\
Examples: & \\
& 1øのTRACE \\
& TRACEOFF
\end{tabular}
These statements are used to enable or disable the line number trace facility of BASIC XL. When in TRACE mode, the line number of a line about to be executed is displayed on the screen surrounded by square brackets.
Exceptions: The first line of a program does not have its number traced. The object line of a GOTO or GOSUB and the looping line of FOR or WHILE may not be traced.
NOTE: A direct statement (e.g.. RUN) is TRACED as having line number 32768.
```

This chapter explains the commands associated with loops, conditional and unconditional branches, error traps, and subroutines. It also explains the means of accessing data and the optional command used for defining variables.

The following commands are described in this chapter:

| Assignment statement | LET |
| :--- | :--- |
| END | MOVE |
| FOR...TO...STEP/NEXT | ON...GOTO/GOSUB |
| GOSUB... RETURN | POP |
| GOTO | RESTORE |
| IF...THEN | TRAP |
| IF...ELSE...ENDIF | WHILE...ENDWHILE |

4.1 Assignment Statement

| Format: | ```avar=aexp mvar(aexp)=aexp svar(aexp;)=sexp [,sexp...] svar=sexp [,sexp...]``` |
| :---: | :---: |
| Example: | $X=9$ |
|  | $\mathrm{I}=\mathrm{X}+7$ * 9 |
|  | ARRAY ( 7 ) $=23.75$ |
|  | A§ (4;)="A STRING ARRAY ELEMENT" |
|  | S $\$=$ "THIS IS A STRING" |
|  | M§="CONCATENATED" |
|  | $\mathbf{c}$ ¢ $=\mathbf{S} \$$, " WHICH IS ", M\$ |

The assignment statement is used to assign a value to a variable, and can be used with arithmetic, matrix (array), or string variables (including string arrays).

The first and second examples given simply equate an avar to an aexp. If you insert a 'PRINT I' statement after the second example, 72 (the value of I) will be printed. The third equates one element of a mvar to an aexp.

The fourth example is somewhat more complicated; it equates one element of a string array to a sexp (in this case a string constant).

The fifth and sixth examples equate svars to sexps.

String concatenation may be accomplished via the form shown in the last example above. Note that
$A \$=B \$, C \$$
is exactly equivalent to
$A \$=B \$$
$\mathrm{A}(\operatorname{LEN}(\mathrm{A} S)+1)=\mathrm{C} \$$
From this you can see that $C \$$ in the last example is equal to "THIS IS A STRING WHICH IS CONCATENATED".

Here is another example:
100 DIM A\$(100), B\$(100)
200 A\$="123"
$300 \mathrm{~B}={ }^{18} \mathrm{ABC"}$
400 AS=AS,BS, AS
5øø REM At this point $A S=" 123 A B C 123 A B C "$
$600 \mathrm{~A}(4,9)=" X ", \operatorname{STR}(3 * 7), " X "$
7øø REM At this point, $A \$=" 123 \times 21 \times 23 A B C "$
806 A $(7)=A \$(1,3)$
9øØ REM Finally, AS="123X21123"
NOTE: for more information on variables and expressions, see chapter 2.

### 4.2 END

Format: END
Example: 10øø END
This command is used to terminate the execution of a program. In addition to this, it also closes all files and turns off any sounds. It does not change the GRAPHICS mode, however. END is not required in most programs because BASIC XL automatically closes all files and turns off any sounds after the last program line has executed.

If you have any subroutines following the main program you should put an END at the end of the main program; otherwise the subroutines will be executed as part of the main program.

END may also be used in Direct mode to close files and turn off sounds.
4.3 FOR(F.)...TO...STEP / NEXT(N.)

| Format: | FOR avar $=$ aexpl TO aexp2 [STEP aexp3] NEXT avar |
| :---: | :---: |
| Examples: | FOR $X=1$ TO 10 NEXT X |
|  | FOR $Y=10$ to 20 STEP 2 NEXT Y |
|  | FOR INDEX $=\mathrm{z}$ TO 1øø * z NEXT INDEX |

The FOR statement is used to repeat a group of statements a specified number of times. It does this by initializing the loop variable (avar) to the value of aexpl. Each time the NEXT avar statement is encountered, the loop variable is incremented by the amount specified by aexp3 in the 'STEP' option. aexp3 can be either positive or negative, either a fraction or a whole number. If the 'STEP' option is not used, the loop increments by one. When the loop completes the limit as defined by aexp2, it stops and the program proceeds to the statement immediately following the NEXT statement.

FOR loops can be nested, one within another. In this case, the innermost loop is completed before returning to the outer loop. The following example illustrates a nested loop program.


The outer loop will complete three passes ( $x=1$ to 3). However, before this first loop reaches its NEXT $X$ statement, the program gives control to the inner loop. Note that the NEXT statement for the inner loop must precede the NEXT statement for the outer loop. Tn the example, the inner loop's number of passes is determined by the STEP statement (STEP Z). In this case, $Z$ has been defined as $\emptyset$, then redefined as $Z+2$. Using this data, the computer must complete three passes through the inner loop before returning to the
outer loop. The following is the output of the program when it is RUN:

```
OUTER LOOP
    INNER LOOP
    INNER LOOP
    INNER LOOP
OUTER LOOP
    INNER LOOP
    INNER LOOP
    INNER LOOP
OUTER LOOP
    INNER LOOP
    INNER LOOP
    INNER LOOP
```

The return addresses for the loops are placed in a special group of memory addresses referred to as a stack. The information is "pushed" on the stack and when used, the information is "popped" off the stack (see POP).

```
4.4 GOSUB (GOS.) / RETURN (RET.)
```

| Format: |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Example: | 100 GOSUB 2000 |
|  | $20 \emptyset 0$ PRINT "SUBROUTINE" |
|  | 2010 FOR X=1 TO 10 |
|  | 2020 PRINT $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{X}$ * X |
|  | 2030 NEXT X |
|  | 2040 RETURN |

A subroutine is a program or routine used to compute a certain value,etc. It is generally used when an operation must be executed several times within a program sequence using the same or different values. This command allows the user to "call" the subroutine, if necessary. The last line of the subroutine must contain a RETURN statement: The RETURN statement goes back to the physical line following the GOSUB statement.

Generally, a subroutine can do anything that can be done in a program. It is used to save memory and program-entering time, and to make programs easier to read and debug.

Like the preceding FOR/NEXT command, the GOSUB/RETURN command uses a stack for its return address. If the subroutine is not allowed to complete normally; e.g., a GOTO lineno before a RETURN, the GOSUB address must be "popped" off the stack (see POP) or it could cause future errors.

To prevent accidental triggering of a subroutine (which normally follows the main program), place an END statement preceding the subroutine. The following program demonstrates the use of subroutines.


In the above program, the subroutine, beginning at line 1øøø, is called three times to compute and print out different values of $X$ and $Y$. Below are the results of executing this program.

| $40 \varnothing$ | $3 \sigma \varnothing$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $48 \varnothing$ | $36 \varnothing$ |
| $20 \varnothing$ | $15 \varnothing$ |

4.5 GOTO (G.)


The GOTO command is an unconditional branch statement just like the GOSUB command. They both immediately transfer program control to a target line number or arbitrary expression. However, You cannot RETURN from a GOTO, as you can with a GOSUB. If the target line number is non-existent, an error results. Any GOTO statement that branches to a preceding line may result in an "endless" loop. Statements following a GOTO statement will not be executed. Note that a conditional branching statement (see IF/THEN) can be
used to break out of a GOTO loop. The following program illustrates uses the GOTO statement twice.

```
10 FINISH=70
2@ PRINT :PRINT "ONE"
30 PRINT "TWO"
4ø PRINT "THREE"
50 PRINT "FOUR"
60 PRINT "FIVE"
6 5 \text { GOTO 10ø}
70 PRINT "$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$"
8ø PRINT "/././././.1./././././././././././."
90 PRINT "?7??3?7???3?2??2?2"
95 END
10日 PRINT "SIX"
110 PRINT "SEVEN"
120 PRINT "EIGHT"
13g PRINT "NINE"
140 PRINT "TEN"
150 GOTO FINISH
```

Upon execution, the numbers in the above listing will be listed first followed by the three rows of symbols. The symbols listed on lines 70, 80, and 90 are ignored temporarily while the program executes the GOTO $1 \varnothing \sigma$ command. It proceeds with the printing of the numbers "SIX" through "TEN", then executes the second GOTO statement which transfers program control back to line 70. (This is just an example. This program could be rewritten so that no GOTO statements were used.) The program, when executed, looks like the following:

```
ONE
TWO
THREE
FOUR
FIVE
SIX
SEVEN
EIGHT
NINE
TEN
$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
/.1.1././.1././.1./.1.1.1././././.
3?32323323323?33??
```

NOTE: using anything other than a constant will make renumbering the lineno in the GOTO (using RENUM) difficult. However, readability may be markedly improved.
4.6 IF/THEN

Format: IF aexp THEN lineno
Examples: IF X $=10 \emptyset$ THEN 150
IF AS $=$ "ATARI" THEN $20 \emptyset$
IF $A A=145$ and $B B=1$ THEN PRINT AA, BB
IF $X=1 \varnothing \varnothing$ THEN $X=\emptyset$
See also IF...ELSE...ENDIF discussion in the following section.

The IF/THEN statement is a conditional branch statement. This type of branch occurs only if certain conditions are met. These conditions may be either arithmetical or logical. If the aexp following the IF statement is true and/or non-zero, the program executes the THEN part of the statement. If, however, the aexp is false and/or zero, the rest of the statement is ignored and program control passes to the next numbered line.

In the format, IF aexp THEN lineno
lineno must be a constant (not an expression) specifying the line number to go to if the expression is true. If several statements occur after the THEN, separated by colons, then they will be executed if and only if the expression is true. Several IF statements may be nested on the same line. For example:

100 IF X=5 THEN IF $Y=3$ THEN $R=9:$ GOTØ 2øØ
The statements $R=9$ : GOTO 200 will be executed only if $X=5$ and $Y=3$. The statement $Y=3$ will be executed if $X=5$. The following program demonstrates the IF/THEN statement:

```
100 GRAPHICS | : PRINT
110 PRINT .,"IF DEMO"
120 PRINT : PRINT "ENTER A"; : INPUT A
130 IF A=1 THEN 150 : REM Multiple Statements
here will never be executed|l!
140 PRINT : PRINT "A IS NOT 1, "EXECUTION
CONTINUES HERE WHEN EXPRESSION IS FALSE."
150 IF A=1 THEN PRINT : PRINT "A=1?" : PRINT
"YES, IT IS REALLY 1." : REM Multiple statements
here will be executed only if A=1||!
160 PRINT : PRINT "EXECUTION CONTINUES HERE IF
A <> 1 OR AFTER 'YES, IT IS REALLY I'IS DISP
LAYED."
60 GOTO 10
```

Output of the above program is:
IF DEmo

| ENTER A ? ${ }^{\text {a }}$ (entered 2) |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
| THE EXPRESSION IS FALSE. |  |
| EXECUTION CONTINUES HERE IF A<>l OR AFter |  |
| 'YES', IT IS REALLY 1' IS DISPLAYED. |  |
| ENTER A ? | (entered 1) |
| $\mathrm{A}=1$ |  |
| YES, IT IS REALLY 1. |  |
| EXECUTION CONTINUES HERE IF A <> 1 OR | AFTER |
| 'YES, IT IS REALLY 1' IS DISPLAYED. |  |

### 4.7 IF...ELSE...ENDIF

Format:
IF aexp: statement [:statements...]
[ELSE: [statements...]]
ENDIF
Examples: $\quad 2 ø \varnothing$ IF A>1øø:PRINT "TOO BIG"
210 A=100
220 ELSE:PRINT "A-OK"
236 ENDIF
1øøø IF $A>C$ : $B=A$ : ELSE : $B=C$ : ENDIF
BASIC XL makes available an exceptionally powerful conditional capability via IF...ELSE...ENDIF.

In the format given, if the expression is TRUE (evaluates as non-zero) then all statements between the following colon and the corresponding ELSE (if it exists) or ENDIF (if no ELSE exists) are executed; if ELSE exists, the statements between it and ENDIF are skipped.

If the expression is FALSE (evaluates to zero), then the statements (if any) between the colon and ELSE are skipped and those between ELSE and ENDIF are executed. If no ELSE exists, all statements through the ENDIF are skipped.

CAUTION: The colon following the aexp IS REQUIRED and MUST be followed by a statement. The word THEN is NOT ALLOWED in this format.

There may be any number (including zero) of statements and lines between the colon and the ELSE and between the ELSE and the ENDIF.

The second example above sets $B$ to the larger of the values of $A$ and $C$.

This IF structure may also be nested, as follows:

```
100 IF A>B : REM SO FAR A IS BIGGER
110 IF A>C : PRINT "A BIGGEST"
120 ELSE : PRINT "C BIGGEST"
130 ENDIF
140 ELSE
150 IF B>C : PRINT "B BIGGEST"
160 ELSE : PRINT "C BIGGEST"
17% ENDIF
180 ENDIF
```

4.8 LET

Format: [LET] <assignment statement>
Example: LET GOTO=3.5
LET LETTERS="a"
LET AND\$="*", AS,AS,AS,A\$,A\$
LET is an optional keyword which allows you to assign a value to a variable name which starts with or is identical to a reserved name. For example:

10 LET GOSUBBER $=5$
20 LET PRINT = 7
30 LET LET = PRINT + GOSUBBER
$4 \emptyset$ PRINT PRINT,LET, GOSUBBER
will print out:
7
125
There are a few keywords which CANNOT be used as variable names through the use of LET, including any function name and the NOT unary operator.

Here is is an example of what will happen if you try to use one of the above as a variable name:

10 CSHARP $=37$
20 LET NOTE $=$ CSHARP
$3 \varnothing$ PRINT NOTE
will print out: 1
If you LIST the program out you will see why. It lists " $3 \varnothing$ PRINT NOTE" as

30 PRINT NOT E
because the interpreter does not allow NOT to start a variable name.

### 4.9 MOVE

Format: MOVE aexpl, aexp2,aexp3
Example: MOVE \$Døøø, \$8øØø, \$4ØØ
CAUTION: be careful with this command!!
MOVE is a general purpose byte move utility which will move any number of bytes from any address to any address at assembly language speed. NO ADDRESS CHECKS ARE MADE!!
aexpl is the starting address of the block you want to move, aexp2 is the starting address of the place where you want the block moved to, and aexp3 is the length of the block.

The sign of the third aexp (the length) determines the order in which the bytes are moved, as follows:

If the length is postive:
(from) -> (to)
(from+1) $\rightarrow$ (tot1)
$($ fromtlen-1) $\rightarrow$ (to +len-1)
When the length is positive, the destination block can overwrite lower part of the source block.

If the length is negative:
(from+len-1) $\rightarrow$ (totlen-1)
$(f r o m+l e n-2) \rightarrow($ totlen-2)

(from+1) $\rightarrow$ (to +1)
(from) $\rightarrow$ (to)
When the length is negative, the destination block can overwrite the upper part of the source block.


NOTE：GOSUB and GOTO may not be abbreviated when used in conjunction with ON．

These two statements are also conditional branch statements like the IF／THEN statement．However，these two are more powerful．The aexp must evaluate to a positive number which is then rounded to the nearest positive integer（whole number）value up to 255．If $t$ he resulting number is 1 ，then program control passes to the first lineno in the list following the GOSUB or GOTO．If the resulting number is 2 ，program control passes to the second lineno in the list，and so on．

If the resulting number is $\emptyset$ or is greater than th $e$ number of linenos in the list，the conditions are not met and program control passes to the next statement which may or may not be located on the same line．With ON／GOSUB，the selected subroutine is executed and then program control passes to the statement following the ON／GOSUB．

The following routine demonstrates the ON／GOTO statement：
$10 \mathrm{X}=\mathrm{X}+1$
20 ON X GOTO $100,200,300,400,500$
36 IF X＞5 THEN PRINT＂COMPLETE．＂：END
40 GOTO 16
50 END
106 PRINT＂NOW WORKING AT LINE 100＂：GOTO 10
206 PRINT＂NOW WORKING AT LINE 2øø＂：GOTO 10
300 PRINT＂NOW WORKING AT LINE $300^{\circ}:$ GOTO 10
400 PRINT＂NOW WORKING AT LINE 400＂：GOTO 10
506 PRINT＂NOW WORKING AT LINE 50日＂：GOTO 10
When the program is executed，it looks like the following：

NOW WORKING AT LINE 100
NOW WORKING AT LINE 200
NOW WORKING AT LINE $3 \varnothing \varnothing$ NOW WORKING AT LINE 400 NOW WORKING AT LINE 5引も COMPLETE．
4.11 POP

Format: POP
Example: 1øøØ POP
In the description of the FOR/NEXT statement, the stack was defined as a group of memory addresses reserved for return addresses. The top entry in the stack controls the number of loops to be executed and the RETURN target line for a GOSUB. If a subroutine is not terminated by a RETURN statement, the top memory location of the stack is still loaded with some numbers. If another GOSUB is executed, that top location needs to be cleared. To prepare the stack for a new GOSUB, use a POP to clear the data from the top location in the stack.

The POP command could be used in the following ways:

1) In a FOR or WHILE statement, when you wish jump out of the loop before it has executed its specified number of times le.g., if you are searching through a lot of data for a specific item, you can leave the loop early by popping the stack, and then using GOTO to continue execution after the NEXT). Example:
```
10 FLAG = 1
20 WHILE FLAG
30 INPUT FLAG
4\varnothing IF FLAG < Ø THEN POP : GOTO 7\emptyset
5\emptyset PRINT "IN THE WHILE LOOP"
60 ENDWHILE
70 END
```

2) After a subroutine (GOSUB) which does not give control back to the main program through the use of a RETURN. The following example illustrates this instance:
```
10\emptyset REM POP Demo
110N=1 : GOSUB 800
120N=2 : GOSUB 800
130 END
80\emptyset PRINT "At Line 80g"
810 GOSUB 900
820 PRINT "At Line 820"
830 RETURN
9ø0 PRINT "At Line 9ø0"
910 IF N = 2 THEN POP
926 RETURN
```

4.12 RESTORE (RES.)

```
--ーー-*--
    Format: RESTORE [aexp]
    Example: 100 RESTORE
        220 RESTORE X+2
```

    BASIC XL contains an internal "pointer" that keeps
    track of the DATA statement item to be read next. When
used without the optional aexp, the RESTORE statement resets that pointer to the first DATA item in the program. When used with the optional aexp, the RESTORE statement sets the pointer to the first DATA item on the line specifed by the value of the aexp.

This statement permits repetitive use of the same data, as shown in the following example:

```
10 FOR N=2 TO 1 STEP -1
20 RESTORE 80+N
30 READ A, B
40 M=A+B
50 PRINT "TOTAL EQUALS ";M
6 8 ~ N E X T ~ N ~
70 END
81 DATA 30.15
82 DATA 10.20
```

On the first pass through the loop, A will be 10 and $B$ will be 20 so the total in line 50 will print: TOTAL EQUALS 30, but on the second pass, A will equal 30 and $B$ will equal 15, so the PRINT statement in line 50 will display: TOTAL EQUALS 45.
4.13 TRAP (T.)

Format: TRAP aexp
Example: 100 TRAP 120
The TRAP statement is used to direct the program to a specified line number if an error is detected. Without a TRAP statement, the program stops executing when an error is encountered and displays an error message on the screen.

TRAP works for any error that may occur after it (the TRAP statement) has been executed, but once an error has been detected and trapped, it is necessary to reset the error trapping with another TRAP statement. This TRAP statement should be placed at the beginning of the section of code that handles input from the keyboard so that the TRAP is reset after each error.

You can find out the error number using the ERR function with an argument of 0 , and find out the lineno on which the error occurred by using the ERR function with an argument of 1 (see section 6.6.4 for a more detailed discussion of ERR).

Alternatively, $\operatorname{PEEK}(195)$ will give you the error number, and DPEEK(186) will give you the number of the line where the error occurred.

A TRAP may be disabled by executing a TRAP statement with an aexp whose value is zero ( 0 ), or between 32768 and 65535 (e.g., TRAP 40000).
4.14 WHILE...ENDWHILE

| Format: | WHILE aexp : sstatements> : ENDWHILE |
| :--- | :--- |
| Example: | $100 \mathrm{~A}=3$ |
|  | 110 WHILE $A:$ PRINT A |
|  | $120 \quad A=A-1: E N D W H L E$ |

With WHILE, the BASIC XL user has yet another powerful control structure available. So long as the aexp of WHILE remains non-zero, all statements between WHILE and ENDWHILE are executed.

Example: WHILE 1 : .... The loop executes forever

Example: WHILE $0: \ldots$. The loop will never execute

CAUTION: DO not GOTO out of a WHILE loop or a nesting error will likely result (unless you use POP first).

NOTE: The aexp is only tested at the top of each passage through the loop.

This chapter describes the input/output devices and how data is moved between them. The commands explained in this chapter are those that allow access to the input/output devices. The input commands are those associated with putting data into RAM and the devices geared for accepting input. The output commands are those associated with retrieving data from RAM and the devices geared for generating output.

The commands described in this chapter are:

| BGET | DIR | LPRINT | PROTECT | SAVE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| BPUT | ENTER | NOTE | PUT | STATUS |
| CLOAD | ERASE | OPEN | READ | TAB |
| CLOSE | GET | POINT | RENAME | UNPROTECT |
| CSAVE | INPUT | PRINT | RGET | XIO |
| DATA | LOAD | PRINT USING | RPUT |  |

### 5.1 Comments and Notations

The Atari Personal Computer considers everything except the guts of the computer (i.e. the RAM, ROM, and processing chips) to be external devices. Some of these devices come with the computer, for example the Keyboard and the Screen Editor. Some of the other devices are Disk Drive, Program Recorder (cassette), and Printer. The following is a list of the devices, ordered according to the name used as 'filespec' in the BASIC XL commands:

C: The Program Recorder -- handles both Input and Output. You can use the recorder as either an input or output device, but never as both simultaneously.

D1: - D8: Disk Drive(s) -- handles both Input and Output. Unlike C:, disk drives can be used for input and output simultaneously. Floppy disks are organized into a group of files, so you are required to specify a file name along with the device name (see your DOS manual for more information).

NOTE: if you use $D$ : without a drive number, Dl: is assumed.

Screen Editor -- handles both Input and Output. The screen editor simulates a text editor/word processor using the keyboard as input and the display (TV or Monitor) as output. This is the editor you use when typing in a BASIC XL program. When you specify no channel while doing $I / O, E:$ is used because the channel defaults to $\theta$, which is the channal BASIC XL opens for $E:$.

K: Keyboard -- handles Input only. This allows you access to the keyboard without using E: .

P: Parallel Port on the 850 Module -- handles Output only. Usually $p$ : is used for a parallel printer, so it has come to mean 'Printer' as well as 'Parallel Port'.

R1: - R4: The four RS-232 Serial Ports on the Atari 850 Interface -- handle both Input and Output. These devices enable the Atari system to interface to RS-232 compatible serial devices like terminals, plotters, and modems.

NOTE: if you use R: without a device number, Rl: is assumed.

S:
The Screen Display (either TV or Monitor) -handles both Input and Output. This device allows you to do I/O of either characters or graphics points with the screen display. The cursor is used to address a screen position.

Each of these devices is used for $I / O$ of some type, although only a few of them can do both Input and Output (you wouldn't want to input data from a Printer). Because the way in which they work is different, each device has to tell the computer how it operates. This is done through the use of a device handler. A device handler for a given device gives information on how the computer should input and output data for that device.

One of the sub-systems in the computer in the central Input Output processor (CIO). It's CIO's job to find out if the device you specify exists, and then look up I/O information in that device's handler. This makes it easy for you, since you don't need to know anything about given handler.

To let CIO know that a device exists (i.e.. is available for I/O) you need to OPEN (section 5.16) the device on one of the CIO's eight channels (numbered

6-7). When you then want to do I/O involving the OPENed device, you use the channel number instead of the device name.

When you see 'filespec' in the following sections, it refers simply to the device (and file name in the case of $D:$ ) in a character string. The string may either be a literal string (i.e.. enclosed in quotes), a string of characters (not in quotes), or a string variable.

IF IOCB 7 is in use, it will prevent LPRINT or some of the other BASIC I/O statements from being performed.

5.2 BGET

Format: BGET \#channel, aexpl, aexp2
Examples (see below)
BGET gets "aexp2" bytes from the device or file specified by "channel" and stores them at address "aexpl".

NOTE: The address may be a memory address. For example, a screen full of data could be displayed in this manner. Or the address may be the address of a string. In this case BGET does not change the length of the string; this is the user's responsibility.

Example:
10 DIM A\$(1025)
20 BGET ${ }^{2} 5$, ADR (AS). 1024
30 AS(1025) $=$ CHRS(0)
This program segment will get 1024 bytes from the file or device associated with file number 5 and store it in AS. Statement 30 sets the length of AS to 1625 .

NOTE: No error checking is done on the address or length so care must be taken when using this statement.

For another example using BGET, see section 5.31.

Format: BPUT \#channel, aexpl, aexp2
Example: BPUT \#5, ADR(AS), LEN(AS)
BPUT outputs a block of data to the device or file specified by "channel". The block of data starts at address "aexpl" for a length of "aexp2".

NOTE: The address may be a memory address. For example, the whole screen might be saver. Or the address may be the address of a string obtained using the ADR function.

The example above writes the block of data contained in the string AS to the file or device associated with channel number 5 .

NOTE: nothing is written to the file which indicates the length of the data written. You are advised to write fixed-length data to make the rereading process simpler.
5.4 CLOAD

Format: CLOAD
Examples: CLOAD

This command can be used in either Direct or Deferred mode to load a program from cassette tape into RAM for execution. On entering CLOAD, one bell rings to indicate that the PLAY button needs to be pressed followed by <RETURN>. However, do not press PLAY until the tape has been positioned. Specific instructions for CLOADing a program are contained in the ATARI 410 Program Recorder Manual.
5.5 CLOSE (CL.)

Format: CLOSE *channel
Example: CLOSE *4
100 CLOSE \#1
The CLOSE command is used to close a CIO channel which has been previously OPENed to allow I/O with some device. After you CLOSE a channel, you can then reOPEN it to some other device, and thus associate that channel number with a different device.

NOTE: you should CLOSE all channels you have OPENed when you are finished using them.

NOTE: END will also close all channels (i.e., files).
5.6 CSAVE (CS.)

Format: CSAVE
Example: CSAVE
$10 \varnothing$ CSAVE
$10 \varnothing \mathrm{CS}$.
This command is usually used in Direct mode to save a RAM-resident program onto cassette tape. CSAVE saves the tokenized version of the program. on entering CSAVE two bells ring to indicate that the PLAY and RECORD buttons must be pressed followed by <RETURN>. Do not, however, press these buttons until the tape has been positioned. It is faster to save a program using this command rather than a SAVE "C" (See SAVE) because short inter-record gaps are used.

NOTE: Tapes saved using the two commands SAVE and CSAVE are not compatible.

NOTE: Due to a flaw in the Atari OS ROMs, it may be necessary on some machines to enter an LPRINT (See LPRINT) before using CSAVE. Otherwise, CSAVE may not work properly.

For specific instructions on how to connect and operate the hardware, cue the tape, etc., see the ATARI 410 Program Recorder Manual.

```
5.7 DATA (D.)
```

Format: DATA adata [,adata]
Example: 100 DATA 12,13,14,15,16
$20 \boxminus$ DATA GEORGE, EVELYN, MIKE, BECKY 300 DATA "DATA with a comma, in quotes"

The DATA command is used in conjunction with the READ command (see section 5.22) to access elements in a data list. A DATA command may be anywhere in a program, but it must contain as many pieces of data as there are defined in the READ command; otherwise an "out of data" error is displayed on the screen.

NOTE: all characters except comma and <RETURN> are allowed. However, if you put the data in quotes, then all characters except double quote and <RETURN> are legal.

Format: DIR [filespec]
Example: DIR D:*.COM
DIR FILES
DIR "D2:TEST*.B*"
The DIR command is used to list the contents of a disk directory to the screen. It is very similar to the OS/At and DOS $X I$ 'DIR' command. If no filespec is given, all files on Dl: are displayed.

The first example will display all files on Dl: which end with .COM.

The second example shows a string variable being used as a filespec. This is legal, but the string variable must contain a valid filespec, otherwise an error will occur.

The third example will display all files on disk rive 2 which match TEST*.B*.

NOTE: DIR must be used as the last (or only) command on a line.
5.9 ENTER (E.)

Format: ENTER filespec
Examples: ENTER "C:"
ENTER D2:DEMOPR.INS
ENTER FILE
The ENTER command allows you to read in a program you have saved using the LIST command, and will not work with programs which have been SAVEd or CSAVEd. To use this command, you simply need to give the filespec of the program.

NOTE: whereas both LOAD and CLOAD clear the old program from memory before reading in the new one, ENTER does not, and so is useful when trying to merge programs together.

ENTER can be modified using the SET command. For an example of this, see section 3.15 , example 3 .

Format:
Example:

ERASE filespec
ERASE "D:*.BAK"
ERASE D2:TEST?.SAV

ERASE will erase any unprotected files which match the given filespec. The first example above would erase all. BAK (back-up) files on disk drive l. The second example would erase all files matching TEST?.SAV on disk drive 2. This command is similar to the OS/At and DOS XL ERAse, but there are no default file specifiers.

```
5.11 GET
```

Format: GET :channel, avar

Example: $\quad 1 \not 0$ GET \#ø,X
The GET command is used to input one byte of data from an open channel. This byte of information is stored in 'avar'.

For a program example using GET, see section 5.31.
5.12 INPUT (I.)

Examples: 100 INPUT X
$1 \varnothing \varnothing$ INPUT NS
100 INPUT X,Y,Z(4)
$10 \varnothing$ INPUT ARRSTR\$(5;)
$1 \varnothing 0$ PRINT "ENTER THE VALUE OF X"
110 INPUT X
INPUT is used to read in various data. With it you can input either one or more numbers, or a string. If you are inputting a group of numbers, the first number will go into the first avar specified, the second number into the second avar, and so on.

NOTE: In BASIC XL the avar may be an array element, and the svar may be a string array element.

If a channel number is specified (followed by a comma), then no "7" prompt is given. This allows you to create your own prompts, as shown in the following example:

100 PRINT "command>> ${ }^{N}$;
110 INPUT $\# \varnothing$, COMMANDS

The statement 'INPUT \#ø, COMMANDS' inputs a string from channel $\varnothing$ (E:), without printing out a '?' first.

NOTE: if the user's sole response to an INPUT prompt is <CTRL>C <RETURN>, a special error (number 27) will be issued by INPUT. This can be useful in data entry manipulations.

If an INPUT request is made for more than one numeric variable, the user may respond with several values separated by commas or may type in single number on each line, followed by <RETURN>.

In the latter case, BASIC XL will prompt with a double question mark to indicate that more input is needed. When a string is requested, it must be typed on a line by itself (or, if combined with numeric input, as the last item on the line).

OSS strongly recommends that:

1) no more than one variable be used on each INPUT line.
2) INPUT and PRINT should not be used for disk data file access (RGET and RPUT are suggested instead).
5.12.1 Advanced use of INPUT

Format: INPUT "string", var [,var...]
Example: 100 INPUT " 3 VALUES>> ",V(1),V(2),V(3)
BASIC XL allows you to include a prompt with the INPUT command to produce easier to use programs, without having to use the ";" option mentioned in the previous section. The string given in the above format ALWAYS replaces the default "?" prompt.

NOTE: no channel number may be used when the literal prompt is present.

NOTE: in the example above, if the user typed in only a single value followed by a <RETURN>, he would be reprompted by BASIC XL with a "? ?", but see chapter 3 for variations available via SET.

```
5.13 LOAD (LO.)
```

Format: LOAD filespec
Example: LOAD Dl:GAMEl.BXL
1 (ØD LOAD "C:"
LOAD allows you to load the SAVEd version of a program into memory from any device. It will not work properly with programs saved using LIST or CSAVE, as they have their own loading commands (see ENTER and CLOAD).
5.14 LPRINT (LR.)

Format: LPRINT [exp][|:|exp...]
Example: LPRINT "PROGRAM TO CALCULATE X"
This statement causes the computer to print data on the line printer rather than on the screen. It can be used in either Direct or Deferred mode, and requires no device specifier , no OPEN, or no CLOSE statement.

NOTE: the semicolon and comma options are discussed in section 5.18, PRINT.

CAUTION: with most printers, LPRINT cannot successfully be used with a trailing comma or semicolon. If advanced printing capabilities are required, we recommend using PRINT on a channel previousiy OPENed to the printer ( $\mathrm{P}:$ ).
5.15 NOTE (NO.)

Format: NOTE \#chan, avar,avar
Example: 100 NOTE $1, X, Y$
This command is used to store the current disk eector number in the first avar and the current byte number within the sector in the second avar. This is the current read or write position in the specified file where the next byte to be read or written is located.

Format:
Example:

OPEN \#chan, aexpl, aeaxp2,filespec
1øø OPEN $\# 2,8,0, " C: "$
$10 \varnothing$ AS $=$ "D1:TEST.DAT" 110 OPEN \#2,8, $0, A \$$

As mentioned in section 5.1, a device must be OPENed on a specific channel before it can be accessed. This "opening" process links a specific channel to the appropriate device handler, initializes any CIO-related control variables, and passes any device-specific options to the device handler.

The parameters for the OPEN command are defined as follows:
chan This is the number of the channel which you want to associate with the the device 'filespec'. Also, this is the number you use when you later want to do $I / O$ involving the specified device (using INPUT, PRINT, etc.).
aexpl This is the $I / O$ mode you want to associate with the above channel. The number codes are described in the following table:

| aexpl | Meaning |
| :--- | :--- |
| -4 | Input only |
| 6 | Read disk directory only |
| 8 | Output only |
| 9 | Output Append. This mode allows |
|  | You to append to already exis- |
|  | ting disk files. |
| 12 | Input and Output |

aexp2 Device-dependent auxiliary code. See your device manual to see if it uses this number. If not, use a zero.
filespec The device (and file name, if required) you want to be associated with the specified channel.

Format: POINT \#chan, avar, avar
Example: $1 \emptyset 0$ POINT $\# 2, A, B$
This command is used when reading a file into RAM. The first avar specifies the sector number and the second avar specifies the byte within that sector where the next byte will be read or written. Essentially, it moves a softwaremcontrolled pointer to the specified location in the file. This gives the user "random" access to the data stored on a disk file. The POINT and NOTE commands are discussed in more detail in your DOS Manual.
5.18 PRINT (PR or ?)

Format: PRINT [\#chan] [1; exp...] $\mid$ i:
Examples: PRINT
PRINT X,Y,Z, AS
$1 \varnothing \varnothing$ PRINT "THE VALUE OF $X$ IS "; $X$
$10 \varnothing$ PRINT "COMMAS", "CAUSE". "COLUMNS"
$10 \varnothing$ PRINT *3, A\$
$1 \varnothing \varnothing$ PRINT \#Ø;"\$":HEX(X);" IS ";X
The PRINT command is used in either Direct or Deferred mode to output data. In Direct mode, this command prints whatever information is contained between the quotation marks exactly as it appears. In the second example, PRINT $X, Y, Z, A S$, the screen will display the current values of $X, Y, Z$, and $A \$$ as they appear in the RAM-resident program. In the fifth example, AS is PRINTed out to the device associated with channel 3 .

The comma option causes tabbing to the next tab location. Several commas in a row cause several tab jumps. A semicolon causes the next aexp or sexp to be placed immediately after the preceding expression with no spacing. Therefore, in the third example a space is placed before the ending quotation mark so the value of $X$ will not be placed immediately after the word "IS".

If no comma or semicolon is used at the end of a PRINT statement, then a <RETURN> is output and the next PRINT will start on the following line.

```
    Format: PRINT [劳ch;]USING sexp,exp [,exp...]
    Example: (see below)
PRINT USING allows the user to specify a format for the
output to the device or file associated with "ch" (or
to the screen). The format string "sexp" contains one
or more format fields. Each format field tells how an
expression from the expression list is to be printed.
Valid format field characters are:
    * & * + - $ . % 1//
Non-format characters terminate a format field and are
printed as they appear.
Example 1) 100 PRINT USING "## 軲X*",12,315,7
    2) 100 DIM AS(10):AS="## ###X#"
        200 PRINT USING AS,12,315,7
    Both 1) and 2) will print
    12 315X7
Where a blank separates the first two numbers and an X
separates the last two.
Numeric Formats:
The format characters for numeric format fields are:
    #&* + - $ . .
DIGITS (* & *)
Digits are represented by:
    * & *
* - Indicates fill with leading blanks
& - Indicates fill with leading zeroes
* - Indicated fill with leading asterisks
If the number of digits in the expression is less than the number of digits specified in the format then the digits are right justified in the field and preceded with the proper fill character.
```

NOTE: In all the following examples $b$ is used to represent a blank.

Example:

| Value | Format Field | Print Out |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | $\# \# \#$ | bbl |
| 12 | $\# \# \#$ | bl2 |
| 123 | $\# \# \#$ | 123 |
| 1234 | $\# \# \#$ | 234 |
| 12 | $\& \& \&$ | 012 |
| 12 | $* * *$ | $* 12$ |

DECIMAL POINT(.)
A decimal point in the format field indicates that a decimal point be printed at that location in the number. All digit positions that follow the decimal point are filled with digits. If the expression contains fewer fractional digits than are indicated in the format, then zeroes are printed in the extra positions. If the expression contains more fractional digits than indicated in the format, then the expression is rounded so that the number of fractional digits is equal to the number of format positions specified.

A second decimal point is treated as a non-format character.

Example:

| Value | Format Field | Print Out |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 123.456 | ****** | 123.46 |
| 4.7 |  | bb4.70 |
| 12.35 |  | 12.35. |

COMMA (.)
A comma in the format field indicates that a comma be printed at that location in the number. If the format specifies a comma be printed at a position that is preceeded only by fill characters ( $0 \quad b \quad *$ ) then the appropriate fill character will be printed instead of the comma.

The comma is a valid format character only to the left of the decimal point. When a comma appears to the right of a decimal point, it becomes a non-format character. It terminates the format field and is printed like a non-format character.

Example:

| Value | Format Field | Print Out |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 5216 | $\# \#, \# \# \#$ | b5, 216 |
| 3 | $\# \#, \# \# \#$ | bbbbb3 |
| 4175 | $\# *, \# * *$ | $* 4,175$ |
| 3 | $\& \&, \& \& \&$ | $0 \emptyset \emptyset \emptyset \emptyset 3$ |
| 42.71 | $\# \# . \# \#$, | 42.71, |

SIGNS (+ - )
A plus sign in a format field indicates that the sign of the number is to be printed. A minus sign indicates that a minus sign is to be printed if the number is negative and a blank if the number is positive.

Signs may be either fixed, floating or trailing.
A fixed sign must appear as the first character of a format field.

Example:

| Value | Format Field | Print Out |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 43.7 | $+\# \# \# . \#$ | $+b 43.7$ |
| -43.7 | $+\star \& * . *$ | $-b 43.7$ |
| 23.58 | $-\& \& \& . \& \&$ | b023.58 |
| -23.58 | $-\& \& \& . \& \&$ | -023.58 |

Floating signs must start in the first format position and occupy all positions up to the decimal point. This causes the sign to be printed immediately before the first digit rather than in a fixed location. Each sign after the first also represents one digit.

Example:

| Value | Format Field | Print Out |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3.75 | ++++.\#\# | $\mathrm{bb}+3.75$ |
| 3.75 | ---ー.\#\# | bbb3.75 |
| -3.75 | ----. \# \# | $\mathrm{bb}=3.75$ |

A trailing sign can appear only after a decimal point. It terminates the format and prints the appropriate sign (or blank).

Example:

| Value | Format Field | Print Out |
| ---: | :---: | :---: |
| 43.17 | $* * * * *+$ | $* 43.17+$ |
| 43.17 | $\& \& \& .8 \&-$ | $043.17 b$ |
| -43.17 | $\# \# \#+\# \#+$ | $b 43.17-$ |

DOLLAR SIGN (\$)
A dollar sign can be either fixed or floating, and indicates that $\mathbf{a} \$$ is to be printed.

A fixed dollar sign must be either the first or second character in the format field. If it is the second character then + or - must be the first.

Example:

| Value | Format Field | Print out |
| ---: | :---: | :---: |
| 34.2 | $\$ * \# . \#$ | $\$ 34.2 \theta$ |
| 34.2 | $+\$ \# \# . \$ *$ | $+\$ 34.20$ |
| -34.2 | $+\$ \# \# \# . \$ \#$ | $-\$ 34.20$ |

Floating dollar signs must start as either the first or second character in the format field and continue to the decimal point. If the floating dollar signs start as the second character then + or - must be the first. Each dollar sign after the first also represents one digit.

Example:

| Value | Format Field | Print Out |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 34.2 | \$\$\$\$\$. ${ }^{\text {\# }}$ | bb\$34.20 |
| 34.2 |  | +bb\$34.26 |
| 563.4 |  | 72 |

NOTE: There can only be one floating character per format field.

NOTE: +, - or \$ in other than proper positions will give strange results.

String Formats:

The format characters for string format fields are:
\% - Indicates the string is to be right justified.
l - indicates the string is to be left justified.
If there are more characters in the string than in the format field, than the string is truncated.

Example:

| Value | Format Field | Print Out |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $A B C$ | $88 \% \%$ | bABC |
| $A B C$ | 1111 | $A B C b$ |
| $A B C$ | $8 \%$ | $A B$ |
| $A B C$ | 11 | $A B$ |

ESCAPE CHARACTER (/)
The escape character (/) does not terminate the format field but will cause the next character to be printed, thus allowing the user to insert a character in the middle of the printing of a number.

| Example: | PRINT USING "\#\#\#/-\#\#\#\#",2551472 prints 255-1472 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Example: | $10 \emptyset$ AREA $=408$ |
|  | 200 NUM $=2551472$ |
|  | 300 PHONE $=($ AREA* $1 E+7)+$ NUM |
|  | 400 DIM F\$(20) |
|  | $500 \mathrm{FS}=1$ (\#\#\#/) \#\#\#/-\#\#\#\#" |
|  | 600 PRINT USING FS, PHONE |
|  | 700 END |

the result: (408)255-1472
NOTE: Improperly specified format fields can give some very strange results.

NOTE: The function of "." and ";" in PRINT are overridden in the expression list of PRINT USING, but when file number "ch" is given then the following "," or ";" have the same meaning as in PRINT. So to avoid an initial tabbing, use a semicolon (;).

Example: PRINT \#5; USING A\$, B
Will print $B$ in the format specified by A\$ to the file or device associated with file number 5 .

Example:

```
                                    PRINT USING "## /* #=###*,12,5,5*12
```

                                    12 * \(5=60\)
    Example: PRINT USING "TOTAL=\#\#.\#+", 72.68
TOTAL=72.7+

Example: 100 DIM AS(10): AS="TOTAL="
 300 PRINT USING FS,A\$,72.68

TOTAL=72.7+
NOTE: IF there are more expressions in the expression list than there are format fields, the format fields will be reused.

Example: PRINT USING "XX\#\#",25,19,7
will print XX25XX19XXb7
WARNING: A format string must contain at least one format field. If the format string contains only non-format characters, those characters will be printed repeatedly in the search for a format field.

Format:
Examples:

PROTECT filespec
PROTECT D:*.COM 1øø PROTECT "D2:JUNK.BXL"

The PROTECT allows you to protect your programs stored on disk from being erased or overwritten. This command is very similar to the OS/At and DOS XL PROtect commad, except that there are no default file specifications.
5.21 PUT (PU.)

| Format: | PUT \#chan, aexp |
| :--- | :--- |
| Examples: | $10 \varnothing$ PUT 6, ASC("A") |
|  | $2 \emptyset \emptyset$ PUT $\# 6,4 * 13$ |

PUT is the opposite of GET in that it outputs a single byte of information whereas GET inputs a single byte of information. The data output is aexp, and it is put to the device specified by chan.

NOTE: for a program example using PUT, see section 5.31
5.22 READ

| Format: | READ var [,var...] |
| :--- | :--- |
| Examples: | 100 READ A,B,C,D,E |
|  | 110 DATA $12,13,14,15,16$ |
|  | 100 READ AS,BS,CS,DS,ES |
|  | 110 DATA EMBEE, EVELYN, CARLA |

The READ command is always used in conjunction with the DATA command. Its function is simply to read the next piece of data out of the DATA list and put it into one of the variables specified. If a group of variables are used, then the first piece of available data (see RESTORE, 4.12) is put into the first variable given, the second piece of data into the second variable given, and so on.

The type of the variable in the READ statement (svar or avar) must correspond to the type of the data which in being read.

If the second example above was executed as a program with no additional lines, an error would result since there are fewer data items than variables to be READ.

The following program totals a list of numbers in a DATA statement:

10 FOR N=1 TO 5
20 READ D
3 ह $\mathrm{M}=\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{D}$
40 NEXT N
50 PRINT "SUM TOTAL EQUALS ":M
60 END
70 DATA $30,15,106,87,17$
The program, when executed, will print the statement:
SUM TOTAL EQUALS 255.

NOTE: a Direct mode READ will only read data if a DATA statement exists in the program or on the line following the READ.
5.23 RENAME

Format: RENAME "filespec,filename"
Example: RENAME "D2:NEW.DAT,OLD.BAK"
RENAME allows you to rename file(s) from BASIC XL. Note that the comma shown MUST be imbedded in the string used as the file parameter.

CAUTION: It is strongly suggested that wild cards (* and 2) NOT be used when RENAMEing. Also, the gecond filename may NOT include the disk specifier (Dn:).

### 5.24 RGET

Format:
RGET * ch, $\left|\begin{array}{l}\text { svar [,svar...] } \\ \text { avar [,avar...] }\end{array}\right|$
Example: (see below)
RGET allows the user to retreive fixed length records from the device or file associated wich file number "ch" and assign the values to string or numeric variables.

NOTE: The type of the element in the file must match the type of the variable (ie. they must both be strings or both be numeric).

Example:

1) 100 RPUT $\# 3, C$
2) $20 \square$ RGET \# $1, A \$$

If l) is a statement in a program used to generpte a file and 2) is a statement in another program used to read the same file, an error will result, since ' $C$ ' is a numeric variable and 'AS' is a string variable.

NOTE: When the type of element is string, then the DIMensioned length of the element in the file must be equal to the DIMensioned length of the string variable.

Example:

1) $10 \varnothing \mathrm{DIM} \mathrm{A}(100)$
:
8øØ RPUT \#3,A\$
2) 1 Øø DIM $X \$(2 \emptyset \varnothing)$
:
$8 \varnothing \varnothing$ RGET $\# 2, X \$$

If 1) is a section of a program used to write a file and 2) is a section of another program used to read the same file, then an error will occur as a result of the difference $\ddagger n$ DIM values.

NOTE: RGET sets the correct length for a string variable (the length of a string variable becomes the actual length of the string that was RPUT - not necessarily the DIM length).

Example:

| 1)100 | DIM 2 | A ${ }^{(10)}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 200 | $A \$=$ | * ${ }^{\text {ab }}$ ( ${ }^{\prime}$ |
| : |  |  |
| 800 | RPUT | * 4 , AS |

2) 1øの DIM X\$(1ø) $200 \mathrm{XS}=$ "HI" : 800 RGET ${ }^{16, X \$}$ 900 PRINT LEN(XS),X\$

If 1) is a section of a program used to create a file and 2) is a section of another program used to read the file then it will print:

5 ABCDE
5.25 RPUT

| Format: | RPUT \#ch, exp [., exp...] |
| :--- | :--- |
| Example: | (see below) |

RPUT allows the user to output fixed length records to the device or file associated with "ch". Each "exp" creates an element in the record.

NOTE: A numeric element consists of one byte which indicates a numeric type element and 6 bytes of numeric data in floating point format.

A string element consists of one byte which indicates a string type element 2 bytes of string length, 2 bytes of DIMensioned length, and then $X$ bytes where $X$ is the DIMensioned length of the string.

Example: $\quad 100$ DIM A\$(6)
200 AS $=$ "XY"
360 RPUT $\# 3, B, A S, 1 \varnothing$
puts 3 elements to the device or file associated with file number 3. The first element is numeric (the value of B). The second element is a string (AS) and the third is a numeric (10). The record will be 26 bytes long, ( 7 bytes for each numeric, 5 bytes for the string header and 6 bytes (the DIM length) of string data).
5.26 SAVE (S.)

Format: SAVE filespec
Example: SAVE Dl:YVONNE.PAT 1øø SAVE "C:"

The SAVE command allows you to save the tokenized form of a BASIC XL program to any device. A file saved using this command may then be read back into program memory using the LOAD command or loaded and automatically executed using the RUN command.
5.27 STATUS (ST.)

Format: STATUS \#chan, avar
Example: 350 STATUS $\# 1, z$
The STATUS command calls the STATUS routine for the specified device (chan). The status of the STATUS command (see ERROR MESSAGES, Appendix B) is stored in the specified variable (avar). This may be usefirl for devices such as the RS-232 interface.
5.28 TAB

Format: TAB [ $\ddagger \mathrm{ch}, \mathrm{]}$ aexp
Example: TAB $\boldsymbol{\# 2} \mathbf{2 g}$
TAB outputs spaces to the device or file specified by ch (or the screen) up to column number "aexp". The first column is column $\emptyset$.

NOTE: The column count is kept for each device and is reset to zero each time a carriage return is output to that device. The count is kept in AUX2 of the IOCB. (See OS documemtation).

NOTE: If "aexp" is less than the current column count, a carriage return is output and then spaces are put out up to column "aexp".
5.29 UNPROTECT (UNP.)

Format:
UNPROTECT filespec
Examples: 100 UNPROTECT "D2:JUNK.BAS UNP. D: JUNK

The UNPROTECT command allows you to unprotect disk files which have been protected using the PROTECT command. This command is very similar to the OS/At and DOS XL command UNProtect, but there are no default file specifications in the BASIC XL version.

```
5.30 XIO (X,)
```

Format: XIO cmdno, Wchan, aexpl, aexp2,"filespec
Example: XIO 18, *6, 0,0,"S:"
The XIO command is a general input/output statement used for special operations. The parameters for this command are defined as follows:

Cmdno Number for stands for the particular command to be performed.

| cmano | operation | example |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | OPEN | Same as BASIC OPEN |
| 5 | GET RECORD | \| These 4 commands are |
| 7 | GET CHARACTERS | \| similar to BASIC INPUT, |
| 9 | PUT RECORD | GET, PRINT, and PUT. |
| 11 | PUT CHARACTERS | \| respectively. |
| 12 | CLOSE | Same as BASIC CLOSE |
| 13 | STATUS REQUEST | Same as BASIC STATUS |
| 17 | DRAW LINE | Same as BASIC DRAWTO |
| 18 | FILL | See Section 9 |
| 32 | RENAME | XIO 32,\#1, $0, \varnothing, 0 \mathrm{D}:$ TEMP, CAROL" |
| 33 | DELETE | XIO 33, $11,0,0,0 \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{TEMP.BAS"}$ |
| 35 | LOCK F'ILE | XIO 35, $11,0,0,0 \mathrm{D}$ : TEMP. BAS" |
| 36 | UNLOCK FILE |  |
| 37 | POINT | Same as BASIC POINT |
| 38 | NOTE | Same as BASIC NOTE |
| 254 | FORMAT | XIO 254, \%1, $0,0, \mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{C}=$ |

```
chan Device number (same as in OPEN). Most of
        the time it is ignored, but must be preceded
        by #.
aexpl Two auxiliary control bytes. Their usage
aexp2 depends on the particular device and
        command. In most cases, they are unused and
        are set to 0.
filespec String expression that specifies the device.
        Must be enclosed in quotation marks.
        Although some commands do not look at the
        filespec, it must still be included in the
        statement.
NOTE: It is highly recommended that the BASIC XL user
avoid XIO cmdno's 3,5,7,9,11,12,17,37 and 38. BASIC XL
users should find all these, as well as cmdno's 32 thru
36, totally unnecessary.
5.31 An Example Program
```

```
The following subroutine reads in a binary file using
```

The following subroutine reads in a binary file using
OPEN, GET, BGET, CLOSE, and PRINT.
OPEN, GET, BGET, CLOSE, and PRINT.
NOTE: lines 1020 through 1030 test the file to see if
NOTE: lines 1020 through 1030 test the file to see if
it is segemented, so you can load in multi-segment
it is segemented, so you can load in multi-segment
files with this subroutine.
files with this subroutine.
1000 TRAP 1090
1000 TRAP 1090
1010 OPEN \#1,4,0,"D:FILE.OBJ"
1010 OPEN \#1,4,0,"D:FILE.OBJ"
1020 GET \#1,L : GET *1,H
1020 GET \#1,L : GET *1,H
1030 IF L=$FF AND H=$FF THEN GET \#1,L : GET *l,H
1030 IF L=$FF AND H=$FF THEN GET \#1,L : GET *l,H
1040 START = H*256 + L
1040 START = H*256 + L
1050 GET \#l,L : GET \#1,H
1050 GET \#l,L : GET \#1,H
1060 FINISH = H*256+L
1060 FINISH = H*256+L
1070 BGET *1, START, FINISH - START + 1
1070 BGET *1, START, FINISH - START + 1
1080 GOTO 1020
1080 GOTO 1020
1090 IF ERR(\varnothing)=136 THEN CLOSE \#1 : RETURN
1090 IF ERR(\varnothing)=136 THEN CLOSE \#1 : RETURN
1100 PRINT "UNEXPECTED ERROR *";ERR(0);" AT LINE "; ERR(1)
1100 PRINT "UNEXPECTED ERROR *";ERR(0);" AT LINE "; ERR(1)
1110 STOP

```
1110 STOP
```

A function performs a computation and returns the result (usually a number) for either a print-out or additional computational use. Each function described in this chapter may be used in either Direct or Deferred mode.

This chapter describes the following functions:


### 6.1 Arithmetic Functions

6.1.1 ABS
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Format: } & \text { ABS (aexp) } \\ \text { Example: } & 1 \varnothing \varnothing \mathrm{AB}=\mathrm{ABS}(-196)\end{array}$
Returns the absolute value of a number without regard to whether it is positive or negative. The returned value is always positive.
6.1.2 CLOG

Format: CLOG (aexp)
Example: $100 \mathrm{C}=\mathrm{CLOG}(83)$
Returns the logarithm to the base 10 of the variable or expression in parentheses. CLOG( $\varnothing$ ) gives an error, and CLOG (1) is $\varnothing$.
6.1.3 EXP

```
Format: EXP (aexp)
Example: 10ø PRINT EXP(3)
```


#### Abstract

Returns the value of e (approximately 2.71828283), raised to the power specified by the expression in parentheses. In the example given above, the number returned is 20.0855365 .


### 6.1.4 INT

Format: INT (aexp)
Example: $100 \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{INT}(3.445):$ REM I now $=3$ 1 Øø $X=\operatorname{INT}(-14.66778):$ REM $X$ now $=-15$

Returns the greatest integer less than or equal to the value of the expression. This is true whether the expression evaluates to a positive or negative number. Thus, in our first example above, I is used to store the number 3. In the second example, $X$ is used to store the number -15 (the first whole number that is less than or equal to -14.66778 ). This INT function should not be confused with the function used on calculators that simply truncates all decimal places.
6.1.5 LOG

Format: LOG(aexp)
Example: $100 \mathrm{~L}=\operatorname{LOG}(67.89 / 2.57)$
Returns the natural logarithm of the number or expression in parentheses. LOG(D) gives an error, and LOG(1) is $\quad$.

### 6.1.6 RANDOM

Format: RANDOM (aexpl[, aexp2])
Example: $10 \mathrm{X}=$ RANDOM(99)
$10 Y=\operatorname{RANDOM}(20,30)$
The RANDOM function allows you access to a random number generater which does more than return a number between $\sigma$ and $1, a s$ RND does. When used with one aexp (as in the first example), the value returned will be between and the aexp value, inclusive. When used with two aexps (as in the second example), the value returned will be between the value of the first aexp and the value of the second aexp, inclusive.

Format: RND (aexp)
Example: $10 \mathrm{~A}=\mathrm{RND}(\boldsymbol{0})$
Returns a hardware-generated random number between $\varnothing$ and 1, but never returns 1. The variable or expression in parentheses following RND is a dummy and has no effect on the numbers returned. However, the dummy expression must be included.
6.1 .8 SGN

Format: SGN(aexp)
Example: $100 \mathrm{X}=\operatorname{SGN}(-199): \operatorname{REM}-1$ is returned
Returns a -l if aexp evaluates to a negative number; a $\emptyset$ if aexp evaluates to 0 , or a 1 is aexp evaluates to a positive number.
6.1.9 SQR

Format: SQR(aexp)
Example: 100 PRINT SQR(100) REM 10 is printed
Returns the square root of the aexp which must be positive.

```
6.1.10 An Example Program
```

The following program prints out some information on an INPUTted number, using the arithmetic functions ABS, INT, SQR, CLOG, LOG, and EXP.

```
1\emptyset\emptyset GRAPHICS 1 : REM set up screen
110 PRINT "Number to Manipulate> ";
120 INPUT *0, X : REM get the number
130 PRINT #6; ASC$(125) : REM clear screen
140 PRINT $6; "ABS.: ";ABS(X) : REM absolute value
150 PRINT #6
160 PRINT *6; "INT.: "; INT(X) : REM integer value
170 PRINT *6
18g PRINT *6; "SQRT: "; SQR'(ABS(X)) : REM square root
190 PRINT *6
200 PRINT %6; "CLOG: "; CLOG(ABS(X)) : REM common log
210 PRINT $6
220 PRINT #6; "NLOG: "; LOG(ABS(X)) : REM natural log (In)
230 PRINT *6
240 PRINT #6; "EXP.: "; EXP(X) : REM exponential (e`X)
250 GOTO 116
```


## 6．2 Trigonometric Functions

## 6．2．1 ATN

－－ーーーー
Format：ATN（aexp）
Example： 1 Øø $X=\operatorname{ATN}(1 . \sigma)$
Returns the arctangent of the variable or expression in parentheses．If in DEG mode（see section 6．2．3），the returned value is given is degrees，otherwise it is given in radians．

6．2．2 COS
Format： $\cos ($ aexp $)$
Example： $1 \not 00 \mathrm{C}=\operatorname{COS}(\mathrm{X}+\mathrm{Y}+\mathrm{Z})$
Returns the trigonometic cosine of the expression in parentheses．The expression is evaluated as an angle in radian terms unless the DEG command has been used．

```
6.2.3 DEG and RAD
    Format: DEG
        RAD
    Example: 100 DEG
        100 RAD
```

These two statements allow the programmer in specify
degrees or radians for trigonometric function
computations. The computer defaults to radians unless
DEG is specified. Once the DEG statement has been
executed, RAD must be used to return to radians.

See Appendix $E$ for the additional trigonometric functions that can be derived．
6.2 .4 SIN

Format：SIN（aexp）
Example： 1 Øø $X=S I N(Y)$
This function returns the trigonometric sine of aexp． The expression is evaluated as an angle in radian terms unless the DEG command has been used．

### 6.2.5 An Example Program

The following program demonstrates the use of DEG, COS, and SIN by plotting three concentric circles on the screen.

```
10 GRAPHICS 7 : REM set up screen
26 DEG : REM degree mode for trig functions
30 FOR J=1 TO 3 : REM 3 circles
40 COLOR J : REM each circle a different color
    FOR I=1 TO 360 : REM plot each point in a full circle
    PLOT 8|+INT(J*10*COS(I)), 40+INT(J*IO*SIN(I))
        NEXT I
    NEXT J
```

6.3 String Functions
6.3.1 ASC

Format: ASC(sexp)
Examples: 100 A = ASC(A\$)
This function returns the ATASCII code number for the first character of the string expression (sexp). This function can be used in either Direct or Deferred mode.

If $A S=" A B C "$, then
ASC(AS) produces 65
ASC(AS(2)) produces 66

### 6.3.2 CHR\$

Format: CHR\$ (aexp)
Examples: 100 PRINT CHR\$(65)
106 AS = CHR\$ (65)
This character string function returns the character, in string format, representated by the ATASCII code number in parentheses. Only one character is returned. In the above examples, the letter $A$ is returned. Using the ASC and CHRS functions, the following program prints the upper case and lower case letters of the alphabet:

```
10 FOR I=ø TO 25
20 PRINT CHR$(ASC("A")+I);CHR$(ASC("a")+I)
36 NEXT I
```

NOTE: There can be only one sTR\$ and only one CHR\$ in a
logical comparison. (This is because BASIC XL uses a buffer in a fixed location to create the temporary string which both of these functions produce, and there is only one such buffer.)

### 6.3.3 FIND

Format: FIND(sexpl,sexp2,aexp)
Example: PRINT FIND ("ABCDXXXXABC","BC",N)
FIND is an efficient, speedy way of determining whether any given substring is contained in any given master string.

FIND will search sexpl, starting at position aexp, for sexp2. If sexp2 is found, the function returns the position where it was found, relative to the beginning of sexpl. If sexp2 is not found, a is returned.

In the example above, the following values would be PRINTed:

2 if $\mathrm{N}=0$ or $\mathrm{N}=1$
9 if $N>2$ and $N<10$
ø if $\mathrm{N}>=16$
More Examples:

1) $\quad 1 \varnothing$ DIM A $\$(1)$
$2 \varnothing$ PRINT "INPUT A SINGLE LETTER:
30 PRINT "Change/Erase/List"
4ø INPUT "CHOICE ?",AS
50 ON FIND("CEL",AS.ø) GOTO 1øø,200,3øб
An easy way to have a vector from a menu choice:
2) $1 \varnothing \varnothing$ DIM $A \$(10): A \$=" A B C D E F G H I J "$

116 PRINT FIND (AS,"E",3)
120 PRINT FIND (AS (3), "E", Ø)
Line 110 will print "5" while 12ø will print "3". Remember, the position returned is relative to the start of the specified string.
3) 100 INPUT "20 CHARACTERS, PLEASE:",A\$
$110 \mathrm{ST}=\varnothing$
$120 \mathrm{~F}=\mathrm{FIND}\left(\mathrm{AS}, " \mathrm{~A}^{\mathrm{n}}, \mathrm{ST}\right): \mathrm{IF} \mathrm{F}=\mathrm{D}$ THEN STOP
130 IF AS(F+1,F+1)<>"B" AND AS(F+1,F+1)<>"C" THEN ST=F+1:GOTO 12ø
140 PRINT "FOUND 'AB' OR 'AC'"
This illustrates the importance of the aexp's use as a starting position.

### 6.3.4 LEFT\$

| Format: | LEFTS (svar, aexp) |
| :--- | :--- |
| Example: | $1 \emptyset \emptyset$ AS=LEFTS("ABCDE", 3) |
|  | $2 \emptyset \emptyset$ PRINT LEFTS("ABCD",5) |

The LEFTS function returns the leftmost 'aexp' characters of the string 'svar'. If aexp is greater than the number of characters in svar, no error occurs and the entire string svar is returned.

In the first example, $A S$ is equated to "ABC" $x$, and in the second example, the entire string "ABCD" is printed.
6.3.5 LEN

Format: LEN(sexp)
Example: 1 øø PRINT LEN(AS)
This function returns the length in bytes of the designated string. This information may then be printed or used later in a program. The length of a string variable is simply the index for the character which is currently at the end of the string. Strings have a length of $\emptyset$ until characters have been stored in them. It is possible to store into the middle of the string by using subscripting. However, the beginning of the string will contain garbage.

The following routine illustrates one use of the LEN function:

10 AS干"ATARI"
20 PRINT LEN(A\$)

```
10 DIM AR$(3,0)
20 ARS (2;)="ATARI"
    30 PRINT LEN(AR$ (2;))
```

The result of running either of the above programs would be 5 .

### 6.3.6 MID\$

Format: MIDS(svar, aexpl, aexp2)
Example: $A \$=M I D \$(" A B C D E F G ", 2,4)$
MID\$ allows you to get a substring from the middle of another string. The substring starts at the 'aexpl'th character of svar, and is 'aexp2' characters long.

If aexpl equals $\varnothing$ an error occurs (since there is no zeroeth character of a string), but if aexpl is greater than the length of svar no error occurs (and no characters are returned).
aexp2 is allowed any positive number (including $\varnothing$ ), but if its value makes the substring go beyond the length of svar, then the substring returned ends at the end of svar.

In the above example, AS is equated to "BCDE".

### 6.3.7 RIGHT\$

Format: RIGHTS (svar, aexp)
Example: A\$=RIGHT\$("123456",4)
This function is used to return the rightmost 'aexp' characters of 'svar'. If aexp is greater than the number of characters in svar, then the entire string 'svar' is returned.

In the above example, AS is equated to "3456".
6.3.8 STRS

Format: STR(aexp)
Example: AS=STR\$(65)
This function returns the string form of the number in parentheses. The above example would return the actual number 65, but it would be recognized by the computer as a string.

NOTE: There can only be one STRS and only one CHRS in a logical comparison. For example, $A=S T R \$(1)>S T R \$(2)$ is not valid and will not work correctly.
6.3.9 VAL

Format: VAL(sexp)
Example: 100 A=VAL(A\$)
This function is the opposite of the STRS function, in that it returns the number represented by a string, providing that the string is indeed a string representation of a number. Using this function, the

```
computer can perform arithmetic operations on strings
as shown in the following example programs
10 DIM B$(5)
20 B$="16060"
30 B=SOR(VAL(B$))
40 PRIATT "THE SQUARE ROOT OF ";BS;" IS ";B
Upon execution, the screen displays:
THE SQUARE ROOT OF IGGEE IS 10g.
It is not possible to use the VAL function with a
string that does not start with a number, or that
cannot be interpreted by the computer as a number. It
can, however, intrepret floating point numbere (e.g..
VAL("1E9") would return the number 10D日g\emptyset0\emptyset00).
```


### 6.3.16 An Example Program

The following program inputs a three word string, cuts it up into the separate words through the use of LEFTS. MIDS, and RIGHTS, and then prints out the ATASCII value of each letter in each word using ASC. Note that this program also uses the LEN and FIND functions.

```
10g PRINT "Give me a three word string with each"
116 INPUT "word separated by a space> ",S$
120 POS1=FIND(S$," ",0) : REM find end of let word
136 LSmLEFT$(S$, POS1-1) : REM fill lst word string
140 POS2mFIND(S$," ", POSl) : REM find 2nd word
150 MS=MIDS(SS,POS1+1,POS2-POS1-1) : REM fill 2nd word string
160 R$=RIGHT$(S$,LEN(SS)-POS2) : REM fill 3rd word string
176 PRINT "*** ";LS : REM print lst word
180 FOR I=1 TO LEN(LS) : REM print ASC value of each letter
190 PRINT ;L$(I,I): ": ": ASC(L$(I))
200 NEXT I
210 PRINT "*** ";M$ : REM print 2nd word
22g FOR Im1 TO LEN(MS) 2 REM print ASC value of each letter
236 PRINT ,MS(I,I); ": "% ASC(MS(I))
246 NEXT I
250 PRINT "*** ";R$ : REM print 3rd word
266 FOR I=1 TO LEN(RS) : REM print ASC value of each letter
27% PRINT ,RS(I,I); "; *; ASC(R$(I))
280 NEXT I
290 GOTO 10%
```

NOTE: 1 ines 236,150 , and 160 could have been coded as follows:

```
13g L$=S$(1,POS1-1)
156 MS=SS(POS1+1,POS2-1)
160 R$=8$(POS2+1)

\subsection*{6.4 Game Controller Functions}

\subsection*{6.4.1 HSTICK}

Formats: HSTICK (aexp)
Example: \(10 \varnothing\) IF HSTICK( \(\theta\) ) \(>\boldsymbol{\theta}\) THEN PRINT "MOVE RIGHT"
The HSTICK function returns an easily usable code for horizontal movement of a given foystick. aexp is simply the number of the joystick port (0 - 3), and the values returned (and their meanings) are as follows
+1 if the joystick is pushed right
-1 if the joystick is pushed left
\(\sigma\) if the joystick is horizontally centered

\subsection*{6.4.2 PADDLE}

Format: PADDLE (aexp)
Example: PRINT PADDLE(3)
This function returna the current value of a particular paddle. aexp is the number of the paddle port ( \(0-7\) ). The value returned will be between 1 and 228, with the number increasing as the knob is turned counterclockwise.
6.4.3 PES

Format: PEN(aexp)
Example: PRINT "light pen at \(X=\) "; PEN( 0 )
The PEN function simply reads the ATARY light pen registers and returns their contents to the user. The number specified by aexp is interpreted as follows:

PEA(E) reads the horizontal position register PEN(1) reads the verţical position regieter
6.4.4 PTRIG

Format: PTRIG(aex́p)
Example: 166 IF PTRIG(1)=6 THEN PRINT "MISSILES FIREDI"
The PPRIG function returns a status of 6 if the trigger button of the designated paddle is pressed. Otherwise, it returns a value of 1 . The aexp must be a number between \(B\) and 7 as it designates the paddle.
--78--

\subsection*{6.4.5 STICK}

Format: STICK(aexp)
Example: 106 PRINT STICK(3)
This function works exactly the same way as the PADDLE command, but is used with the joystick controllers. aexp is the number of the joystick port (6-3). The following diagram shows the values returned by this functions


COMMENT: this function was the only means given to access the foystick with original Atari BASIC. For most purposen, HSTICK and VSTICK are much easier to use and to work with.
6.4.6 STRIG


The STRIG function works the ame way as the "PTRIG function, except that it is used with the joyeticks instead of the paddles.
6.4.7 VSTICK
```

    Format: VSTICK(aexp)
    Example: IF VSTICK(0)<0 THEN PRINT "MOVE DOWN"
    The VBTICK function returne an easily usable code for
vertical movement of a given joystick. aexp is simply the number of the foyatick port $(8-3)$, and the values returned (and their meanings) are as followes

```
```

+1 If the joyatick is pushed up
-1 if the joystick is pushed down
g}\mathrm{ if the joyatick is vertically centered

```
```

6.4.8 An Example Program
The following program creates a simple GRAPHICS mode 5
sketchpad using the game controller functions HSTICK,
VSTICK, and STRIG to move and draw.

```
```

106 GRAPHICS 5 : REM set up acreen

```
106 GRAPHICS 5 : REM set up acreen
110 COL=48 : REM middle of screen
110 COL=48 : REM middle of screen
120 RON=20
120 RON=20
130 COLOR 2 : REM drawing a cursor color
130 COLOR 2 : REM drawing a cursor color
14g PLOT COL, ROW : REM plot cursor
14g PLOT COL, ROW : REM plot cursor
150 FOR I=1 TO 15: NEXT I & REM delay loop
150 FOR I=1 TO 15: NEXT I & REM delay loop
160 IF STRIG(0)=1 THEN COLOR g : PLOT COL, ROW : REM dont draw point
160 IF STRIG(0)=1 THEN COLOR g : PLOT COL, ROW : REM dont draw point
17! COL=COL+H8TICK(0) : REM check for movement
17! COL=COL+H8TICK(0) : REM check for movement
186 ROW=ROW-VSTICK(6)
186 ROW=ROW-VSTICK(6)
196 IF COL<E THEN COL=g % REM mcreen bounds checking
196 IF COL<E THEN COL=g % REM mcreen bounds checking
200 IF COL>79 THEN COL=79
200 IF COL>79 THEN COL=79
210 IF ROW<g THEN ROW=0
210 IF ROW<g THEN ROW=0
220 IF ROW> }39\mathrm{ THEN ROW=39
220 IF ROW> }39\mathrm{ THEN ROW=39
230 FOR I=1 TO 25 : NEXT I : REM delay loop
230 FOR I=1 TO 25 : NEXT I : REM delay loop
240 GOTO 130 : REM repeat
240 GOTO 130 : REM repeat
6.5 Player/Missile Functions
```

For examples showing the use of the $P / M$ functions, see section 8.13.
6.5.1 BUMP

Format: BUMP (pmnum, aexp)

```
Example:
IF bump (4,1) then B=BUMP (0,8)
```

BUMP accesses the collision registers of the Atari and returns a 1 (collision occured) or 6 (no collision occured) as appropriate for the pair of objects specified. Note that the econd parameter (the aexp) may be either a player number or playfield number (see section 8.2 for the appropriate number).

Valid buMPe: PLAYER to PLMYER (0-3 to 0.-3)

$$
\text { MISSILE to PLAYER (4-7 to } 0-3)
$$

PLAYER to PLAYFIELD (8-3 to 8-11)
MISSILE to PLAYFIELD (4-7 to 8-11)
NOTE: BUNP ( $p, p$ ), where the $p$ a are $\sigma$ through 3 and identical, always returns ©.

NOTE: It is advisable to reset the collision registers if you have not checked them in a long time or after you are through checking them at any given point in a

```
program. You can do this by using the following statement:
                            POKE 53278,0
```

6.5.2 PMADR
Format: PMADR(aexp)
Example: $\quad P \emptyset=\operatorname{PMADR}(\emptyset)$

This function may be used in any arithmetic expression and is used to obtain the memory address of any player or missile. It is useful when you wish to MOVE, POKE, BGET, etc. data to (or from) a player area. (See section 8.13 for examples of its use, and section 8.2 for a description of the aexp values.)

NOTE: PMADR(m) -- where $m$ is a missile number (4 through 7) returns the same address for all missiles.
6.6 Special Purpose Functions
6.6.1 ADR

Format: ADR(svar)
Example: ADR(AS)
ADR(BS (5; ))
Returns the decimal memory address of the string specified by the expression in parentheses. Knowing the address enables the programmer to pass the information to USR routines, etc. (See USR and Appendix D).

### 6.6.2 DPEEK

Format: DPEEK(aexp)
Example: PRINT "variable table is at "; DPEEK(130)
The DPEEK function is yery similar to the PEEK function, except that it allows you to look two consecutive bytes of information. This is especially useful when looking at two byte locations containing address information, as in the above example. If you did this example using PEEKs, it would look like:

```
PRINT "variable name table is at ":
PRINT PEEK(130)+(PEEK(131)*256)
```

It is easy to see that using DPEEK is much easier.

```
    Format: DPOKE aexpl,aexp2
    Example: DPOKE 88,32768
DPOKE is similar to POKE, except that it allows you to
put two bytes of data into memory instead of one.
aexpl is the address where you want the data to go, and
aexp2 is the data itself. In the above example, the
address of the upper left-hand corner of the screen
(this address is stored at locations 88 and 89) is
changed to 32768. To do this using POKEs, you would
need to do an amazing amount of math to get the right
number into each of the two bytes.
6.6.4 ERR
Format:
                ERR (aexp)
Example:
PRINT "ERROR ";ERR(@); " OCCURRED AT LINE ";ERR(1)
This function -- in conjunction with TRAP, CONT, and GOTO allows the BASIC XL programmer to effectively diagnose and dispatch virtually any run-time error.
```

ERR(D) returns the last run-time error number
ERR(1) returns the line number where the error occurred

Example:
100 TRAP 200
110 INPUT "A NUMBER, PLEASE >>", NUM
120 PRINT "A VALID NUMBER" : END
20 IF ERR ( 0$)=8$ THEN GOTO ERR (1)
210 PRINT "UNEXPECTED ERROR *";ERR(0)

### 6.6.5 FRE

Format: FRE (aexp)
Example: PRINT FRE(ø)
100 IF FRE( $\varnothing$ ) < $10 \emptyset \emptyset$ THEN PRINT "MEMORY CRITICAL"

This function returns the number of bytes of user RAM left. Its primary use is in Direct mode with a dummy variable ( $\varnothing$ ) to inform the programmer how much memory space remains for completion of a program. Of course FRE can also be used within a BASIC program in Deferred mode.

This function will convert aexp to a four digit hexadecimal number.

The second example shows how you can obtain a two digit hex number for printing or other manipulation.

NOTE: no "\$" is placed in front of the number.
6.6.7 PEEK

Format: PEEK (aexp)
Example: 1000 IF PEEK (4000) $=255$ THEN PRINT "255"
$10 \varnothing$ PRINT "LEFT MARGIN IS";PEEK (82)
Returns the contents of a specified memory address location (aexp). The address specified must be an integer or an arithmetic expression that evaluates to an integer between $\varnothing$ and 65535 and represents the memory address in decimal notation (not hexadecimal). The number returned will also be a decimal integer with a range from $\emptyset$ to 255 . This function allows the user to examine either RAM or ROM locations. In the first example above, the PEEK is used to determine whether location 40øø (decimal) contains the number 255. In the second example, the PEEK function is used to examine the left margin.

### 6.6.8 POKE

Format: POKE aexpl, aexp2
Example: POKE 82,10
106 POKE 82,20
Although this is not a function, it is included in this section because it is closely associated with the PEEK function. This POKE command inserts data into the memory location or modifies data already stored there. In the above format, aexpl is the decimal address of the location to be poked and aexp2 is the data to be poked. Note that this number is a decimal number between $\sigma$ and 255. POKE cannot be used to alter ROM locations. In gaining familiarity with this command it is advisable to look at the memory location with a PEEK
and write down the contents of the location. Then, if the POKE doesn't work as anticipated, the original contents can be poked back into the location.

The above Direct mode example changes the left screen margin from its default position of 2 to a new position of 10 . In other words, the new margin will be 8 spaces to the right. To restore the margin to its normal default position, press <SYSTEM RESET>.
6.6 .9 SYs

Format: SYS(aexp)
Example: $1 \varnothing 6$ IF SYS $(\varnothing)=\varnothing$ THEN SET Ø. 128
The SYS function is used to find out the status of a given BASIC XL system function. These system functions can be changed using the SET command, and SYS allows you to find out what any current value is. aexp is the number of the system function as defined in the SET section (3.15).

```
6.6.10 TAB
```

Format: TAB(aexp)
Example: PRINT \#3:"columns:";TAB(20);20;TAB(30);30
The TAB function's effect is identical with that of the TAB statement (section 5.28). The difference is that, for PRINT USING statements, an imbedded TAB function simplifies the programmers task greatly.

TAB will output ATASCII space characters to the current PRINT file or device ( $\$ 3$ in our example). Sufficient spaces will be output so that the next item will print in the column specified (only if TAB is followed by a semi-colon, though). If the column specified is less than the current column, a RETURN will be output first.

CAUTION: The TAB function will output spaces on some device whenever it is used; therefore, it should be used ONLY in PRINT statements.
6.6.11 USR

Format: USR(aexpl [, aexp2][aexp3...])
Example: 100 RESULT $=$ USR (ADD1, $A * 2$ )
This function returns the results of a machine-language subroutine. The first expression, aexpl, must be an
integer or arithmetic expression that evaluates to an integer that represents the decimal memory address of the machine language routine to be performed. The input arguments aexp2, aexp3,etc., are optional. These should be arithmetic expressions within a decimal range of $\sigma$ through 65535. A non-integer value may be used; however, it will be rounded to the nearest integer.

These values will be converted from BASIC's Binary Coded Decimal (BCD) floating point number format to a two-byte binary number, then pushed onto the hardware stack.

The arguments are pushed in the reverse of the order given, so the assembly language program may then pull them in proper forward order. Additionally, the one-byte count of parameters is pushed onto the stack and MUST be popped by the USeR routine (except see section 3.15 , the SET command).

Also, if all arguments are properly pulled from the stack, then the USeR routine may return to BASIC XL by simply executing an RTS instruction. And, finally, the routine may return a single l6-bit value to BASIC XL (as the "value" of the USeR function) by placing a result in FRD and FRB+1 (\$D4 and \$D5) before returning.

Example: the following example uses a USR call to XOR two numbers (the arguments to the USR routine) and then return that value to BASIC XL.

BASIC XL statement:

```
PRINT HEX$(USR($68ø,$3FFA,$2972))
```

USR routine at \$686:

| FRD | ${\underset{*}{ \pm}}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \$ D 4 \\ & \$ 68 \varnothing \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | PLA |  | ; | get number of arguments |
|  | CMP | * 2 | ; | see if it's 2 |
|  | BNE | * | ; | loop forever if wrong num. of args. |
|  | PLA |  | ; | get high byte of arg |
|  | STA | FRG+1 | ; | store high byte |
|  | PLA |  | ; | get low byte of arg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
|  | STA | FRの | ; | store low byte |
|  | PLA |  | ; | get high byte of arg *2 |
|  | EOR | FRO+1 | ; | XOR it with high byte of arg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
|  | STA | FRO+1 | ; | store result of XOR |
|  | PLA |  | ; | get low byte of arg *2 |
|  | EOR | FRD | ; | XOR it with low byte of arg ${ }^{(1)}$ |
|  | STA | FRD | ; | store result of XOR |
|  | RTS |  | ; | end of USR routine |

$$
--85--
$$

### 6.6.12 An Example Program

The following program uses the system timer located at $\$ 12$. \$13, and $\$ 14$ to create a countdown clock. This is done by poking into the low byte of the timer and waiting until it is greater than or equal to 60.

106 GRAPHICS 2
110 PRINT 6; CHR\$(125) : REM Clear Mode 2 area
120 PRINT : PRINT : PRINT
136 PRINT "COUNTDOWN TIME? ":
140 INPUT * $0, X$
150 POKE $\$ 14,0$ : REM set clock $=0$
160 PRINT 6 ; "TIME - ",
170 WHILE X>日: REM gtart the countdown
180 POSITION 7.1 : REM get ready to print the new time

WHILE PEEK $(\$ 14)<=66$ : REM wait until a second has passed
210 ENDWHILE
228 POKE $\$ 14,6$ : REM reset the clock for the next second
$236 \quad X=X-1$ : REM decrement number of saconds left
246 ENDWHILE : REM end of countdown loop
250 PRINT CHRS(253) : REM ring the bell
260 GOTO 110: REM do the whole thing over again

This chapter describes the BASIC XL commands used to manipulate the wide variety of screen graphics available on the Atari personal computers. It also describes the BASIC XL command used to manipulate the sound generating mechanism of the Atari computers.
7.1 GRAPHICS (GR.)

Format: GRAPHICS aexp
Example: GRAPHICS 2
This command is used to select one of the nine graphics modes. The table below summarizes the nine modes and the characteristics of each.

The GRAPHICS command automatically opens the graphics area of the screen ( $\mathrm{S}:$ ) on channel $\%$. As a result of this, it is not necessary to specify a channel number when you want to PRINT to the text window, since it is still open on channel $\$ 0$.

NOTE: aexp must be positive.
Graphics modes $\varnothing, 9,10$, and 11 are full-screen display while modes 1 through 8 are split screen displays. To overcide the split-screen, add 16 to the mode number (aexp) in the GRAPHICS command. Adding 32 prevents the graphics command from clearing the screen.

To return to graphics mode 0 in Direct mode, press <SYSTEM RESET> or type GR.ø and press <RETURN>.

| Gr. | Mode |  | (split) | (full) | Num of |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mode | Type | Cols | Rows | Rows | Colors |
| 0 | TEXT | 40 | N/A | 24 | 2 |
| 1 | TEXT | 20 | 20 | 24 | 5 |
| 2 | TEXT | 20 | 10 | 12 | 5 |
| 3 | GRAPHICS | 40 | 20 | 24 | 4 |
| 4 | GRAPHICS | 80 | 40 | 48 | 2 |
| 5 | GRAPHICS | 80 | 40 | 48 | 4 |
| 6 | GRAPHICS | 160 | 80 | 96 | 2 |
| 7 | GRAPHICS | 160 | 80 | 96 | 4 |
| 8 | GRAPHICS | 320 | 168 | 192 | $11 / 2$ |
| 9 | GRAPHICS | 80 | N/A | 192 | 16 |
| 10 | GRAPHICS | 80 | N/A | 192 | 9 |
| 11 | GRAPHICS | 80 | N/A | 192 | 16 |

This mode is the l-color, 2-luminance(brightness) default mode for the ATARI Personal Computer. It contains a 24 line by 40 character screen matrix. The default margin settings at 2 and 39 allow 38 characters per line. Margins may be changed by poking LMARGN and RMARGN (82 and 83).

> Some systems have different margin default settings. The color of the characters is determined by the background color. Only the luminance of the characters can be different. This full-screen display has a blue display area bordered in black (unless the border is specified to be another color). To display characters at a specified location, use one the following method:

```
POSITION aexpl,aexp2 : REM Puts cursor at location
PRINT sexp
: REM specified by aexpl and aexp2.
```

GRAPHICS $\emptyset$ is also used as a clear screen command either in Direct mode or Deferred mode. It terminates any previously selected graphics mode and returns the screen to the default mode (GRAPHIC 日).
7.1.2 GRAPHICS Modes 1 and 2

These two 5-color modes are Text modes. However, they are both split-screen modes.

Characters printed in Graphics mode 1 are twice the width of those printed in Graphics $\sigma$, but are the same height.

Characters printed in Graphics mode 2 are twice the width and height of those in Graphics mode $\emptyset$.

In the split-screen mode, a PRINT command is used to display characters in either the text window or the graphic window. To print characters in the graphic window, specify channel $\% 6$ pfter the PRINT command.

Example: 100 GR. 1
110 PRINT ${ }^{16 ; " A}$ MODE 1 TEST"
The default colors depend on the type of character
input, as defined in the following table:
Character Type
Upper case alphabetic
Lower case alphabetic
Inverse upper case alphabetic
Inverse lower case alphabetic
Numbers
Inverse numbers

NOTE: see SETCOLOR to change character colors.
Unless otherwise specified, all characters are displayed in upper case non-inverse form. To print lower case letters and graphics characters, use a POKE 756,226. To return to upper case, use POKE 756,224.

In graphics modes 1 and 2, there is no inverse video, but if is possible to get all the rest of the characters in four different colors (see end of section).
7.1.3 GRAPHICS Modes 3.5, and 7

These three 4-color graphics modes are also split-screen displays in their default state, but may be changed to full screen by adding 16 to the mode number: Modes 3, 5, and 7 are alike except that modes 5 and 7 use more points (pixels) in plotting, drawing, and positioning the cursor; the points are smaller, thereby giving a much higher resolution.

### 7.1.4 GRAPHICS modes 4 and 6

These two 2-color graphics modes are split-screen displays and can display in only two colors while the other modes can display 4 and 5 colors. The advantage of a two-color mode is that it requires less RAM space. Therefore, it is used when only two colors are needed and RAM is getting crowded. These two modes also have a higher resolution which means smaller points than Graphics mode 3.

### 7.1.5 GRAPHICS mode 8

This graphics mode gives the highest resolution of all the other modes. As it takes a lot of RAM to obtain this kind of resolution, it can only accomodate a maximum of one color and two different luminances, as mode $\varnothing$.
7.1.6 GRAPHICS modes 9, 10, and 11

GRAPHICS modes 9, 10 , and 11 are the GTIA modes, and are somewhat different from all the other modes. Note that these modes do not allow a text window.

Mode 9 is a one color, 16 luminance mode. The main color is set by the background color, and the luminance values are determined by the information in the screen memory itself. Each pixel is four bits wide, allowing for 16 different values. These values are interpreted as the luminance of the base color for that pixel.

Mode 11 is similar to mode 9 in that the color information is in the screen memory itself, but the information for each pixel is interpreted as a color instead of a luminance. Thus there are 16 colors, all of the same luminance. The luminance is set by the luminance of the background color (default $=6$ ).

Mode 10 is somewhat of a crossbreed of the other two GTIA modes and the normal modes in that it offers lots of colors (like the GTIA modes) and uses the color registers (like the normal modes). However, since mode 10 allows 9 colors, it must use the player color registers as well as the other color registers. Below is a table showing how the pixel values relate to the color registers and what BASIC XL command may be used.

| VALUE | REGISTER | REG | ADDRESS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | COMMAND

7.2 COLOR (C.)

Format: COLOR aexp
Examples: 110 COLOR ASC("A")
116 COLOR 3
The value of the expression in the COLOR statement determines the data to be stored in the display memory for all subsequent PLOT and DRAWTO commands until the next COLOR statement is executed. The value must be positive and is usually an integer from through 255. Non-integers are rounded to the nearest integer. The graphics display hardware interprets this data in different ways in the different graphics modes.

In text modes $\square$ through 2 , the number can be from $\square$ through 255 ( 8 bits) and determines the character to be displayed and its color. (The two most significant bits determines the color. This is why only 64 different characters are available in these modes ingtead of the full 256 -character set.)

Graphics modes 3 through 8 are not text modes, so the data stored in the display RAM simply determines the color of each pixel. Two-color or two-luminance modes require either $g$ or 1 (l-bit) and four-color modes require 0, 1, 2, or 3. (The expression in the COLOR statement may have a value greater than 3, but only one or two bits will be used.)

The actual color which is displayed depends on the value in the color register which corresponds to the data of $6,1,2$, or 3 in the particular graphics mode being used. This may be determined by looking in the table at the end of the SETCOLOR section. This table gives COLOR and SETCOLOR relationships for all the GRAPHICS modes.

Note that when BASIC XL is first powered up, the color data is $\varnothing$, and when a GRAPHICS command (without +32 ) is executed, all of the pixels are set to $\quad$. Therefore, nothing seems to happen to. PLOT and DRAWTO in GRAPHICS 3 through 7 when no COLOR statement has been executed. Correct this by doing a COLOR 1 first.

```
7.3 DRAWTO (DR.)
```

Format:
DRAWTO aexpl, aexp2
Example: 100 DRAWTO 10.8
This statement causes a line to be drawn from the last point displayed by a PLOT (see PLOT) to the location by aexpl and aexp2. The first expression represents the $X$ coordinate (column) and the second represents the Y-coordinate (row). The color of the line is the same color as the point displayed by the PLOT.

```
7.4 LOCATE (LOC.)
```

Format: LOCATE aexpl, aexp2, avar
Example: 150 LOCATE 11, 15, X
This command positions the invisible graphics cursor at the specified location in the graphics window, retrieves the data at that pixel, and stores it in the specified arithmetic variable. This gives a number from $\emptyset$ to 255 for Graphics modes $\emptyset$ through 2, a or 1 for the 2-color graphics modes, and a 0,1,2, or 3 for the 4-color modes. The two arithmetic expressions specify the $X$ and $Y$ coordinates of the point. LOCATE is equivalent to:

## POSITION aexpl, aexp2:GET\$6, avar

Doing a PRINT after a LOCATE or GET from the screen may cause the data in the pixel which was examined to be modified. This problem is avoided by repositioning the cursor and putting the data that was read back into the pixel before doing the PRINT. The following program illustrates the use of the LOCATE command:

10 GRAPHICS 3+16
20 COLOR 1
30 SETCOLOR 2,10,8
46 PLOT 10,15
5б DRAWTO 15,15
6 LOCATE 12,15,X
76 PRINT $X$
On execution, the program prints the data (1) determined by the COLOR statement which was stored in pixel 12,15.

Format: PLOT aexpl, aexp2
Example: 10の PLOT 5.5
The PLOT command is used in graphics modes 3 through 8 to display a point in the graphics window. aexpl specifies the $X$-coordinate and aexp2 specifies the Y-coordinate. The color of the plotted point is determined by the due and luminance in the color register from the last COLOR statement executed. To change this color register, and the color of the plotted point, use SETCOLOR. Points that can be plotted on the screen are dependent on the graphics mode being used. The range of points begins at ( $\theta, \infty$ ), and extends to one less than the total number of rows (X-coordinate) or columns (Y-coordinate).

NOTE: PLOT aexpl, aexp2 is equivalent to:

$$
\text { POSITION aexpl,aexp2 : PUT } \# 6, \text { COLOR }
$$

### 7.6 POSITION (POS.)

Format: POSITION aexpl, aexp2
Example: 100 POSITION 8,12
The POSITION statement is used to place the invisible graphics window cursor at the specified location on the screen (usually precedes a PRINT or PUT statement). This statement can be used in all modes. Note that the cursor does not actually move until an $I / O$ command which involves the screen is issued.
7.7 PUT and GET (as applied to graphics)
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Formats: } & \text { PUT \#6, aexp } \\ & \text { GET } \# 6 \text {, avar }\end{array}$
Examples: $10 \emptyset$ PUT ${ }^{6, A S C(" A ") ~}$
200 GET ${ }^{2} 6, X$
In graphics work, PUT is used to output data to the screen display. This statement works hand-in-hand with the POSITION statement. After a PUT (or GET), the cursor is moved to the next location on the screen.

Doing a PUT to device ${ }^{(6}$ causes the one-byte aexp to be displayed at the cursor position. The byte is either an ATASCII code byte for a particular character (modes 0-2) or the color data (modes 3-8).

GET is used to input the code byte of the character displayed at the cursor position, into the specified arithmetic variable. The values used in PUT and GET correspond to the values in the COLOR statement. (PRINT and INPUT may also be used.)

NOTE: doing a PRINT after a LOCATE or GET from the screen may cause the data in the pixel which was examined to be modified. To avoid this problem, reposition the cursor and put the data that was read back into the pixel before doing the PRINT.

### 7.8 SETCOLOR (SE.)

Format: sETCOLOR aexpl, aexp2, aexp3
Example: 1ØØ SETCOLOR 0,1,4
This statement is used to choose the particular hue and luminance to be stored in the specified color register. The parameters of the SETCOLOR statement are defined below:

```
aexpl = Color register (0-4 depending on graphics mode)
aexp2 = Color hue number ( }0-15--\mathrm{ see the table below)
aexp3 = Color luminance (must be an even number between \(\emptyset\) and 14; the higher the number, the hrighter the display. 14 is almost pure white.)
```

| SETCOLOR aexp2 | Color | SETCOLOR aexp2 | Color |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | Gray | 8 | Blue |
| 1 | Gold | 9 | Light Blue |
| 2 | Orange | 10 | Turquoise |
| 3 | Red-Orange | 11 | Green-Blue |
| 4 | Pink | 12 | Green |
| 5 | Purple | 13 | Yellow-Green |
| 6 | Purple-Blue | 14 | Orange-Green |
| 7 | Blue | 15 | Light Orange |

Note: Colors will vary with type and adjustment of TV or monitor used.

The ATARI display hardware contains five color registers, numbered from ø through 4. The Operating System (OS) has five RAM locations (COLORO through COLOR4, see Appendix I - Memory Locations) where it keeps track of the current colors. The SETCOLOR statement is used to change the values in these RAM locations. (The OS transfers these values to the hardware registers every television frame.)

$$
--94--
$$

The SETCOLOR statement requires a value from 0 to 4 to specify a color register. The COLOR statement uses different numbers because it specifies data which only indirectly corresponds to a color register. This can be confusing, so careful study of the various tables in this section is advised.

| SETCOLOR | Default <br> Register <br> Color | Default <br> Luminance | Color |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| -9 | -2 | 8 | Orange |
| 1 | 12 | 10 | Green |
| 2 | 9 | 4 | Dark Blue |
| 3 | 4 | 6 | Pink or Red |
| 4 | 0 | 0 | Black |

"DEFAULT" occurs if no SETCOLOR statement is used.
The following table shows the COLOR -- SETCOLOR relationships for all the GRAPHICS modes, and gives some information on the registers used in a specific mode:


This special application of the XIO statement fills an area on the screen between plotted points and lines with a non-zero color value. Dummy variables (b) are used for aexpl and aexp2.

The following steps illustrate the fill process:

1. PLOT bottom right corner (point 1).
2. DRAWTO upper right corner (point 2). This outlines the right edge of the area to be filled.
3. DRAWTO upper left corner (point 3).
4. POSITION cursor at lower left corner (point 4).
5. POKE address 765 with the fill color data (1,2,or 3).

This method is used to fill each horizontal line from top to bottom of the specified area. The fill starts at the left and proceeds across the line to the right until it reaches a pixel which contains non-zero data (will wraparound if necessary). This means that fill cannot be used to change an area which has been filled in with a non-zero value, as the fill will stop.

WARNING: the fill command will go into an infinite loop if you attempt to put zero (0) data on a line which has no non-zero pixels. 〈BREAK> or <SYSTEM RESET> can be used to stop the fill if this happens.

The following program creates a shape and fills it with a data (color) of 3. Note that the XIO command draws in the lines of the left and bottom of the figure.

[^0]```
7.10 SOUND (SO.)
```

Format: SOUND aexpl, aexp2,aexp3, aexp4
Example: 10ø SOUND 2,203,10,12
The SOUND statement causes the specified note to begin playing as soon as the statement is executed. The note will continue playing until the program encounters another SOUND statement with the same aexpl or an END statement. The SOUND parameters are described as follows:

| aexpl | is one of the four vioces available Atari (number $\varnothing$ - 3 ). |
| :---: | :---: |
| aexp2 | is the frequency (pitch) of the sound, and ranges between $\varnothing$ and 255. The lower aexp2 is, the higher the frequency. |
| aexp3 | is a measure of the sound's distortion (fuzziness). Valid numbers are $g$ - 14, even numbers only. A value of 10 creates pure tones like a flute, and a 12 produces sounds similar to a guitar. |
| aed | is the volume of the sound. Valid values are 1-15; the lower the number, the lower the volume. |

Here is a table for various musical notes using a distortion of 10:

|  | aexp2 | Note(s) |  | aexp2 | Note(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| HIGH | 29 | C |  | 91 | F |
| NOTES | 31 | B |  | 96 | E |
|  | 33 | $\mathrm{A} \ddagger$ or Bb |  | 102 | D* or Eb |
|  | 35 | A |  | 108 | D |
|  | 37 | G\# or Ab |  | 114 | C\# or Db |
|  | 40 | G | MIDDLE C | 121 | C |
|  | 42 | F* or Gb |  | 128 | B |
|  | 45 | F |  | 136 | A\# or Bb |
|  | 47 | E |  | 144 | A |
|  | 56 | D\# or Eb |  | 153 | G\# or Ab |
|  | 53 | D |  | 162 | G |
|  | 57 | C\# or Db |  | 173 | $\mathrm{F} \#$ or Gb |
|  | 66 | c |  | 182 | F |
|  | 64 | B | LOW | 193 | E |
|  | 68 | A* or Bb | notes | 284 | D* or Eb |
|  | 72 | A |  | 217 | D |
|  | 76 | G\# or Ab |  | 230 | C\# or Db |
|  | 81 | G |  | 243 | c |
|  | 85 | F\# or $\mathbf{G b}$ |  |  |  |

The following program plays a $C$ scale using the above values:

10 READ A
20 IF $A=256$ THEN END
30 SOUND $\varnothing, A, 10,10$
4ø FOR W=1 TO 400:NEXT W
50 PRINT A
60 GOTO 10
70 END
80 DATA $29,31,35,40,45,47,53,60,64,72,81,91,96,108,121$
90 DATA $128,144,162,182,193,217,243,256$
Note that the DATA statement in line 80 ends with a 256, which is outside of the designated range. The 256 is used as an end-of-data marker.

This chapter describes the BASIC XL commands and functions used to access the Atari's Player-Missile Graphics. Player Missile Graphics (hereafter usually referred to as simply "PMG") represent a portion of the Atari hardware totally ignored by Atari BASIC and Atari OS. Even the screen handler (the "S:" device' knows nothing about PMG.

BASIC XL goes a long way toward remedying these omissions by adding six PMG commands (statements) and two PMG functions to the already comprehensive Atari graphics. In addition, four other statements and two functions have significant uses in PMG and will be discussed in this chapter.

For information on the PMG functions, see section 6.5 .
8.1 An Overview of $P / M$ Graphics

For a complete technical discussion of PMG, and to learn of even more PMG "tricks" than are included in BASIC XL, read the Atari document entitled "Atari 406/800 Hardware Manual" (Atari part number c®16555, Rev. 1 or later).

It was stated above that the "S:" device driver knows nothing of PMG, and in a sense this is proper: the hardware mechanisms that implement PMG are, for virtually all purposes, completely separate and distinct from the "playfield" graphics supported by "s:". For example, the size, position, and color of players on the video screen are completely independent of the GRAPHICS mode currently selected and any COLOR or SETCOLOR commands currently active. In Atari (and now BASIC XL) parlance, a "player" is simply a contiguous group of memory cells displayed as a vertical stripe on the screen. Sounds dull? Consider: each player (there are four) may be "painted" in any of the 128 colors available on the Atari (see SETCOLOR for specific colors). Within the vertical stripe, each bit set to 1 paints the player's color in the corresponding pixel, while each bit set to $\varnothing$ paints no color at alll That is, any 0 bit in a player stripe has no effect on the underlying playfield display.

Why a vertical stripe? Refer to the figure at the end of this section for a rough idea of the player concept. If we define a shape within the bounds of this stripe
(by changing some of the player's bits to l's), we may then move the stripe anywhere horizontally by a simple register POKE (or via the PMMOVE command in BASIC XL). We may move the player vertically by simply doing a circular shift on the contiguous memory block representing the player (again, the PMMOVE command of BASIC XL simplifies this process). To simplify:

A player is actually seen as a stripe on the screen 8 pixels wide by 128 (or 256, ee below) pixels high. Within this stripe, the you can POKE or MOVE bytes to establish what is essentially a tall, skinny picture (though much of the picture may consist of $g$ bits, in which case the background "shows through"). Using PMMOVE, you may then move this player to any horizontal or vertical location on the screen. To complicate:

For each of the four players there is a corresponding "missile" available. Missiles are exactly like players except that:
(1) they are only 2 bits wide, and all four missiles share a single block of memory
(2) each 2 bit sub-stripe has an independent horizontal position
(3) a missile always has the same color as its parent player.

Again, by using the BASIC XL commands (MISSILE and PMMOVE, for example), you the programmer need not be too aware of the mechanisms of PMG.


1. Players are numbered from $\sigma$ through 3. Each player has a corresponding missile whose number is 4 greater then that of its parent player, thus missiles are numbered 4 through 7. In the BUMP function, the "playfields" are numbered from 8 through 11, corresponding to actual playfields $\emptyset$ through 3. (Note: playfields are actually COLORs on the main GRAPHICS screen, and can be PLOTted, PRINTed, etc).
2. There is some inconsistency in which way is "UP". PLOT, DRAWTO, POKE, MOVE, etc are aware that $\varnothing, \sigma$ is the top left of the screen and that vertical position numbering increases as you go down the screen. PMMOVE and VSTICK, however, do only relative screen positioning, and define "+" to be UP and "-" to be DOWN. [If this really bothers you please let us knowl].
3. "pmnum" is an abbreviation for player-Missile Number and must be a number from 0 to 3 (for players) or 4 to 7 (for missiles).
4. 3 BGET and BPUT with $P / M^{\prime \prime} s$

As with MOVE (see section 8.11), BGET may be used to fill a player memory quickly with a player shape. The difference is that BGET may obtain a player directly from the disk!

Example: BGET $\# 3, \operatorname{PMADR}(0), 128$
Would get a PMG. 2 mode player from the file opened in slot 3.

Example: BGET *4, PMADR(4), 256*5
Would fill all the missiles AND players in PMG.l mode -- with single statementl.

BPUT would probably be most commonly used during program development to SAVE a player shape (or shapes) to a file for later retrieval by BGET.
Format: PMCLR pmnum
Example:
PMCLR 4
This statement "clears" a player or missile area to all
zero bytes, thus "erasing" the player/missile. PMCLR
is aware of what PMG mode is active and clears only the
appropriate amounts of memory. CAUTION: PMCLR 4
through PMCLR 7 all produce the same action - ALL
missiles are cleared, not just the one specified. To
clear a single missile, try the following:

SET 7,0: PMMOVE 4;255

```
8.5 PMCOLOR (PMCO.)
```

Format:
PMCOLOR pmnum, aexp, aexp
Example:
PMCOLOR 2,13,8
PMCOLORs are identical in usage to those of the SETCOLOR statement except that a player/missile set has its color chosen. Note there is no correspondence in PMG to the COLOR statement of playfield GRAPHICS: none is necessary since each player has its own color.

The example above would set player 2 and missile 6 to a medium (luminace 8) green (hue 13).

NOTE: PMG has NO default colors set on power-up or SYSTEM RESET.
8.6 PMGRAPHICS (PMG.)

Format:
Example:

PMGRAPHICS aexp
PMG. 2

This statement is used to enable or disable the player/ Missile Graphics system. The aexp should evaluate to Ø, 1. or 2:
PMG. $\quad$ Turn off PMG
PMG. 1 Enable PMG, single line resolution
PMG. 2 Enable PMG, double line resolution

Single and Double line resolution (hereafter refered to as "PMG Modes") refer to the height which a byte in the player "stripe" occupies - either one or two television scan lines. (A scan line height is the pixel height, in

GRAPHICS mode 8. GRAPHICS 7 has pixels 2 scan lines high, similar to PMG.2)

The secondary implication of single line versus double line resolution is that single line resolution requires twice as much memory as double line, 256 bytes per player versus 128 bytes. The following diagram shows PMG memory usage in BASIC XL, but the user really need not be aware of the mechanics if the PMADR function is used.

RAMSZ (\$6A)


Depending on GRAPHICS mode, there may or may not be unused memory here.


Format :
Example:
PMMOVE pmnum[,aexp][;aexp]
PMMOVE 0,120;1
PMMOVE 1,80
PMMOVE 4;-3
Once a player or missile has been "defined" (via POKE, MOVE, GET, or MISSILE), the truly unique features of PMG under BASIC XL may be utilized. With PMMOVE, the user may position the player/missile shape anywhere on the screen almost instantly.

BASIC XL allows the user to position each player and missile independently. Because of the hardware implementation, though, there is a difference in how horizonal and vertical positions are specified.

The parameter following the comma in PMMOVE is taken to be the ABSOLUTE position of the left edge of the "stripe" to be displayed. This position ranges from $\emptyset$ to 255, though the lowest and highest positions in this range are beyond the edges of the display screen. Note the specification of the LEFT edge: changing a player's width (see PMWIDTH) will not change the position of its left edge, but will expand the player to the right.

The parameter following the semicolon in PMMOVE is a RELATIVE vertical movement specifier. Recall that a "stripe" of player is 128 or 256 bytes of memory. Vertical movement must be accomplished by actual movement of the bytes within the stripe -- either towards higher memory (down the screen) or lower memory (up the screen). BASIC XL allows the user to specify a vertical movement of from - 255 (down 255 pixels) to +255 (up 255 pixels).

NOTE: The +/- convention on vertical movement conforms to the value returned by VSTICK.

> Example: PMMOVE N;VSTICK(N)

Will move player $N$ up or down (or not move him) in accordance with the joystick position.

NOTE: SET may be used to tell PMMOVE whether an object should "wraparound" (from bottom of screen to top of screen or vice versa) or should disappear as it scrolls too far up or down. SET 7,1 specifies wraparound, and SET 7,0 disables it.

Format:
Example:

PMWIDTH pmnum, aexp
PMWIDTH 1,2

Just as PMGRAPHICs can select single or double pixel heights. PMWIDTH allows the user to specify the screen width of players and missiles. But where PMGRAPHICs selects resolution mode for all players and missiles, PMWIDTH allows each player AND missile to be separately specified. The aexp used for the width should have values of 1,2 , or 4 -- representing the number of color clocks (equivalent to a pixel width in GRAPHICS mode 7) which each bit in a player definition will occupy.

NOTE: PMG. 2 and PMWIDTH 1 combine to allow each bit of a player definition to be equivalent to a GRAPHICS mode 7 pixel -- a not altogether accidental occurence.

NOTE: Although players may be made wider with PMWIDTH, the resolution then suffers. Wider "players" may be made by placing two or more separate players side-by-side.

### 8.9 POKE and PEEK with P/M's

One of the most common ways to put player data into a player stripe may well be to use POKE. In conjunction with PMADR, it is easy to write understandable player loading routines.

Example:
100 FOR LOC=48 TO 52
$11 \varnothing$ READ N: POKE LOC+PMADR(0),N 120 NEXT LOC

900 DATA 255,129,255,129,255
PEEK might be used to find out what data is in a particular player location.
8.10 MISSILE (MIS.)

Format:
MISSILE pmnum, aexp,aexp

Example:
MISSILE 4,48,3
The MISSILE statement allows an easy way for a parent player to "shoot" a missile. The first aexp specifies the absolute vertical position of the beginning of the missile (D is the top of screen), and the second aexp
specifies the vertical height of the missile.
Example: MISSILE 4,64,3
Would place a missile 3 or 6 scan lines high (depends on PMG. mode) at pixel 64 from the top.

NOTE: MISSILE does NOT simply turn on the bits corresponding to the position specified. Instead, the bits specified are exclusive-or'ed with the current missile memory. This can allow the user to erase existing missiles while creating others.

Example: MISSILE 5,40,4 MISSILE 5,40,8

The first statement creates a 4 pixel missile at vertical position 20 . The second statement erases the first missile and creates a 4 pixel missile at vertical position 24.

```
8.11 MOVE with P/M's
```

MOVE is an efficient way to load a large player andor move a player vertically by a large amount. This ability to MOVE data either upwards or downwards allows for interesting possibilties.

Also, it would be easy to have several player shapes contained in stripes and then MOVEd into place at will.

Examples:
MOVE $\operatorname{ADR}(A \$), \operatorname{PMADR}(2), 128$
could move an entire double line resolution player from As to player stripe number 2 .

POKE PMADR(1), 255 : MOVE PMADR(1), $\operatorname{PMADR}(1)+1,127$
would fill player l's stripe with all "on" bits, creating a solid stripe on the screen.

### 8.12 USR with P/M's

Because of USR's ability to pass parameters to an assembly language routine, PMG functions (written in assembly language) can be easly interfaced to BASIC XL.

Example: A=USR(PMBLINK, PMADR(2), 128)
Might call an assembly language program (at address PMBLINK) to BLINK player 2, whose size is 128 bytes.
--106--

```
8.13 Example PMG Programs
```

1. A very simple program with one player and its
missile.


CAUTION: do NOT put the REMarks on lines 510 thru 550. since DATA must be the last statement on a line.

NOTE: the REM in line 330 is required. All other REME are optional.

Notice how the data for the player shape is built up... draw a picture on an 8-wide by n-high piece of grid

```
paper, filling in whole cells. Call a filled in cell a
'1' bit, empty cells are '\sigma'. Convert the l's and g's
to hex notation and thence to decimal.
This program will run noticably faster if you use multiple statements per line. It. was written as above for clarity, only.
```

2. A more complicated program, sparsely commented.


660 DATA $\$ 63 C 0$

Notice how much easier it is to use the hex data.
The factor slowing this program the most is the SIN and COS being calculated in the movement loop. If these values were pre-calculated and placed in an array this program would movel

1 While seT 0,1 was specified, the user hit the BREAK key. This TRAPpable error gives the BASIC XL programmer total system control.

2 All avaiable memory has been used. No more statements can be entered and no more variables (arithmetic, string or array) can be defined.

3 An expression or variable evaluates to an incorrect value. Example:

An expression that can be converted to a two byte integer in the range $\square$ to 65235 (hex SFFFF) is called for and the given expression is either too large or negative.
$\mathrm{A}=\operatorname{PEEK}(-1)$
DIM B(7000ஜ)
Both these statments will produce a value error.

## Example:

An expression that can be converted to a one byte integer in the range $a$ to 255 hex(FF) is called for and the given expression is too large.

POKE 50Øø, 750
This statement produces a value error.
Example:
$A=S Q R(-4) \quad$ Produces a value error.
4 No more variables can be defined. The maximum number of variables is 128 .

5 A character beyond the DIMensioned or current length of a string has been accessed. Example:

```
100\emptyset DIM AS(3)
2000 AS(5) = "A"
```

This will produce a string length error at line 2006 when the program is RUN.

6 A READ statement is executed but we are already at the end of the last DATA statement.

7 A line number larger than 32767 was entered.
8 The INPUT or READ statement did not recieve the type of data it expected. Example:

1000 READ A
2000 PRINT A
$360 \square$ END
40øD DATA 12AB
Running this program will produce this error.
9 A previously DrMensioned string or array is DIMensioned again. Example:
1000 DIM A(10)
2000 DIM A(10)

This program produces a DIM error.
10 An expression is too complex for BASIC XL to handle. The solution is to break the calculation into two or more BASIC XL statements.

11 The floating point routines have produced a number that is either too large or too small.

12 The line number required for a GOTO or gosub does not exist. The GOTO may be implied as in:
$10 \emptyset \emptyset$ IF $A=B$ THEN 5ØØ
The GOTO / GOSUB may also be part of an ON statement.

```
ERROR
NUMBER DESCRIPTION
```

13 A NEXT was encountered but there is no information about a FOR with the same variable. Example:

```
1000 DIM A(10)
2@\emptyset\emptyset REM FILL THE ARRAY
3000 FOR I = O TO 10
4000 A(I) = I
500ø NEXT I
600® REM PRINT THE ARRAY
70\emptyset\emptyset FOR K = 0 TO 10
800\emptyset PRINT A(K)
9006 NEXT I
10øø\emptyset END
```

Running this program will cause the following output:

0
ERROR- 13 AT LINE $9 \varnothing 06$
NOTE: Improper use of POP could cause this error.

14 The line just entered is longer than Basic can handle. The solution is to break the line into multiple lines by putting fewer statements on a line, or by evaluating the expression in multiple statements.

15 The line containing a GOSUB or FOR was deleted after it was executed but before the RETURN or NEXI was executed.

This can happen if, while running a program, a STOP is executed after the GOSUB or FOR, then the line containing the GOSUB or FOR is deleted, then the user types CONT and the program tries to execute the RETURN or NEXT. Example:

1000 GOSUB 2000
$11 \varnothing \varnothing$ PRINT ."RETURNED FROM SUB"
$12 ø 0$ END
2060 PRINT "GOT TO SUB"
2100 STOP
22øø RETURN
If this program is run the print out is: GOT TO SUB
STOPPED AT LINE 2100
Now if the user deletes line $10 \varnothing 0$ and then
types CONT we get
ERROR- 15 AT LINE 2200

16 A RETURN was encountered but we have no information about a GOSUB. Example:
$1 \varnothing \varnothing \varnothing$ PRINT "THIS IS A TEST" $200 \emptyset$ RETURN

If this program is run the print out is:
THIS IS A TEST
ERROR- 16 AT LINE $29 \varnothing \varnothing$
NOTE: improper use of POP could also cause this error.

17 If when entering a program line a syntax error occurs, the line is saved with an indication that it is in error. If the program is run without this line being corrected, execution of the line will cause this error.

NOTE: The saving of a line that contains a syntax error can be useful when LISTing and ENTERing programs.

18 If when executing the VAL function, the string argument does not start with a number, this message number is generated. Example:
$A=V A L(" A B C ")$ produces this error.
19 The program that the user is trying to LOAD is larger than available memory.

This could happen if. the user had used LOMEM to change the address at which Basic tables start, or if he is LOADing on machine with less memory than the one on which the program was SAVEA.

20 If the device / file number given in an $1 / 0$ statement is greater than 7 or less than $D$, then this error is issued.

Example: GET \#8,A

21 This error results if the user tries to LOAD a file that was not created by SAVE.

22 This error occurs if the length of the entire format string in a PRINT USING statement is greater than 255. It also occurs if the length of the sub-format for one specific variable is greater than or equal to $6 \boldsymbol{\sigma}$.

23 The value of a variable in a PRINT USING statement is greater than or equal to $1 E+50$.

24 In a PRINT USING statement, the format indicates that a variable is a numeric when in fact the variable is a string. Or the format indicates the variable is a string when it is actually a numeric. Example:

PRINT USING "\#\#\#",AS
PRINT USING "8\%\%",A
Will produce this error.
The string being retreived by RGET from a device (i.e., the one written by RPUT) has a different DIMension length than the string variable to which it is to be assigned.

The record being retreived by RGET (ie. the one written by RPUT) is a numeric, but the variable to which it is to be assigned is a string. Or the record is a string, but the variable is a numeric.

An INPUT statement was executed and the user entered CTRL-C 〈RETURN>.

28 The end of a control structure such as ENDIF or ENDWHILE was encountered but the run-time stack did not have the corresponding beginning structure on the Top of Stack. Example:
$1 \varnothing$ WHILE 1 : REM loop forever
$2 \varnothing$ GOSUB $1 \varnothing \varnothing$
$1 \varnothing \varnothing$ ENDWHILE

ENDWHILE finds the GOSUB on Top of stact and issues the error.

29 An illegal player/missile number. Players must be numbered from 0-3 and missiles from 4-7.

30 The user attempted to use a PMG statement other than PMGRAPHICS before executing PMGRAPHICS 1 or PMGRAPHICS 2.

32 End of ENTER. This is the error resulting from a program segment such as:

SET 9.1 : TRAP line\# : ENTER filename
when the ENTER terminates normally.
The second aexp in a RENUM or NUM command evaluated to zero, and an increment of $\varnothing$ is invalid.

When RENUMbering, the maximum line number (32767) was exceeded.

40 You attempted to use a string variable as a string array variable, or visa versa. Example:

DIM A\$ $(3,20)$
$A \$=$ "THIS CAUSES AN ERROR"
would create this error.


|  | HEXADECIMAL |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LABEL | LOCATION | COMMENTS and DESCRIPTION |
| CONSOL | DG1F | Console Keys (bit 2=OPTION; bit 1 SELECT; bit 0 START) |
| SKCTL | D20F | Serial Port Control Register (bit 2=ø if last key still pressed) |



## ATASCII ChARACTER SET








## Notes:

1. ATASCII stands for "ATARI ASCII". Letters and numbers have the same values as those in ASCII, but some of the special characters are different.
2. Except as shown, characters from 128-255 are reverse colors of 1 to 127.
3. Add 32 to upper case code to get lower case code for same letter.
4. To get ATASCII code, tell computer (direct mode) to PRINT ASC (" $\qquad$ ") Fill blank with letter, character, or number of code. Must use the quotes!
5. On pages C-1 and C-3, the normal display keycaps are shown as white symbols on a black background; on pages C-4 and C-6 inverse keycap symbols are shown as black on a white background.

All keywords, grouped by statements and then functions, are listed below in alphabetical order. A page number reference is given to enable the user to quickly find more information about each keyword.

EXPLANATION OF TERMS

```
exp - EXPression line - line number (can
aexp - Arithmetic exp
sexp - string exp
var - VARiable
avar - Arithmetic var
svar - String var
mvar - Matrix var
    (or element)
fn - File Number
<stmts> one or more statements
filename - svar or string literal (quotes are optional
except with LIST)
NOTE: keywords denoted by an asterisk (*) not in Atari
BASIC.
```


## STATEMENTS

| page | syntax |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 49 | *BGET | \#fn, addr, len |
| 50 | *BPUT | \#fn, addr, len |
| 21 | BYE |  |
| 50 | CLOAD |  |
| 51 | CLOSE | \#fn |
| 21 | CLR |  |
| 91 | COLOR | aexp |
| 22 | CONT |  |
| 23 | * CP |  |
| 51 | CSAVE |  |
| 51 | DATA | <ATASCII data> |
| 72 | DEG |  |
| 22 | *DEL | line [,line] |
| 12 | *DIM | svar(aexp [', aexp]) |
| 16 | DIM | mvar (aexp[, aexp]) |
| 52 | *DIR | [filename] |
| 23 | DOS |  |
| 82 | *DPOKE | addr, aexp |
| 92 | DRAWTO | aexp,aexp |
| 40 | *ELSE | \{see IF\} |

page syntax

34
40
46
52
53
23
35
53
36
37
87
39
39

## 54

53
41
41
41
24
24
55
92
24
55

END
*ENDIF \{see IF\}
*ENDWHILE
ENTER filename
*ERASE filename
FAST
FOR avar=aexp TO aexp [STEP aexp]
GET \#fn, avar
GOSUB line
GOTO line
GRAPHICS aexp
IF aexp THEN <stmts>
IF aexp THEN line
*IF aexp: <stmts> ELSE : <stmts>
ENDIF
*INPUT "...", var [,var...] INPUT [\#fn,] var [,var...]
*[LET] svar=sexp [,sexp..]
[LET] avar=aexp
[LET] mvar=aexp
LIST [filename]
LIST [filename,] line [,line]
LOAD filename
LOCATE aexp, aexp, avar
*LOMEM addr
LPRINT [exp [;exp...] [.exp...] ]
*LVAR [filename]
*MISSILE pm,aexp,aexp
*MOVE fromaddr, toaddr, lenaexp
NEW
NEXT avar
NOTE \#n, avar, avar
*NUM [line][,aexp]
ON aexp GOTO line [., line...]
ON aexp GOSUB line [,line...]
OPEN \#fn, mode, avar,filename
PLOT aexp,aexp
*PMCLR pm
*PMCOLOR pm, aexp, aexp
*PMGRAPHICS aexp
*PMMOVE pm[, aexp] [;aexp]
*PMWIDTH pm, aexp
POINT \#fn, avar,avar
POKE addr, aexp
POP
POSITION aexp,aexp
PRINT [角fn]
PRINT exp [ [;exp...] [, exp....] ] [;]
PRINT $\#$ fn [ [;exp...] [,exp...] ] [;]
*PRINT [\#fn,] USING sexp , [exp[, exp...]]
*PROTECT filename

```
page syntax
63 ---m-- fUT fri, aexp
72 RAD
70 RANDOM
63 READ var [.var...]
26 REM <any remark>
64 *RENAME filenames
27 RENUM [start][,increment]
45 RESTORE [line]
36 RETURN
64 *RGET #fn, asvar [,asvar...]
65 *RPUT #fn,exp\Gamma.,exp...]
27 RUN [filename]
66 SAVE filename
28 SET aexp,aexp
94 SETCOLOR aexp, aexp,aexp
97 SOUND aexp,aexp,aexp,aexp
66 STATUS #fn, avar
35 STEP [see FOR]
31 STOP
67 *TAB [#fn], avar
39 THEN {see IF}
35 TO [see FOR}
31 *TRACE
31 *TRACEOFF
45 TRAP line
67 *UNPROTECT filename
46 *WHILE aexp
67 XIO aexp, fn,aexp,aexp,filename
57 ? {same as PRINT}
```

FUNCTIONS
page syntax
69 ABS (aexp)
81 ADR (zvar)
73 ASC(sexp)
72 ATN (aexp)
86 *BUMP (pmnum, aexp)
73 CHR\$ (aexp)
69 CLOG (aexp)
$72 \cos (a \exp )$
81 *DPEEK (addr)
82 tERR (aexp)
70 EXP (aexp)
74 *FIND (sexp,sexp, aexp)
82 FRE (0)
78 *HSTICK ( aexp)
70 INT (aexp)
75 LEN (sexp)

```
page syntax
70 LOG(aexp)
78 PADDLE (aexp)
7 8
81
78
83
7 1
7 1
72
71
7 9
7 9
76
84
84
84
7 6
7 9
*PEN(aexp)
*PMADR(pm)
    PTRIG (aexp)
    PEEK(addr)
    RND(0)
    SGN (aexp)
    SIN(aexp)
    SQR(aexp)
    STICK(aexp)
    STRIG (aexp)
    STRS (aexp)
    *SYs(aexp)
    *TAB(aexp)
    USR(addr [,aexp...])
    VAL (sexp)
*VSTICK(aexp)
```

Generally, BASIC XL is totally compatible with Atari BASIC. Virtually all programs written in Atari BASIC and SAVEd or CSAVEd thereunder will LOAD or CLOAD properly with BASIC XL and run without changes. However, in a few very subtle ways, there are minor differences between Atari BASIC and BASIC XI. This appendix presents a list of known differences, but OSS cannot guarantee that it is an exhaustive list.

## 1. VARIABLE NAMES

When programs are SAVEd or CSAVEd under Atari BASIC and then LOADed or CLOADed under BASIC XL, there will never be a conflict in variable name usage. However, when a program is LISTed from Atari BASIC and then ENTERed into BASIC XL, or when a program listing published in a magazine or book is typed into BASIC XL, it is possible that BASIC XL will not accept lines of code which are valid in Atari BASIC.

The reason, of course, is that BASIC XL has a much richer range of keywords for statements and functions than does Atari BASIC, and in neither language can variable name begin with a statement name unless it is preceded with a LET keyword. To illustrate the problem, let us examine the following valid Atari BASIC line:

$$
\text { NUMBER }=7
$$

Because NUM is a valid BASIC XL statement name, it will now be seen by our syntax parsers as this: NUM BER=7
That is, it is seen as a NUM command with a starting line number of (BER=7). Since you probably don't have a variable named BER in your program, BER will not equal 7, so the statement becomes the equivalent of simply

NUM $\emptyset$
which is certainly not what was intended.
In most cases, variable name conflicts such as this will result in a syntax error. In this particular case (and a few others), the result appears valid to BASIC XL so no syntax error results. How can you detect such problems easily? The easiest way is to examine the LISTed form of the program. Since BASIC XL always lists a space after every keyword, and since all keywords and variables are listed in lower case except for the first letter, it is often easy to spot discrepancies of this form.

In any case, the intent of the original Atari BASIC program can always be accomplished by simply placing the LET keyword in front of the offending variable, thusly:

## LET NUMBER=7

In the case of array variables, the situation is both simpler and more complex. Only those variables which have EXACTLY the same name as a new BASIC XL function (such as BUMP or RANDOM) will be in conflict, so the number of offending names is much smaller. However, the only fix that can be made in these cases is to change the name of the variable, usually by simply adding a single character (e.g.. change BUMP to BUMPS).

## 2. Upper and Lower Case, Inverse Video

Again, these problems will never occur with programs SAVEd in Atari basic and LOADed under basic XL.

In order to make keyboard entry more flexible and more consistent, BASIC XL allows you, the programmer, to type your programs in with upper case letters, lower case letters, or even inverse video characters. BASIC XL accomplishes this by simply changing all such characters to their conventional normal video, upper case counterparts, excepting ONLY those characters enclosed in quote marks.

The only times that this makes any difference at all are (1) when the user types in a string and does not terminate it with a quote mark and (2) in DATA and REM statements where the user really desired the lower case or inverse characters. In either case, enclosing the desired characters in matching quotes will solve the problem (recall that BASIC XL supports quoted strings in DATA statements).

However, BASIC XL also provides a means of completely emulating Atari BASIC in this regard, should you wish. Simply use the command SET 5. $\varnothing$
and all characters will remain unconverted. This is also handy when ENTERing programs LISTed from Atari BASIC.

1
This same SET ha's a secondary effect: when non-converting, upper case only entry is selected, then all LISTings will be in upper case only. This allows the BASIC XL user to LIST programs which will be compatible with Atari BASIC's ENTER capability (providing, of course, that no advanced statements or functions were used in the code).

Of course, the fact that your programs will run faster is probably one of the primary reasons that you bought BASIC XL. And, generally, the speed-up provided is only beneficial.

A few programs, though, will depend on timing loops, etc., to run properly. There is no real "cure" for this "problem". Hopefully, you will be able to play the faster games and/or read the faster messages.

A related problem has to do with the fact that BASIC XL always automatically executes a FAST command whenever it encounters a statement of the form RUN filename
(that is, ONLY when a filename is given in conjunction with RUN).

Many programs which run only somewhat faster with normal BASIC XL will run much, much faster when the FAST command is given. You may really find yourself with a game which is simply too fast to play.

There are two solutions. The first is simply to LOAD the program first and then issue a separate RUN command. If, however, you have an auto-booting disk or a program which chains to another program via RUN, this is not a practical solution. The second solution, then, is to simply hold down the sELECT button when the RUN is executed (which may imply holding the button for a while when an auto-booting disk is started). BASIC XL allows this usage of SELECT as a means of telling it to slow down.
4. Memory Locations

BASIC XL attempts to conform to all memory location usage published in any or all of the following books:

> Atari BASIC Reference Manual, by Atari, Inc.
> Operating System Source Listing,
> for Atari $4 \emptyset \varnothing / 8 \emptyset \emptyset, ~ A t a r i, ~ I n c . ~$ (except that locations sIN, COS, ATAN, and SQR are incorrect, even for Atari BASIC)

De Re Atari, by Chris Crawford, et al
Mapping the Atari, from COMPUTEl Books
Master Memory Map, by Educational Software, Inc.

A few programs written by extremely knowledgeable individuals have, in the past, made use of one or more of the following unpublished facts about Atari BASIC:
(1) Atari BASIC uses certain memory locations only at certain times. (2) Certain zero page memory locations have special meanings to Atari BASIC. (3) Certain subroutines, internal to Atari BASIC, are located at certain addresses.

Obviously, it was impossible to add the features and speed to BASIC XI which we did without adding code and making more use of the memory reserved for BASIC. Although we attempted to keep the changes to an absolute minimum, we cannot possibly be responsible for maintaining compatibility with programs which use such undocumented and unpublished information.

May we remind you of the memory locations and map which we presented in Appendices B and C. We invite comparison of these with Appendices $D$ and I in the Atari BASIC Reference Manual. All usage is compatible.

Finally, for those who are experienced programmers, we present here a list of all zero page locations which ARE used in the same way by both Atari BASIC and BASIC XL. Only addresses are given. Refer to a memory map book or The Atari BASIC Sourcebook (published by COMPUTE! Books) for descriptions of the locations' uses.

| $\$ 80$ | to $\$ 92$ | $\$ 94$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| to $\$ B 3$ |  |  |
| $\$ B 6$ | to $\$ 88$ | $\$ B A$ to $\$ B B$ |
| $\$ C 2$ to $\$ C 3$ | $\$ C 8$ to $\$ C 9$ |  |
| $\$ D 2$ to $\$ F F$ |  |  |

CAUTION: Some of these locations may be used by BASIC XL for additional purposes, beyond (but compatible with) the usages of Atari BASIC. These additional purposes may imply use of the locations at times when they were unused by Atari BASIC or even use of certain bits left unmodified by Atari BASIC. It is suggested that the user should not modify these locations, though he might profitably use the information they contain. Additionally, oss reserves the right to change usage of these locations if necessary for future corrections or improvements, though you may safely assume that those locations mentioned in "Mapping the Atari" will remain unchanged.

## 5. AUTOMATIC STRING DIMENSION

BASIC XL automatically dimensions strings to 40 characters. Again, this should have no effect on currently running Atari BASIC programs. If desired, you can use

SET 11,0
to ensure total compatibility.
6. INDENTED LISTINGS

When BASIC XL lists a program, it automatically adds indentation for FOR...NEXT loops (and other control structures). This could only be a problem with long lines LISTed to disk and then re-ENTERed into BASIC. Again. you may use SET 12, $\varnothing$
to ensure compatibility and remove the indenting.


[^0]:    10 GRAPHICS 5+16
    20 COLOR 3
    30 PLOT 70,45
    40 DRAWTO 50,10
    50 DRAWTO 30,10
    60 POSITION 10.45
    70 POKE 765,3
    80 XIO 18, *6, $0,0, " 5 "$
    $9 \varnothing$ GOTO $9 \varnothing$

