

The BASIC ROM User Guide

for the BBC microcomputer and Acorn Electron

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Introduction

Many books have been written explaining how to program in BBC BASIC, or how to program in 6502 machine code. Most people therefore know BASIC or machine code without really understanding what BASIC itself is up to. This book fills in that gap by providing a complete description of BASIC as a *system*.

Although BASIC is a very large machine code program, it is essentially very simple, as it is very *structured:* once you can see the overall structure of the system, it is very easy to delve deeper and deeper into its workings, to find out exactly what is happening. This book explains that overall structure: program storage, variable storage, expression evaluation, etc., right down to the mechanisms used by a FOR…NEXT loop or a procedure call. Armed with this knowledge, and the [disassembler in chapter](#page-87-0) [6](#page-87-0), you can probe right down to the machine code level of BASIC.

Understanding the operation of a large machine code program such as BBC BASIC has many advantages: not only does it point the way for writing large machine code programs yourself, but it also allows you to write your BASIC programs much more efficiently. Once you know what BASIC has to do to interpret a program, it is possible to write faster programs if you need to, by using resident integer variables wherever possible, using PROCs and FNs rather than GOSUBs, and so on.

The second part of this book describes how to add routines on to BASIC to expand the capabilities of your machine, mainly by trapping the errors that it generates. Adding new commands, overlaying procedures, etc., are all covered, together with how to get back into BASIC to continue afterwards. The examples also show you how to use some of the ROM routines to save space and time in your own machine code programs.

The example programs are complete in that you can type them in and run them, and many of them are useful utilities. However, they also indicate the possibilities available to the adventurous programmer — don't be afraid to chop them about, and use them as a basis to put your own ideas into practice. [Chapter 10](#page-163-0) provides a comprehensive listing of the BASIC ROM entry points (for both BASIC1 and BASIC2), so that you can experiment with other ideas for new utilities.

Of course, using ROM routines directly will mean that your programs might not work on the Tube, Econet, or with a different BASIC; in fact, the BASIC ROM may not even be 'paged in' when you try to use it. For experimenting with your own machine, however, this doesn't really matter. Commercial programs should *never* use any of these ROM routines; the program might find itself running in a situation you did not allow for. For such programs, or any others which are not restricted to a particular system configuration, only the officially documented facilities should be used.

Note that all Electrons, and the later BBC microcomputers, have BASIC2: the earlier BBC microcomputers have BASIC1. If you are not sure which version of BASIC is in your machine, typing REPORT after BASIC has just started up (after a BREAK or *BASIC), will print the copyright message. If the date is 1981, BASIC1 is fitted; if it is 1982, you have BASIC2. American machines, or those with a second processor, may have US BASIC or HIBASIC: the ROM routines will not be in the same place for these ROMs.

Armed with this book, and plenty of coffee, you should have many happy nights programming. Have fun!

1 The 6502 Microprocessor

At the heart of any microcomputer is the microprocessor. In the BBC micro and Electron this is the 6502, which provides the computer with all its processing power.

By itself, the 6502 is a very simple machine; but it can be made to perform relatively complex tasks (like interpreting programs written in BASIC) by stringing together many of its simple instructions into a machine code program.

This section is not really a tutorial on machine code programming, but more an introduction to the 6502 to give an idea of how the rest of the BASIC system operates around it.

1.1 The 6502 registers

The 6502 has 6 registers altogether: the accumulator A, the index registers X and Y, the program counter PC, the stack register S, and the processor status register P. These are shown in the *programming model*, fig 1.1.

Figure 1.1 – The 6502 programming model.

The accumulator A

The accumulator A is used for all of the arithmetic and logical operations done by the 6502, as well as just loading it from memory and storing it back into memory again. It is the only 6502 register which can be used for adding, subtracting, ANDing, etc. of numbers, and so tends to be used rather a lot. It is 8 bits (1 byte) wide, so it can only hold 256 (&100) different numbers altogether.

As an example, the instruction:

AND &80

ANDs the 8-bit number in the accumulator with the 8-bit number in location $&80$ (i.e. $&?&80$), leaving the result in the accumulator.

The index registers X and Y

Either of these can be used a counter, or as an offset into a table in memory. They can also be loaded from and stored into memory. Again they are only 8 bits wide, so they can only count up to 255 (&FF).

As an example, the instruction:

LDA &2000,Y

loads the accumulator from the location at $&2000+Y$. Thus if the Y register contained &2A, the accumulator would be loaded with the contents of location &202A.

The program counter PC

This is the register which tells the 6502 where to get its next instruction from. In a machine code program, the instructions are stored one after another in memory, and the program counter steps through these while they are executed. In practice, you don't really notice the program counter much (just as you don't notice the text pointers that BASIC uses to step through *its* program). The program counter is the only 16-bit register that the $\overline{6502}$ has, and allows it to *address* 65536 (&10000) locations.

As an example, the instruction:

JMP &8000

jumps to location &8000 (in a similar way to the GOTO statement) by loading the number &8000 into the program counter.

The stack pointer S

This register points into a stack in page 1, from $&100$ to $&1FF$. Numbers can be *pushed* on the top of the stack, to save them until later, and then *pulled* (or *popped*) again to get back the last number that was *pushed*. This is called a *last in first out* (LIFO) structure, because the first thing that you get out was the last thing that you put in.

When a single byte number is pushed on the stack, it is placed in memory at the location pointed to by the stack pointer $(\&1F0,$ say, if the S register contains $\&E_0$, and the stack pointer is decremented to point to the location below it in memory. When a byte is pulled, the opposite takes place: the stack pointer is incremented, and the number loaded from the location in page 1 which it points to.

As an example, the instruction:

PHA

pushes the contents of the accumulator on the 6502 stack.

The processor status register P

This register contains the flags that the 6502 needs for its arithmetic and system operations.

- **N** This is the negative flag. It is set whenever the top bit is set in the 8-bit number just calculated or loaded from memory ([see section 1.2](#page-11-0) for negative number representation).
- **V** This is set if an overflow occurred the last time an 8-bit signed add or subtract operation was performed ([see](#page-11-0) [section 1.2](#page-11-0)).
- **B** This is the BRK flag. It is set when a BRK instruction is executed ([see section 1.3](#page-15-0)).
- **D** This is the decimal flag. It can be set if any *binary coded decimal* arithmetic is to be performed ([see section 1.2\)](#page-11-0).
- **I** This is the interrupt flag. It can be set to prevent the 6502 from being interrupted by a hardware IRQ.
- **Z** This is the zero flag. It is set whenever the 8-bit number just calculated or loaded from memory is zero.
- **C** This is the carry flag. The ADC and SBC instructions use this to indicate whether there was a 'carry over' from the calculation just performed ([see section 1.2](#page-11-0)). It is also used by the shift instructions [\(section 1.3\)](#page-15-0).

Some of these flags can be tested so that parts of the machine code program are executed conditionally. For example the instruction:

BCS carry

will branch to the location 'carry' if the carry flag is set: otherwise the program will continue with the instruction after the 'BCS'. The use of these flags is explained more with the instructions in [section 1.3.](#page-15-0)

1.2 Machine code arithmetic

As the 6502 accumulator is only 8 bits wide, it can only represent one of 256 different numbers. Hexadecimal notation is convenient to represent numbers in a byte, because each hexadecimal digit represents 4 bits, so 2 digits represent a whole byte, from &00 to &FF. What the 256 different numbers are used to represent is fairly arbitrary: they can represent positive numbers, negative numbers, or part of a larger number.

1.2.1 Negative numbers

A single byte can be used to represent the positive integers from 0 to 255. This is convenient for counting; but for arithmetic, some way of representing negative numbers is really needed.

If you add the single byte number $&04$ to $&FC$, you get $&00$ (ignoring any carry out of the byte). So, in this case, $\&\text{FC}$ seems to be behaving as if it was −4 (as '−4' is 'the number which you add to 4 to get 0'). However, it can *also* represent the positive number 252. The answer is that with only $\overline{8}$ bits, you can't tell the difference between '252' or '252 – 256' or '252 + 256' or '252 + any number of 256s'.

So if you want half of the 256 numbers you can represent in a byte to be negative, all you have to do is leave $&00$ to $&7F$ to be the positive numbers 0 to 127, and let $&80$ to $&F$ represent the negative ones. These negative ones will have the same representation as the positive numbers which you get by adding 256 to them, so '−4' will be the same as '−4+256' (252), i.e. &FC.

Choosing the numbers above &80 to be negative is very convenient, because it means that all the numbers with the top bit of the byte set will be negative, while all the numbers with the top bit zero will be positive. Thus the top bit of a signed number like this is the *sign bit* of the number. This is what the N flag in the 6502 is for: it indicates the *sign bit* of the number which has just been operated on.

This representation is often called *2's complement* representation. This is because the negative of a number can be found by changing all the '1's in the binary representation to '0', and all the '0's to '1's (one's complement), and then adding 1 to it. For example, 4 is ' 00000100 ', so inverting all the bits we get '11111011', and adding 1 we get '11111100', or &FC. What you're *really* doing when you invert all the bits of a single byte number, is subtracting it from 255 (i.e. '11111111'), so by adding the extra 1 again, you get the number subtracted from 256.

1.2.2 Larger numbers

At first, it may seem a bit restrictive only to be able to represent 256 different numbers in a single byte. However, in decimal, a single digit can only represent one of 10 different numbers (0 to 9), but larger numbers are written down with more than 1 digit, like '59'. In exactly the same way, large numbers can be stored in memory in several bytes, so 1000 ($&03E8$) can be stored as $&03$ in one byte (the *most significant byte*, or MSB) and &E8 in the other (the *least significant byte*, or LSB).

When addition is performed in decimal, the least significant digits are added first. Then the next digits are added, together with any *carry* from the first ones, if there was any. The same can be done to add a pair of large numbers in memory: for example, to add 1000 ($\&$ 03E8) to 25 ($\&$ 0019) the following operations will take place:

- **1** Add the LSB of the first number (&E8) to the LSB of the second number ($&0$ 19). This gives the result $&0$ 1 with a 1 to carry over to the next byte.
- **2** Add the MSB of the first number (&03) to the MSB of the second number $(\&00)$, with an extra 1 carried over from the last addition. This gives the result &04, with no carry.

The final result of the addition is then &0401, or 1025 in decimal.

The carry over from one byte to the next is done by the C (carry) flag in the 6502 status register. If this is set, the 6502 ADC (add with carry) instruction will automatically add an extra 1 to the addition it is about to do. To add the LSBs together, the carry flag must be cleared first (with the CLC instruction), or an extra 1 may be added where you didn't want one.

Subtraction of larger numbers is done in a very similar way, except the C flag is used as a 'borrow': if it is cleared, the last subtraction needed to borrow 1 from the next byte up, so 1 extra will be subtracted when the next subtraction is performed. To subtract the LSBs, the carry flag must be set first (with the SEC instruction), so the extra 1 is not subtracted.

1.2.3 Overflow

If the single-byte 2's complement number &50, representing 80, is added to the number $\&33$, representing 51, we get $\&83$, which represents −125. Clearly this is not right: the number we should have got was 131. However, 131 is too big to be represented by our single-byte 2's complement number: only the numbers −128 to +127 are allowed. When this happens the result has *overflowed*.

The V (overflow) flag in the 6502 is set if the last add or subtract instruction caused an *overflow*, and the result which was obtained is not a correct 2's complement representation of the answer.

After an addition, the overflow flag will be set if:

- (a) a carry occured from bit 6 to bit 7 of the byte, without a carry out of the byte; or
- (b) a carry occurred out of the byte without a carry from bit 6 to bit 7.

In other words:

- (a) the numbers being added were both positive, but the result is negative; or
- (b) the numbers being added were both negative, but the result is positive.

For subtraction, the overflow flag will be set in the corresponding situations, as though you were adding the negative of the number being subtracted.

1.2.4 Binary coded decimal

If the D flag of the 6502 is set it will operate in its binary coded decimal mode, where the 8-bit byte is used to represent two decimal digits, one in each nybble (4 bits). Thus the decimal number 26 will be represented by the hexadecimal number $&26$. When operating in this mode, all add and subtract operations will automatically adjust the result to ensure that it is in binary coded decimal form again.

This mode is not used very often, although sometimes it is useful for representing decimal numbers exactly.

The decimal flag must never be set when using any operating system or BASIC routines, as they expect to operate in standard binary mode.

1.3 The Instruction Set

The 6502 has 56 different instructions. This section lists them in groups of similar actions, giving the operation of the instruction, and the flags affected by it. [Section 1.4](#page-20-0) gives the *addressing modes* which can be used with these instructions. [Appendix C](#page-335-0) gives a list of these instructions in alphabetical order.

Load/store operations

- **LDA** The accumulator is loaded with the contents of the specified memory location. Flags affected: N,Z.
- **LDX** The X register is loaded with the contents of the specified memory location. Flags affected: N,Z.
- **LDY** The Y register is loaded with the contents of the specified memory location. Flags affected: N,Z.
- **STA** The contents of the accumulator are stored in memory. The flag bits are unaffected.
- **STX** The contents of the X register are stored in memory. The flag bits are unaffected.
- **STY** The contents of the Y register are stored in memory. The flag bits are unaffected.

Register transfer operations

- **TAX** Copy the contents of the accumulator to the X register. The contents of A are unaffected. Flag bits affected: N,Z.
- **TAY** Copy the contents of the accumulator to the Y register. The contents of A are unaffected. Flag bits affected: N,Z.
- **TSX** Copy the contents of the stack pointer to the X register. The contents of S are unaffected. Flags bits affected: N,Z.
- **TXA** Copy the contents of the X register to the accumulator. The contents of X are unaffected. Flags affected: N,Z.
- **TXS** Copy the contents of the X register to the stack pointer. The contents of X and the status register are unaffected.
- **TYA** Copy the contents of the Y register to the accumulator. The contents of Y are unaffected. Flag bits affected: N,Z.

Stack operations

- **PHA** The contents of the accumulator are pushed on the stack. The stack pointer is updated to point to the next available location. Flag bits are unaffected.
- **PHP** The contents of the processor status register are pushed on the stack, and the stack pointer is updated. Flag bits are unaffected.
- **PLA** The byte on top of the stack is transferred to the accumulator and the stack pointer is updated. Flag bits affected: N,Z.
- **PLP** The byte on top of the stack is transferred to the P register and the stack pointer is updated. All flag bits are affected.

Arithmetic and logical operations

- **ADC** Add the contents of the specified memory location with the carry flag to the accumulator. Result is left in the accumulator. Flags affected: N,V,Z,C.
- **SBC** The specified data is subtracted from the accumulator with a borrow if the carry flag is clear. The result is left in A. C is cleared if a borrow was required else it is set. Flags affected: N,V,Z,C
- **CMP** The contents of the specified memory location are subtracted from the accumulator, setting the flags, but not storing the result. A is unaffected. Flags affected: N is set

to bit 7 of the result, Z is set if the result is zero. C is set if the unsigned number in the accumulator is greater than or equal to the data, otherwise cleared (as for the SBC instruction).

- **CPX** The contents of the specified memory location are subtracted from the \bar{X} register but the result is not stored. The flags are set in the same way as for CMP.
- **CPY** The contents of the specified memory location are subtracted from the \overline{Y} register but the result is not stored. The flags are set in the same way as for CMP.
- **AND** Performs the bit by bit logical AND of the accumulator and the specified memory location. Result is left in the Accumulator. Flags affected: N,Z.
- **ORA** The bit by bit logical ORing takes place between the accumulator and the memory location, the result is left in A. Flags affected: N,Z.
- **EOR** The contents of the accumulator are exclusive-ored on a bit by bit basis with the specified data, the result is left in A. Flags affected: N,Z.
- **BIT** The logical AND of the accumulator and memory is performed but is not stored. Flag bits affected: Z is set if the result was zero, V and N are set to bits 6 and 7 of the memory location respectively.

Increment/decrement operations

- **DEC** The number in the specified memory location is decremented by 1. Flags affected: N,Z
- **DEX** The number in the X register is decremented by 1. Flags affected: N,Z.
- **DEY** The number in the Y register is decremented by 1. Flags affected: N,Z.
- **INC** The number in the specified memory location is incremented by 1. Flags affected: N,Z.
- **INX** The number in the X register is incremented by 1. Flags affected: N,Z.
- **INY** The number in the Y register is incremented by 1. Flags affected: N,Z.

Shift and rotate operations

- **ASL** The contents of the accumulator or the memory location are shifted one bit to the left. Bit 7 falls in to the carry flag, and bit 0 is set to 0. Flags affected: N,Z,C.
- **LSR** The contents of the accumulator or the memory location are shifted to the right by 1 bit. 0 is placed in bit 7, and bit 0 transferred to C. Flags affected: N is cleared, Z,C.
- **ROL** The contents of the accumulator or the memory location are rotated by one bit to the left. The carry flag is shifted into bit 0, and bit 7 is shifted in to the carry flag. Flags affected: N,Z,C.
- **ROR** The contents of the accumulator or the memory location are rotated by one bit to the right. The carry flag is shifted into bit 7, and bit 0 is shifted in to the carry flag. Flags affected: N,Z,C.

Program control operations

- **JMP** The program counter is loaded with a new address and the program continues from that point. Flags are unaffected.
- **JSR** The contents of the program counter + 2 are pushed on the stack and a new program counter is loaded from the argument. This is called a subroutine call. Flags are unaffected.
- **RTS** The program counter is pulled off the stack and incremented by one, to return from the subroutine. The stack pointer is updated. Flags bits are unaffected.

Conditional branch operations

BCC If the C flag is 0 then branch to the new location, otherwise continue with the next instruction. Flag bits are unaffected.

- **BCS** If the C flag is 1 then branch to the new location, otherwise continue with the next instruction. Flag bits are unaffected.
- **BEQ** If the Z flag is 1 then branch to the new location, otherwise continue with the next instruction. Flag bits are unaffected.
- **BNE** If the Z flag is 0 then branch to the new location, otherwise continue with the next instruction. Flag bits are unaffected.
- **BMI** If the N flag is 1 then branch to the new location, otherwise continue with the next instruction. Flag bits are unaffected.
- **BPL** If the N flag is 0 then branch to the new location, otherwise continue with the next instruction. Flag bits are unaffected.
- **BVC** If the V flag is 0 then branch to the new location, otherwise continue with the next instruction. Flag bits are unaffected.
- **BVS** If the V flag is 1 then branch to the new location, otherwise continue with the next instruction. Flag bits are unaffected.

Flag operations

- **CLC** The Carry flag is cleared, no other flags are affected.
- **CLD** The Decimal flag is cleared, no other flags are affected. This puts the 6502 in binary mode.
- **CLI** The Interrupt flag is cleared, no other flags are affected. This enables interrupts from the IRQ input.
- **CLV** The Overflow bit is cleared, no other flags are affected.
- **SEC** C is set. Other flags remain unaffected.
- **SED** D is set. The ADC and SBC instructions will now operate in the BCD mode. Other flags remain unaffected.
- **SEI** I is set. No IROs will be acknowledged until it is cleared. Other flag bits are unaffected.

System control operations

- **BRK** This causes an interrupt to be generated and is not maskable. Flags affected: B is set.
- **NOP** The processor does nothing for two cycles.
- **RTI** This pulls the processor status and then the program counter off the stack. The stack pointer is updated. This is used to terminate an interrupt. All flags affected.

1.4 Addressing modes

The *addressing mode* is used to specify how the data needed by an instruction is to be accessed from memory. Most instructions have a single-byte *opcode*, which tells the 6502 which instruction and addressing mode it is, followed by one or two bytes of data to be used by the instruction. [Chapter 6](#page-86-0) has a table of all the possible opcodes.

Altogether, the 6502 has 13 different addressing modes: these are listed in this section.

Implied addressing

No extra data is required by the instruction. For example:

TAX

will transfer the contents of the accumulator to the X register, and doesn't need any other information.

Accumulator addressing

No extra data is required by the instruction: it operates on the accumulator. For example:

ASL A

will shift the accumulator left 1 bit.

Immediate addressing

The single-byte number following the opcode is to be used directly by the instruction. This addressing mode is marked by a '#' in front of the data. For example:

ORA #&80

will logically OR the contents of the accumulator with the singlebyte number '&80' (128).

Absolute addressing

The 2-byte number following the opcode gives the memory location of the data to be used by the instruction. For example:

LDY &2000

will load the Y register with the contents of memory location 82000

Zero page addressing

The single-byte number following the opcode gives the memory location in page zero ($&0000$ to $&00FF$) of the data to be used by the instruction. This is similar to absolute addressing, except that the MSB of the address is always zero. This is faster than absolute addressing, and takes up only 2 bytes instead of 3 (including the opcode). For example:

STA &70

will store the contents of the accumulator into the zero page memory location &70.

Absolute indexed addressing

The unsigned contents of the specified index register are added to the 2-byte absolute address following the opcode, to give the location of the data to be used by the instruction. The index register used may be either X or Y, depending on which is allowed with the particular instruction. This addressing mode is

marked by a ',Y' or a ',X' following the data. It is useful for accessing tables or reading characters in from a line. For example:

```
 DEC &3000,X
```
will decrement the location at $&3000+X$ by 1. If the X register contained $&54$, the contents of location $&3054$ will be decremented.

Zero page indexed addressing

The contents of the specified index register are added to the single byte following the opcode, to give the page zero location of the data to be used by the instruction. The carry generated by this addition is ignored: the accessed location is always in page zero. For example:

INC &80,X

will increment the contents of the location whose LSB is given by $\&80+X$, and whose MSB is $\&00$. Thus if X contains $\&04$, the contents of zero page location &84 will be incremented; if X contains &FE, the contents of zero page location $&7E$ will be incremented.

Relative addressing

The 2's complement byte following the opcode is added to the program counter to give the location to be used by the instruction. This is only used by the conditional branch instructions. It means that the branch instructions only take up 2 bytes altogether, but the location which is being branched to must be a maximum of −128 to +127 away from the location of the instruction following the branch instruction. For example:

.loop BEQ loop

will branch back to the same location if the Z flag is set. The byte following the opcode will be &FE (-2) for this instruction, because the branch instruction is 2 bytes back from the next instruction which would be executed if the branch did not take place.

Indirect addressing

The 2-byte absolute address following the opcode points to two consecutive bytes which contain the LSB and the MSB of the location to be used. The two bytes are stored LSB first, MSB second. This addressing mode is only used by the JMP instruction. For example:

```
 JMP (&0200)
```
will jump to the location whose address is contained in $&0200$ (LSB) and &0201 (MSB).

Pre-indexed indirect addressing

The contents of the X register are added to the single byte following the opcode, to give the zero page location of two consecutive bytes (LSB first) which contain a pointer to the data. For example:

LDA (&50,X)

will use the number in $&50+X(LSB)$ and $&51+X(MSB)$ as a pointer to the number to be loaded into the accumulator. Thus if X contained $&20$, location $&70$ contained the number $&34$, and location $&71$ contained the number $&12$, the number in location $&1234$ would be loaded into the accumulator.

Post-indexed indirect addressing

The single byte following the opcode gives the zero page location of a 2-byte pointer (LSB first). The unsigned contents of the Y register are added to this pointer, to give the address to be used by the instruction. This instruction mode is very useful for pointing into memory: a pair of page zero locations hold the base of a pointer into memory, and Y holds the offset from that pointer. For example:

CMP (&2A),Y

will compare the accumulator with the byte pointed to by the base pointer in $&2A$ (LSB) and $&2B$ (MSB), offset by Y. Thus if $&2A$ contains $&00$, and $&2B$ contains $&40$, and Y contains $&45$, the accumulator will be compared with the contents of location $&4045$

1.5 Addressing mode groups

A table of allowed addressing modes for each instruction is given on page 508 of the BBC *User Guide*, and the *Electron User Guide* details them in chapter 29. This section summarises the groups of instructions which use the same (or nearly the same) set of addressing modes.

These addressing mode groups are used extensively by the built-in assembler in BASIC. [See chapter 6](#page-84-0) for more on this.

Implied group

These instructions only use implied addressing. The instructions are:

BRK, CLC, CLD, CLI, CLV, DEX, DEY, INX, INY, NOP, PHA, PHP, PLA, PLP, RTI, RTS, SEC, SED, SEI, TAX, TAY, TSX, TXA, TXS, TYA.

Relative branch group

These instructions only use relative addressing. The instructions are:

BCC, BCS, BEQ, BMI, BNE, BPL, BVC, BVS.

Accumulator operation group

The instructions in this group are:

ADC, SBC, CMP, AND, EOR, ORA, LDA, STA.

These instructions all operate on the accumulator, and allow the following addressing modes:

> Immediate (not STA) Zero page Absolute Zero page,X Absolute,X Absolute,Y (Indirect,X) (Indirect),Y

Shift group

The instructions in this group are:

ASL, LSR, ROL, ROR

and they allow the following addressing modes:

 Accumulator Zero page Absolute Zero page,X Absolute,X

Count group

The instructions in this group are:

DEC, INC

and they allow the following addressing modes:

 Zero page Absolute Zero page,X Absolute,X

Test group

The instructions in this group are:

BIT, CPX, CPY

and they allow the following addressing modes:

 Immediate (not BIT) Zero page Absolute

Index load group

The instructions in this group are:

LDX, LDY

and they allow the following addressing modes:

 Immediate Zero page Absolute Zero page, X (', Y ' for LDX) Absolute, $X (^{\cdot}, Y'$ for $LDX)$

Index store group

The instructions in this group are:

STX, STY

and they allow the following addressing modes:

 Zero page Absolute Zero page, X (\hat{Y} , Y for STX)

Jump group

The instructions in this group are:

JMP, JSR

and they allow the following addressing modes:

 Absolute (Indirect) (not JSR)

1.6 The BASIC assembler

The BBC *User Guide* and the *Electron User Guide* give an adequate description of the use of the built-in assembler, so I won't cover it again here. However, BBC micro owners may not be aware of the extra facilities available on the assembler in BASIC 2, over that in BASIC 1 (which is the one described in the *User Guide*). These extra facilities are remote assembly, and the EQU directive.

1.6.1 Remote assembly

The OPT directive controls the action of the assembler while it is in operation. The OPT is followed by a number whose lower 3 bits (only 2 bits in BASIC 1) set the assembler options. These bits are as follows:

Remote assembly allows a machine code program to be assembled to run in one part of memory, but the code put in another. For example, an assembler routine which will be in a paged ROM can be assembled correctly for &8000 onwards, but the code can be placed at $&2000$ onwards, say, where there is RAM.

If this is being used, $P\%$ should be set up to point to the location where the routine will end up $(\&8000)$ in the above example), but O% should point to the location where the generated code is to be stored.

1.6.2 The EQU directives

This allows data to be incorporated as part of a machine code program, without having to leave the assembler. The directives available are:

Note that the EQUS directive only reserves the space for the characters of the string; if a carriage return or CRLF is needed on the end, this must be done separately with an EQUB directive.

For example:

 EQUB &40 EQUS "HI" EQUW &1234

Will reserve and initialise the following bytes in memory:

 &40 &48 ("H") &49 ("I") &34 &12

Using the EQU directive is not only more convenient than using the BASIC equivalent, but it also makes the program much more readable. Many of the programs in this book use the EQU directive, although where it has been used, the alternative BASIC form is available for BASIC 1 users.

2 The BASIC System

The BBC microcomputer system has been designed to allow many different languages (like LISP or FORTH) to be used with it. However, the language that all BBC micros and Electrons start with is BBC BASIC.

2.1 An overview of BASIC

When BASIC is initialised, it takes control of the computer. It prints 'BASIC' on the screen, and prompts for a line to be input. You then type in programs, RUN them, edit and RUN them again until they work, and continue until the power is switched off.

Beneath all of this is 16K of 6502 machine code, in a paged ROM sitting between &8000 and &BFFF, beavering away trying to work out what to do with the line that you just typed in. It is really a whole system all by itself, editing programs, interpreting program statements, evaluating expressions, handling variables; in fact it does everything except actually input and output to the hardware (it leaves that to the Machine Operating System).

Fig 2.1 shows a general overview of BASIC, with its main component parts. The first major section of the BASIC system is the command handler and the statement interpreter. When a line is input at the keyboard, the command handler *tokenises* it, and decides whether to insert it into the program (if it starts with a line number), or to send it to the statement interpreter. The statement interpreter is also used to handle program statements. The action of the command handler and statement interpreter is described in sections [2.3](#page-38-0) and [2.4](#page-45-0).

The other major section of the BASIC system shown in fig 2.1 is the expression evaluator. This is called by most of the statement handlers (or function handlers) when they want a number or a string to operate on. For example, the MODE statement handler calls the expression evaluator to get the number of the MODE that is to be used. The expression evaluator is described in more detail in [chapter 4](#page-64-0).

Figure 2.1 – The BASIC system.

The arithmetic module is a collection of routines which is used to perform the calculations required by the expression evaluator (and by the statement and function handlers). Most of these have to be floating point routines, as real numbers are more difficult for the computer to handle than integers or strings. These routines are detailed in [chapter 10.](#page-163-0)

The HEAP/STACK handler is another collection of routines, but these deal with variables and other use of memory by BASIC while the program is running (*dynamic* memory use). Variables, and BASIC's memory use are described in [chapter 3](#page-48-0).

2.2 The BASIC 'CPU'

The 6502 CPU is a versatile machine, but on its own it is a bit limited. Its 8-bit accumulator, A, can only handle single byte integers; it can't deal with real numbers or strings; it can't allocate space for BASIC variables, and its stack is only 255 bytes deep. To get round this, BASIC has a software 'layer' on top the 6502, to provide a more versatile service.

This new 'layer' has a collection of page 0 locations as 'registers', which are manipulated by the 6502. These registers (together with the routines to handle them) make up the 'Central Processing Unit' of the BASIC system. Fig 2.2 compares the 6502 registers with BASIC's registers.

Figure 2.2 – 6502/BASIC registers.

2.2.1 BASIC Integers

Where the 6502 only allows 8-bit integers to be used, most of BASIC's integer work is done with 32-bit (4-byte) integers. For this it has a 4-byte integer accumulator, IntA, stored in page zero at &2A to &2D. The format of the 4-byte integers stored in this accumulator is shown in fig 2.3.

Figure 2.3 – Integer format.

Note that the least significant byte (LSB) is stored *first*, at &2A, with the most significant byte (MSB) at $&2D$. This means that a single-byte (positive) value at $&2A$ can be converted into a 4-byte integer starting at &2A, by setting the 3 most significant bytes (in $&2B, &2C \text{ and } &2D$ to zero.

2.2.2 Real numbers

One of the major advantages of the BASIC 'CPU' over the 6502 equivalent is its ability to deal with real numbers, rather than just integers. For this, it has 2 floating point accumulators, FPA and FPB. For those not familiar with binary floating point representation, here is a brief description.

Decimal integers can be written in binary form, like

9 (decimal) can be written as: 1001 (binary).

Fractions can be written in decimal by using a decimal point, like '9.6', and binary numbers can be written in a similar form. Thus (0.1) ['] (binary) represents $1/2$ (0.5 decimal), (0.01) ['] (binary) represents 1/4 (0.25 decimal), and so on. As an example,

3.625 (decimal) can be written as: 11.101 (binary)

Using this would give a way to represent numbers on a computer; by holding the integer part as one number, and the fractional part as another. In practice, though, for many applications this is just too limited.

In decimal, for talking about a much wider range of numbers, *scientific form* or *standard form* can be used. For this, the number to be expressed is written down as a number between 1 and 10 (this is the *mantissa*), multiplied by '10 to the power of' another number (this is the *exponent*). Thus 273 can be written as 2.73×10^2 (or 2.73E2).

For the binary representation of real numbers, BASIC uses a similar form to the decimal one: the number to be expressed is written as a number between $1/2$ and 1 (not equal to 1), multiplied by '2 to the power of' another number. Thus 11.101 (binary) can be written as 0.11101×2^2 (the exponent is in decimal for clarity). This is often called *floating point* representation, as the actual position of the *binary point* in the number is not fixed to a particular position (in integers, for example, the binary point is always just beneath the least significant bit).

When floating point numbers are stored in variables, they occupy 5 bytes, and are stored as shown in fig 2.4.

Figure 2.4 – Floating point packed format.

The exponent is stored offset by $&80 - i.e.$ $&80$ represents 2^0 ,

 $&81$ represents $2¹$, and so on. This allows the number zero to be represented by a floating point number with all its bytes set to 0. Note that zero doesn't fit in to this floating point representation: it is smaller than 2^{-127} , yet it is larger than -2^{-127} . It has to be represented as a special case.

The position of the binary point in the mantissa is just above the most significant bit.

The mantissa is always a number between 1/2 (0.1 binary) and 1 (but not equal to 1), so the top bit of the mantissa is always a '1'. This means that this bit position is not needed for the mantissa (it can always be retrieved by ORing the MSB of the mantissa with &80), so this bit is used to store the sign bit of the number (the top bit of the mantissa will not be a 1° if the number being represented is zero)

The mantissa occupies 4 bytes. This means that 4-byte integers can be converted to floating point format, and back again, without loss of accuracy. The bytes are stored MSB first, LSB last; the opposite order to integers. The mantissa is stored as a positive number, and not in 2's complement format (so the representation for '6' is just the same as the representation for '−6', except the sign bit will be changed).

When a 'packed' floating point number is loaded into one of the floating point accumulators, FPA or FPB, it is unpacked into 8 bytes. The format of these accumulators is shown in fig 2.5.

Figure 2.5 – Floating point accumulator format.

The exponent has been expanded into 2 bytes; the high-order byte of the exponent is set to zero when the number is loaded in. This allows results of calculations to temporarily overflow (i.e. the exponent becomes too large for the 5-byte representation to handle), providing that they end up in the correct range before being written out to memory again in the 5-byte packed format. The exponent is still offset by $&80$.

The mantissa has been expanded to 5 bytes instead of 4. This allows for extra accuracy in the middle of calculations. Before the number is written back out to memory, this extra byte is used to round the rest of the mantissa.

The sign bit has been removed to a whole byte by itself, and the top bit of the mantissa has been restored to '1'. For calculations, this '1' is needed in the top bit where it is supposed to be.

Often during a calculation, the top bit does not stay set (perhaps due to a number almost equal to it being subtracted from it). If this is the case, the value of the number is still given correctly (as the mantissa multiplied by '2 to the power of' the exponent), but the mantissa is now much less than 1/2. Before the number can be written out into memory, the number must be 'normalised' by repeatedly multiplying the mantissa by 2 (i.e. shifting it up by 1 bit), and decrementing the exponent (dividing that part of the representation by 2) to compensate, until the top bit of the mantissa becomes set again.

If this happens, some of the accuracy of the number may have been lost, as some of the bits of the number may have 'fallen off the bottom' before the number was shifted back up again.

Floating point numbers do have certain limitations:

- (a) The largest number which can be represented (in the 5-byte format) is just less than 1.0×2^{127} (1.7×10^{38}).
- (b) The smallest number (in magnitude) which can be represented (apart from zero) is 1.0×2^{-128} (2.9×10⁻³⁹).
- (c) Because just 32 bits are used to hold the mantissa of the number, the representation is only accurate to 1 part in 2^{32}
(1 part in 4×10^9). This means that if any number stored in this format is printed out in decimal, it will only be accurate to the first 9 decimal digits.

(d) Calculations involving floating point numbers take longer than those involving integers.

The actual format of the floating point accumulators is:

2.2.3 Strings

For string handling, BASIC has a string 'accumulator', StrA. All of page 6 is allocated to the string accumulator; the characters of StrA are stored from $&600$ onwards, with location $&36$ in page zero used to hold the length of the string.

This makes string handling relatively simple, although it does take up a lot of memory.

2.2.4 General workspace

In addition to these accumulators, BASIC has a general workspace area, between &37 and &4E, which it uses for general pointers (instead of the 6502 X and Y registers) and for other different purposes, depending on which part of the system is in operation at the time. FPB is actually in this area, and several routines which do not need to do any floating point calculations may use the same memory that it occupies.

2.2.5 Program pointers

Instead of the Program Counter (PC) of the 6502, BASIC has two pointers, PTRA and PTRB, which it uses to scan through a BASIC program (or a line typed in at the keyboard). Both of these pointers are composed of a 2-byte base pointer, and a single-byte offset from that base. PTRA is mainly used to read the first part of a statement until the statement token is recognised, and PTRB is mainly used for scanning expressions. The format of these pointers is:

2.2.6 Dynamic memory pointers

The 6502 only has one way of dynamically allocating space during a program: its stack. This works downwards in page 1 with a maximum size of 256 bytes (i.e. from &1FF down to $&100$).

Rather than using this, BASIC has a STACK which works downwards in memory from HIMEM. It uses this to hold temporary results from calculations, or when a FN or PROC is called. BASIC also has a HEAP which works upwards in memory from LOMEM (usually the TOP of the program), which is where it puts any variables (apart from resident integers). Together, the BASIC STACK and the HEAP can use up all of the memory between the TOP of the program and the bottom of the screen. [Chapter 3](#page-48-0) describes how variables are stored, and the use of the HEAP and the STACK.

2.3 Tokenising

When a line is typed in at the keyboard, it is inserted into BASIC's keyboard buffer in page 7 (from &700 onwards). From here, the command handler sends the line to the tokeniser, so that the keywords can be *tokenised*. This involves looking through the line and replacing occurrences of keywords (and their abbreviations) in the line by a single byte *token*, with a value between &80 and &FF. This saves memory when the line is put into a program (as, for example, PRINT takes up only 1 byte instead of 5), and it makes it a lot easier (and faster) to recognise the keyword when it is to be *interpreted*.

2.3.1 Keyword tokenising

The keyword table is stored at &806D (BASIC1) or &8071 (BASIC2), in roughly alphabetical order. The format of each entry is:

> Keyword Single-byte token Flag byte

Table 2.1 gives a list of the keyword tokens, and the address where they JMP to when recognised, in token value order. From this it can be seen that the tokens are divided up into several groups:

The tokeniser does not simply tokenise the line: it obeys certain rules, and can be in several states. The flag byte is used to give

instructions to the tokeniser about how to continue tokenising the rest of the line, or how to tokenise this keyword. The flags are used as follows:

- Bit 0 **Conditional flag.** If this is set, this tells the tokeniser not to tokenise this keyword if it is followed by an alphanumeric character. This means, for example, that 'TIMER' can be used as a variable name, as the 'TIME' part of it will not be tokenised.
- Bit 1 **M**iddle flag. If this is set, this tells the tokeniser to go to 'middle of statement' mode after this token.
- Bit 2 **S**tart flag. If this flag is set, this tells the tokeniser to go to 'start of statement' mode. The tokeniser must know if it is at the start of a statement or not, because a '*' at the start of a statement will cause tokenising to be abandoned so that the rest of the line can be sent to OSCLI untokenised. If a '*,' is found in the middle of a statement, it will be in the middle of an expression, so the rest of the line should be tokenised. It also needs to know if a pseudo-variable found is a statement or a function.
- Bit 3 **F**N/PROC flag. If this flag is set (as it is for FN or PROC), this tells the tokeniser not to tokenise the name immediately following the token. This means, for example, that the 'ERROR' part of 'PROCERROR' will not be tokenised.
- Bit 4 **L**ine number flag. If this flag is set, it tells the tokeniser to start tokenising line numbers after this token. This flag is set for keywords like 'GOTO' or 'RENUMBER'. Line number tokenising is usually turned off after any other symbol apart from a ',', a HEX number, or a string.
- Bit 5 **R**EM flag. If this is set, it tells the tokeniser to stop tokenising the rest of the line. This flag is used by the 'DATA' and 'REM' tokens.
- Bit 6 **P**seudo-variable flag. If this is set, it tells the tokeniser to add $&40$ to this token if it is found at the start of a statement. This is how the tokeniser decides whether a pseudo-variable is a statement or a function. Note that the

pseudo-variable *statement* entry in the token table is not used by the tokeniser; it uses the function entry and converts it to the statement token if it is at the start of a statement. The statement entry is used by 'LIST' when the tokens are being printed out.

Bit 7 (not used)

Other symbols

Special symbols found in the input line which affect tokenising are:

2.3.2 Line number tokenising

Line numbers can also be tokenised, as well as keywords. However, they will be left alone unless they are found at the start of a line, or after a token with the 'tokenise line numbers' flag set.

Note that the tokenised line number at the start of the line is not inserted into the program ([see section 2.4](#page-45-0) for program storage).

Tokenising line numbers speeds up the use of GOTOs or GOSUBs in a program, because the numbers are simpler to decode than an ASCII string of digits; but it does not really save very much memory, as each tokenised line number takes up 4 bytes. Fig 2.6 shows how line numbers are tokenised, once the ASCII digits have been read in and converted to a 16-bit integer (it is actually a 15-bit integer, as line numbers greater than 32767 are not allowed).

The bytes after the &8D line number token *must* be less than &80, or they may look like another token. If this was not the case, one of them may look like an 'ELSE' token, and it may be latched on to by the 'IF' statement as something to do if it got a FALSE result [\(see section 5.4\)](#page-76-0).

Also, the bytes after the line number token must not be allowed to be a control character (i.e. less than &20). If this was not the

case, the byte may look like a &0D (carriage return), which marks the end of a line in a program.

The simplest way to ensure that both of these conditions are met, is to fix the top 2 bits of each byte to '01' so that it is in the range $&40$ to $&7F$.

TOKENISED LINE NUMBER

Figure 2.6 – Line number tokenising.

So to convert a 16-bit integer to the tokenised line number format:

- 1 Set byte 0 to the &8D line number token.
- **2** Transfer the bottom 6 bits of the LSB of the integer into byte 2 of the tokenised line number, setting bits 7 and 6 to $^{\circ}01$ '.
- **3** Transfer the bottom 6 bits of the MSB of the integer into byte 3 of the tokenised line number, setting bits 7 and 6 to $\cdot 01$ '.
- **4** Set byte 1 of the tokenised line number to '01000000' (binary).
- **5** Transfer bits 7 and 6 of the LSB of the integer into bits 5 and 4 of byte 1 of the tokenised line number, inverting bit 6 before it is inserted into bit 4.

6 Transfer bits 7 and 6 of the MSB of the integer into bits 3 and 2 of byte 1 of the tokenised line number, inverting bit 6 before it is inserted into bit 2.

The line number is now tokenised. It is a bit easier to get the line number out of the tokenised form:

- **1** Shift byte 1 of the tokenised line number up 2 bits, load it into A, and mask off the bottom 6 bits.
- **2** EOR this with byte 2 of the tokenised line number. A now contains the LSB of the number.
- **3** Shift byte 1 of the tokenised line number up by a further 2 bits, and load it into A (the bottom 6 bits are all 0)
- **4** EOR this with byte 3 of the tokenised line number. A now contains the MSB of the number.

Table 2.1 – Keyword Tokens

2.4 Program storage

Once the line has been tokenised, the command handler checks to see if it starts with a line number. If it is, it is inserted into the program (and the old line with the same number, if there is one, is deleted). The format of each line is as follows:

- $XX-1$ &0D (carriage return) line terminator.
XX start of next line
- start of next line

The length byte is used so that searching for a line number (for a 'GOTO' or 'GOSUB' statement) is much faster. If this length byte is not set up correctly, BASIC will give a 'Bad program' error ([see section 9.2](#page-148-0) for a salvage routine).

The first character in memory at PAGE is a carriage return character: this gives something to 'latch on to' when BASIC checks for a 'Bad program'. The routine that checks this also sets TOP to point to the next free location after the end of the program.

The end of the program is marked by a byte with the top bit set (i.e. &80 or greater) in the position which would be the MSB of the line number of the next line. This is why line numbers greater than 32767 are not allowed: if one got in, the MSB of its line number would just mark the end of the program.

For example, the program '10PRINT A' would be stored as (if $PAGE = \hat{\&}1900$).

2.5 Executing statements

If the line input to the command handler did not start with a line number, it passes it on to the statement interpreter to decide what to do with it.

The statement interpreter is also used to RUN programs, as well as just interpreting statements and commands typed in command mode. The command handler has a special entry point to the statement interpreter, so that commands (like 'OLD') can only be executed in command mode, and not in the middle of a program.

The action of the statement interpreter is as follows:

1 It looks at the first character of the statement (skipping any spaces). If it is the token of a BASIC statement keyword (or a command keyword if we came from the command handler), then go to the corresponding statement handler (there is one of these for each statement or command) where the rest of that particular statement will be interpreted.

> The *action address* of a particular token (the address to which the statement interpreter jumps when a token is found) is stored in the following format:

BASIC1 BASIC2

where T is the number of the token ([see table 2.1\)](#page-42-0).

2 If the first character of the statement was not a statement keyword token, the statement interpreter checks to see if it is a variable name. If it is, it jumps to the assignment handler. This tries to assign the variable to the expression

found after the $\prime = \prime$ sign. If there wasn't an $\prime = \prime$ after the variable name, it generates a 'Mistake' error (error number 4).

- **3** If the first character of the statement wasn't a variable name either, the statement interpreter checks to see if it is one of the other special symbols which can be at the start of a line. If it is a^{λ} , it passes the rest of the line to the Operating System Command Line Interpreter (OSCLI) to be acted on. If it is a '[', it jumps into the assembler. If it is an $=$, it jumps to the FN return statement handler (as this is the FN return statement).
- **4** If it wasn't any of those, it checks to see if the first character of the statement actually marks the *end* of the statement – in other words we have an empty statement. If it was, it goes back to stage 1 to interpret the next statement (or go to command mode if we have run out of statements to interpret). Most of the statement handlers jump to here when they have finished, to check that the text pointer is set up to point to the next statement.
- **5** Finally, if the character wasn't a *statement delimiter* either (a character marking the end of the statement), the statement interpreter gives up, and generates a 'Syntax error' (error number 16).

3 Memory Use

Fig 3.1 shows the memory map as seen by BASIC. The memory that BASIC uses can be split up into 3 major areas: workspace, program storage, and *dynamic storage* (the HEAP and STACK).

The workspace includes most of the general memory used by statements and functions. This is described in more detail in [section 3.3.](#page-61-0)

Program storage has already been described in [section 2.4](#page-45-0).

Dynamic storage is allocated while a program is actually running; whereas workspace and the program occupy fixed areas while this is going on. Dynamic storage includes the storage of variables on the HEAP, and the use of the STACK for storing temporary results, and saving things during FN or PROC calls. The HEAP and STACK are described in more detail in the next sections.

3.1 Variables and the HEAP

3.1.1 The resident integer variables

The resident integer variables, $\omega\%$ and A% to Z%, are not stored on the HEAP where the rest of the variables are: they occupy the lower half of page 4. Because each one occupies a fixed location, they are very fast to access. They are stored in the following format:

They are stored in standard 4-byte integer format (i.e. LSB first, MSB last). Here is a short program to list the resident integer variables, and their values (in HEX).

Figure 3.1 – The BASIC memory map.

```
 5 REM Prints out the resident integer variables
  10
 90 vbase = 8400 100 FOR char = ASC"@" TO ASC"Z"
110 offset = (char AND 81F)*4120 value% = vbase!offset<br>130 PRINT CHR$(char):"% =
130 PRINT CHR$(char);"% = \&";"value"
      NEXT char
```
3.1.2 Dynamic variables

The rest of the variables used by BASIC are *dynamic* variables, because it allocates space for them when it needs it (i.e. when they are first set). These are stored on the HEAP, which works upwards in memory from LOMEM. To get at the variables once it has put them on the HEAP, BASIC uses a series of *linked lists*.

A linked list starts with a base pointer, which points to the first item in the list. The first item in the list has a pointer which points to the second item in the list, and so on. The end of the list is usually marked by the pointer to the next item being 0. So, if the linked list doesn't contain any items, the base pointer is 0 (a null pointer). Fig 3.2 shows a linked list of three items.

Figure $3.2 - A$ linked list.

One of the advantages of a linked list is that the items don't need to be in any set pattern in memory, as long as the pointers still point to the next item in the list. This can be very useful for variable storage, as different types of variables occupy a different number of bytes (especially arrays).

In fact, BASIC uses a separate linked list for each possible first letter of a variable name. Although these linked lists are separate, they all use the HEAP in the same way, and the lists link round each other. Using these separate linked lists means that searching for variables is much faster (unless your variable names all start with the same letter!).

The base pointers, which point to the first variable in each particular list, are stored in the upper half of page 4 in the following format:

A similar linked list is used to store the locations of PROCs and FNs, once they have been called, so that BASIC doesn't have to search through the whole program to find them again. The base pointers for these are:

Figure 3.3 – A variable information block.

Each variable (or PROC/FN) on the HEAP is stored as a *Variable Information Block* (fig 3.3). This Variable Information Block is composed of 3 *fields:*

The pointer field (2 bytes).

 This is the pointer which points to the next item in the list (with the same first letter). If this item is at the end of the list, then the MSB of this pointer must be zero (the next item can't be in page zero, so only checking that the MSB is zero saves time).

The name field.

 This holds the name of the variable, with a zero byte to mark the end of the name. For a variable, this name field does not include the first character of the name, because that was used to choose which base pointer to use. It does contain the '\$', '%' or '(' characters on the end of the name (if there are any), as this gives the type of the variable.

 For a PROC or FN, the first character of the name is included, as there is only one list for all PROCs, and one for all FNs.

The value field.

 This starts with the first byte after the zero byte at the end of the name field. For a variable, the format of this field depends on the type: these are detailed in [section 3.1.3.](#page-54-0)

 For a PROC or FN, this field contains a 2-byte pointer to the PROC or FN where it is defined. It points to the first character after the name of the PROC or FN (i.e. to the '(' character if it uses any parameters).

As an illustration of the way variables are stored on the HEAP, the program below will go through the current active variables, printing their names and values. It can be used to print out variables other than those used by the program itself, by setting them up first, and using 'GOTO 90' to start the program (if 'RUN' is used, all variables are cleared first).

The program follows the linked list for each initial letter of variable names, using the variable 'addr' to hold the current pointer.

PROCvar prints out the name and value of the variable whose *Variable Information Block* (VIB) is at 'addr'. The last character of the variable gives its type, and this is used to prevent the program from printing out arrays. To print out the value of the variable, it 'cheats' by giving the name of the variable to EVAL rather than extracting it directly. [Section 7.4](#page-108-0) gives a machine code version of this routine.

```
 5 REM ****** VRPRINT ******
   10 REM Prints out variables used by the program.
   15 REM If any others are to be printed, use
   20 REM "GOTO 90" so they won't be cleared.
   30
  90 a%=0
  100 PRINT'"Variable"TAB(15)"Value"'
 110 FOR char = ASC('A'') TO ASC('z'')<br>120 addr = &400+2*char :REM Ge
                          :REM Get pointer address
 130 addr = !addr AND &FFFF
                           :REM Get ptr to 1st VIB
  140 IF (addr DIV &100)=0 THEN GOTO190
  141 :REM Exit if null pointer
  150 REPEAT
 160 PROCvar :REM Print variable
 170 addr = !addr AND &FFFF :REM Get ptr to next VIB
 180 UNTIL (addr DIV &100)=0 :REM Exit if null pointer
  190 NEXT char
  200 END
  990
  998
  999 REM *** Print variable name and value ***
 1000 DEFPROCvar
 1010 name$ = CHR$(char) :REM First character of name
 1020 nptr = 2 :REM Ptr to name in VIB
 1030 IF addr?nptr=0 THEN GOTO1100
 1031 :REM End of name?
 1040 REPEAT
 1050 name$ = name$+CHR$(addr?nptr)
 1051 :REM Add next char to name
 1060 nptr = nptr+1
 1070 UNTIL addr?nptr=0 :REM Exit if end of name
 1100 PRINT name$,TAB(15);
 1105 typ$ = RIGHT$(name$,1) :REM Get type of variable
 1110 IF typ$="(" THENPRINT"<array>" ELSEPRINT EVAL(name$)
1111 :REM Print value if not array
 1130 ENDPROC
```
3.1.3 Variable value formats

When writing programs in BASIC, variables can be one of 3 types: 4-byte integers, floating point numbers, or strings (these are called *dynamic* strings, as BASIC allocates memory for them as it is required). However, the indirection operators ('?', '!' and '\$') can be used to manipulate 8-bit bytes, 4-byte integers, and *static* strings (i.e. strings at a fixed address in memory).

Once BASIC has found the location of the variable, these bytes and static strings are treated like just like two more variable types (4-byte indirected integers are stored the same as named 4-byte integer variables). To pass variables between routines, a *Variable Descriptor Block* (not to be confused with the Variable Information Block) is used, which is usually left in IntA (the integer accumulator). The format of this is:

This *Variable Descriptor Block* is used, for example, in the *Parameter Block* passed by the BASIC 'CALL' statement (when any parameters are passed to it). This means that a user routine can read or set any of the variables passed as parameters to the CALL statement.

The format of the different variable types are:

Type number &00: 8-bit byte

Format:

This is just a single byte at the specified location. This type of variable can only be accessed by using the '?' operator; either as '?M' to mean 'the byte pointed to by M', or as 'M?3' to mean 'the byte at location M+3'.

Type number &04: 32-bit integer

Format:

00 32-bit integer 4 bytes

This is a 4-byte integer at the specified location. It is stored LSB first, MSB last. This type of variable can be accessed as a named integer variable, like 'A%' or 'integer%', or by using the '!' operator.

If a named variable is used, the location of the value has to be found first, either by looking it up in the table of resident integer variables, or by searching through one of the linked lists for it. The *name field* of the Variable Information Block in the linked list has the '%' on the end of it, so that it is identifiable as an integer.

If the '!' operator is used, the location of the variable is taken as the number following the '!' (for the unary version); or the sum of the variable before the '!', and the number after it (for the binary version).

Type number &05: 40-bit floating point number

Format:

This is a floating point number at the specified location. The mantissa is stored MSB first, LSB last (the opposite order to 4-byte integers). The top bit of the mantissa is used to hold the sign bit, as this would always be a '1' ([see](#page-32-0) [section 2.2.2](#page-32-0) for a description of floating point numbers).

This type of variable can only be accessed as a named variable stored on the HEAP; there is no floating point indirection operator. The location of the variable is found by searching through one of the linked lists for it. There is no symbol on the end of the *name field* of a floating point variable.

Type number &80: static string

Format:

This is a static string at the specified location. It can only be accessed by using the '\$' string indirection operator: the location of the string is taken to be the number after the '\$'. The carriage return $(\&0D)$ terminating character is not counted as one of the characters of the string: it is only used to mark the end.

Space can be allocated for a string of this type, by using the 'reserve space' form of the DIM statement: 'DIM A 20' will allocate space for a string at A of maximum size 20 characters, plus 1 for the terminator.

Type number &81: dynamic string

Format:

This is the *String Information Block* of the dynamic string: these 4 bytes will occupy the value field of the Variable Information Block of a string variable. This type of variable can only be accessed as a named variable. The *name field* of the Variable Information Block has the '\$' symbol on the end, so it is identifiable as a string.

When a dynamic string is first assigned, the Variable Information Block is created and linked into one of the lists, to hold the name and String Information Block of the string. Then space is allocated on the HEAP for the characters of the string itself, and the String Information Block is set up to point to first character of that string. The string itself does not need a carriage return to mark the end, as the String Information Block holds the length of it.

If the string is empty, no space needs to be allocated for it at all. If the string is a 'small' string (less than 8 characters), just the correct number of bytes is allocated on the HEAP for it. If it is a 'large' string, an extra 8 bytes are reserved for it, to allow some room for expansion (if this would take the allocated space over 255 characters, 255 bytes are reserved).

Whenever a dynamic string exceeds the space which has been allocated, a new area is reserved for it on the HEAP (using the same rules as above). The 'gap' left in the HEAP where the string used to be cannot be recovered (BBC BASIC has no 'garbage collector'): so if memory is not to be wasted, it is usually a good idea to set strings, at the start of a program, to the largest size that they are likely to become.

The amount of memory wasted in this manner is not usually a great deal, but certain operations tend to use quite a lot (for example, a loop which adds one character on the end of a string each time round). In BASIC2 this has been improved by checking to see if the string is on top of the HEAP: if it is, it can be extended without having to throw away the old area.

3.1.4 Array storage

Arrays are stored in the same kind of Variable Information Block as ordinary variables, but the *value field* of an array is usually much bigger than that of an ordinary variable. The *value field* of an array has to hold the number of dimensions, and the size of each dimension, as well as the the value of each cell in the array.

The Variable Information Block for an array is linked into the list when it is dimensioned: any attempt to read from or write to an array which does not exist will result in the 'Array' error (error number 14) being generated.

The *name field* in the Variable Information Block for an array has the '(' symbol on the end, so that it is identifiable as an array. It also has the '%' or '\$' symbol before that, if it is an integer array or a string array.

The format of the *value field* of an array with D dimensions is:

The first byte of the *value field* gives the offset of the start of the cells from the start of the *value field*, rather than the number of dimensions of the array. If the number of dimensions is D, this offset will be 2*D+1 bytes (2 for the size of each dimension, and 1 for the offset byte itself). This will be 3 for single-dimension arrays.

The size of each dimension is stored as the maximum allowed subscript.

Each cell is in the same format as the equivalent variable: if it is an integer array, each cell will contain a 32-bit integer (type number $\&04$); if it is a floating point array, each cell will contain a 40-bit floating point number (type number $\&05$); and if it is a string array, each cell will contain a 4-byte *String Information Block* (type number $\&81$). The actual strings for a string array are stored separately on the HEAP (as for dynamic string variables), as soon as they are first set.

The order of the cells is probably best explained by an example. For the array $A(1,1,1)$ the order of the cells will be:

The following algorithm can be used to find the required element of an array:

```
C = 0start at first dimension
REPEAT
     C = (C * size) + subscriptmove on to next dimension
UNTIL no more dimensions left
```
where 'size' is one more than the maximum subscript for the dimension of interest (allowing for the subscript 0); and 'subscript' is the required subscript of the dimension of interest.

At the end of that algorithm, C will give the cell number of the required element.

Taking the example of the array $A(1,1,1)$ again, if the element required was $A(1,1,0)$, the successive values of C after each iteration of the loop in the algorithm would be:

This means that the element $A(1,1,0)$ is cell number 6 of the array $A(1,1,1)$. This agrees with the list given above.

To get the location of the cell, the cell number must be multiplied by the size of each cell: 4 bytes for an integer or a string, or $\bar{5}$ bytes for a floating point number. This gives the offset (in bytes) of the required cell from the start of the cells.

Once the location of the element has been found, this can be put in the *Variable Descriptor Block*, together with the type of the element (integer, floating point, or string). The array element can now be handled inside BASIC as if it was just another variable in memory.

3.2 The BASIC STACK

The BASIC STACK works downwards from HIMEM. The STACK pointer is held in page zero, at &4,&5. It is used to save temporary results in the middle of calculations, and to save the 6502 stack and parameters when a FN or PROC is called [\(see](#page-71-0) [section 5.3\)](#page-71-0).

For example, to evaluate the expression:

 $2 + 5 * 3$

the '2' must be saved while the '5 $*$ 3' is being calculated. The 6502 stack *could* be used for this, but it is very small, and would not allow very complex expressions without overflowing (especially when there are FNs to be dealt with).

Before anything is pushed on the STACK, a check is made to ensure that there is enough room for the new item: otherwise there may be a clash with the HEAP which is growing in the opposite direction, upwards from LOMEM ([see fig 3.1](#page-49-0)). If there is not enough room, the 'No room' error is generated.

There are routines to push any of BASIC's accumulators IntA, FPA, and StrA (and pull them again); these are used quite a lot in the expression evaluator. [Chapter 4](#page-64-0) describes the expression evaluator in more detail.

The other main use of the BASIC STACK is by PROCs and FNs. When one of these is entered, the 6502 stack is transferred onto the BASIC STACK. If this was not done, the small 6502 stack would soon overflow with return addresses for JSRs if the *recursion* of the PROCs or FNs went very deep (i.e. the PROC or FN called itself).

PROCs and FNs also need to make sure that LOCAL variables and parameters used in the PROC or FN are returned to their original values when the call is finished. When the call is started, the values of the parameters in the PROC or FN definition are pushed on the STACK, together with the *Variable Descriptor Block* for the parameter. That gives the location and type of the variable, so it can be restored after the call. [Section 5.3](#page-71-0) gives more detail on the action of PROCs and FNs.

3.3 Workspace

This section lists the workspace used by BASIC. In many cases, the use of particular locations may be described in more detail elsewhere.

Page Zero

&21 – &22 TRACE maximum line number

Page Zero multi-purpose workspace

 $&4F - &88F$ (not used)

OS workspace

&90 – &3FF OS workspace

Page 4 workspace

Page 5 workspace

Page 6 workspace

 $&600 - \& 6FF$ characters of StrA ([section 2.2.3](#page-36-0))

Page 7 workspace

 $&700 - &7FF$ keyboard input buffer

4 Expression Evaluation

One of the major sections of the BASIC interpreter is the expression evaluator. Virtually every statement uses it to get the number or numbers that it is going to work with. For example the 'HIMEM' statement uses it to find the new value that HIMEM is to be set to.

4.1 Operator precedence

When expressions are to be evaluated, some operators take precedence over others. For example, multiplication is always done before addition, unless the addition is surrounded by brackets. This makes expression evaluation somewhat more complex than it would otherwise be, as you can't just scan along the line, doing every operation as you come across it.

In fact, many old electronic calculators *did* just scan along the line like this. If you pressed:

 $2 + 3 + 5 =$

you would get the answer '25'. This is not particularly satisfactory for an expression evaluator in BASIC, because if ' $2 + 3 * 5'$ appears as an expression, it is assumed that the multiplication will be done first, giving the answer '17'. Somehow, BASIC must identify that the addition must be done after the multiplication, save the '2' while the '3' and '5' are being multiplied together, and then add the '2' on afterwards.

4.2 Top-down analysis

To get these operator priorities right, BASIC uses a method called *top-down analysis*, where the expression evaluation is divided up into several levels. The top levels deal with the low priority operators, and these call the bottom levels (which deal with the high priority operators) for the items to operate on. This means that the high priority operations will be performed first, by the bottom levels of the expression evaluator, before the results of those operations are passed back to the top levels, for the low priority operations to be performed.

Taking the example of $2 + 3 * 5'$ again, the top level would deal with the addition, and call the bottom level to get the values for it to add. The bottom level would deal with the multiplication, before passing the result back to the top level.

If we call the top level <expression>, and the bottom level \leq term \geq , we can see how this would operate:

- **1** <expression> calls <term> to get the first item to operate on.
- **2** <term> gets the number '2' from the line.
- **3** There is not a '*' or a '/' after the '2', so \lt t e r m > passes '2' up to <expression>.
- **4** <expression> finds that there is a '+' after the item that \leq t e r m > had evaluated, so it saves the '2' and calls <term> again to get the item to add to it.
- **5** <term> gets the number '3' from the line.
- **6** There is a '*' following the '3', so \leq **term** > saves the '3' and gets the number '5' from the line.
- **7** The '5' is multiplied by the saved '3', to give the result '15'.
- **8** There is not a '*' or a '/' after the last number just read (the '5'), so <term> passes the '15' up to <expression>.
- **9** <expression> retrieves the '2' that it had saved at stage 4, and adds it to the '15' passed up from \leq term>, giving the result '17'.
- **10** There is not a '+' or a '−' after the item that \leq **t** e r m > had evaluated (the '3*5'), so it passes the '17' up as the result of the <expression>.

The levels in this simple expression evaluator can be expressed using *Backus-Naur Form*, or BNF ([see appendix A](#page-320-0)). It is expressed as follows:

<expression> ::= <term> {+|- <term>} $\langle \text{term} \rangle$::= $\langle \text{number} \rangle$ $\{ \star \} / \langle \text{number} \rangle \}$

::= means 'is defined as'

{} surround items which can appear zero or more times

| separates alternatives

So an \leq expression > can consist of just a \leq term > or any number of \leq t e r m > s with each one separated by a '+' or a '-'. Similarly a \leq term \geq can be just a \leq number \geq , or it can be any number of \langle number \rangle s with each one separated by a '*' or a '/'.

In the example ' $2 + 3 * 5$ ':

the \leq expression> is '2 + 3 $*$ 5'

the first \leq term $>$ is '2' the second \leq term > is '3 $*$ 5'

The BASIC program below shows a simple expression evaluator with the \langle expression>, \langle term>, and \langle number> levels.

FNexpr evaluates an <expression>, calling **FNterm** to get the $\leq t$ e r m >, and **FNnumber** is used to get the \leq number >. Spaces are not allowed in expressions evaluated by this program.

The program uses *one character look-ahead*, where the next character is always kept in the variable 'char\$'. This allows the character not recognised by **FNterm**, say, to be passed to **FNexpr** in case it was a '+' or a ' $-$ '. If this were not done, <expression> would have to re-read the character from the line, before testing it for one of its operators. If a character is recognised, the next one must be read into char\$ before another routine is called (for example, on line 1030).

```
 5 REM Simple expression evaluator to demonstrate the
  10 REM "top-down" method of expression analysis
 15 REM (spaces not allowed in expressions)
 20 REM
 90 REM *** Main loop ***
 100 REPEAT
 110 INPUT"EXPRESSION :"line$
 120 lptr = 1
130 PRINT"VALUE IS :";FNexpr
 140 UNTILFALSE
```

```
990<br>1000 DEF FNexpr
                     :REM Get <expression> from line
 1005 PROCgetchar :REM Get char into char$
 1010 value = FNterm :REM Call <term> to get first item
 1015 REPEAT
 1030 IF char$="+" THEN PROCgetchar:value = value+FNterm
 1040 IF char$="-" THEN PROCgetchar:value = value-FNterm
 1045 UNTIL char$<>"+" AND char$<>"-"
 1050 = value :REM Final result
1990<br>2000 DFF FNterm
                      :RFM Get <term> from line
 2010 value = FNnumber :REM Call <number> to get first item
 2025 REPEAT
 2030 IF char$="*" THEN PROCgetchar:value =value*FNnumber
 2040 IF char$="/" THEN PROCgetchar:value =value/FNnumber
2042 UNTIL char$<>"*" AND char$<>"/"<br>2050 = value<br>2050 =PEM Result of <term>
 2990
 3000 DEF FNnumber :REM Read in <number> from line
 3020 IF char$>"9" OR char$<"0" PRINT "NO NUMBER":STOP
3035 number = 0 3040 REPEAT
 3050 digit = ASC(char$)-&30
3060 number = number*10 + digit
 3070 PROCgetchar
 3090 UNTIL char$>"9" OR char$<"0"
                      :RFM Value of <number>
 3990
 4000 DEF PROCgetchar :REM Get character from line
 4030 char$ = MID$(line$,lptr,1)
 4040 lptr = lptr+1
 4060 ENDPROC
```
The expression evaluator in BASIC has eight levels, rather than just the 2 in the simple model. The levels, and their associated operators, are as follows (lowest priority at the top):

Note that <testable-condition> is the same as <numeric> (see chapter 33 of the BBC *User Guide*, or chapter 25 of the *Electron User Guide*). Numbers, functions and variables appear at the $\leq p \cdot \text{imitive} >$ level. A <primitive> could also be a <testablecondition> in brackets, causing the expression evaluator to *recurse* down from the top level again. For a more complete definition of the expression evaluator, and the rest of BASIC, [see](#page-320-0) [appendix A](#page-320-0).

Most functions enter the expression evaluator at the \leq f a c t o r $>$ level rather than at the top; this means that variables or numbers can be given to a function without brackets, but an <expression> must be included in (round) brackets. So, for example, the expression 'SIN2+5' will be evaluated as $(SIN2)+5'$.

When finished, each level of the expression evaluator leaves its result in IntA, FPA, or StrA (depending on the type), with the type in the 6502 accumulator. The type bytes are:

- &00 real (floating point) number &40 integer
- &FF string

Note that these are not the same as the variable types described in [section 3.1.](#page-48-1)

Each level can check this type byte returned to it by a lower level, and do any conversions necessary (or generate an error if a type mismatch has occurred). The particular ROM routines in [section](#page-188-0) [10.4](#page-188-0) give more details of the use of these type numbers.

No check is made to see if the expression evaluator is running out of 6502 stack (due to all the subroutines it is calling). This means, for example, that if more that 17 levels of nested brackets are used, the stack will overflow, and the expression will not be evaluated properly (it may even generate an obscure error). In practice, this number of brackets is hardly ever used, so the problem never arises.

5 Program Control Mechanisms

Normally in a BASIC program, the statements are executed one after the other, working through the program. However, several statements are provided which allow this normal flow of control of the program to be changed, either by jumping to another part of the program, or by conditionally executing a series of statements.

BASIC keeps a text pointer, PTRA, which it uses to point to the statement currently being executed, in a similar way to the program counter (PC) in the 6502 ([see section 2.2.5\)](#page-37-0). Whenever any of these program control statements, like GOTO, change the flow of control of the program, this pointer is changed to point to the start of the new statement where execution of the program is to continue. When the interpreter continues, it will then start reading in from the statement pointed to by PTRA.

This section details the program control statements in BASIC, and describes the mechanisms that they use to operate.

5.1 GOTO

This is the simplest of the program control statements in BASIC. It just passes control from one part of the program to another.

The action of the BASIC GOTO statement is:

- 1 Get the line number or \leq numeric \geq following the GOTO token.
- **2** Search the program from the beginning to find a line with that line number; if it is not found, generate a 'No such line' error (error number 41).
- **3** If the line was found, then point the text pointer PTRA at the start of the first statement on that line. When the BASIC interpreter continues, it will execute statements from there onwards.

5.2 GOSUB…RETURN

The GOSUB statement is similar to the GOTO statement in that it passes control to another part of the program; but it also allows control to RETURN to the statement after the GOSUB statement when the subroutine has finished.

The GOSUB statement has to remember where to RETURN to after the end of the subroutine. A 'GOSUB stack' is used to hold the location of the statement following the GOSUB statement, so that the RETURN statement on the end of the subroutine can pass control back to that part of the program. The format of the GOSUB stack is:

The action of the GOSUB statement is:

- 1 Get the line number or \leq numeric \geq following the GOSUB token, and set PTRA to point to the end of the statement.
- **2** Search the program to find a line with that line number; if it is not found, generate a 'No such line' error (error number 41).
- **3** If the GOSUB stack pointer is more than 25, there are already 26 return addresses (0 to 25) on the stack. In this case, generate a 'Too many GOSUBs' error (error number 37), to prevent the GOSUB stack from overflowing (it only has room for 26 entries).
- **4** If we get here, the GOSUB stack is not full, so push the base of PTRA, which now points to the end of the GOSUB statement, on to the the GOSUB stack. Increment the GOSUB stack pointer (GSP), ready for the next one.
- **5** Point the text pointer PTRA at the start of the first statement on the line found. When the BASIC interpreter continues, it will execute statements from there onwards.

When a RETURN statement is encountered, it has to retrieve the old value of PTRA, so that it can go back to the statement after the GOSUB which called it.

The action of the RETURN statement is:

- 1 If the GOSUB stack pointer is 0, the GOSUB stack is empty, and there is no address to return to. In this case, generate the 'No GOSUB' error (error number 38).
- **2** Pop the return address from the GOSUB stack, decrementing the GOSUB stack pointer to remove it. This return address is then put into PTRA. When the interpreter continues, it will execute statements from there onwards (i.e. starting with the statement after the GOSUB which called the subroutine).

5.3 PROCs and FNs

The ability to call PROCs and FNs is a very powerful feature of BBC BASIC, although as far as the interpreter is concerned it is just a more complex version of the GOSUB statement. With PROC and FN calls, not only does the return address have to be saved, so that control can be returned when the call is finished, but the values of parameters and local variables have to be saved so that they can be restored also.

Once a FN or PROC has been called, its name and location is added to a linked list on the BASIC HEAP, one list for FNs, and one for PROCs. This means that once a FN or PROC has been used, BASIC does not have to search through the whole of the program to find it again (like it does with the line numbers given to a GOTO or GOSUB statement). [See section 3.1](#page-50-0) for the format of these liked lists.

After the FN or PROC has been found, any parameters which need to be passed are handled. In the description below, *formal parameter* refers to the parameter used in the FN or PROC definition; and *actual parameter* refers to the parameter which is passed to it.
Although PROC is a statement and FN is a function (and hence returns a value), the mechanism which is used when they are called is very similar. To deal with both of them, there is a standard FN/PROC handler which is called by both the FN function and the PROC statement.

The PROC statement has to copy PTRA into PTRB before calling this handler, and then use PTRB (rather than PTRA) to check that it is at the end of the statement when the call has returned. The FN/PROC handler must not alter PTRA, because this is not used in the expression evaluator (and hence the FN function must not change it). The FN function does not need to do any of this (as PTRB will be set up correctly for it), and the FN/PROC handler returns directly to the code which called the FN when it has finished.

The action of the FN/PROC handler is:

1 Save the contents of the 6502 stack on the BASIC stack (with a byte to give the old 6502 stack pointer), and reset the 6502 stack pointer to &1FF. The 6502 stack works downwards in page 1, and the stack pointer points to the next available byte, so it is now empty (fig 5.1 (b)). The 6502 stack is not very big – only 256 bytes – and saving it in this manner allows deep *recursion* of FNs and PROCs without overflowing the small 6502 stack.

Figure 5.1 – FN/PROC stack use.

- **2** Save the FN or PROC token as the first item on the 6502 stack, at &1FF. The FN token is &A4, and the PROC token is &F2. This allows the ENDPROC or FN return statement (4) to check that it is inside the correct type of call before it exits.
- **3** Save PTRA on the 6502 stack.
- **4** Scan the name of the FN/PROC call. If there is not one immediately following the FN or PROC token, generate a 'Bad call' error (error number 30).
- **5** Search for the name of the FN or PROC in the list of already used calls. If it is found, don't bother to look through the program for it.
- **6** If the FN or PROC was not in the list, look through the program from the beginning until a DEF FN or a DEF PROC is found with the correct type and name. This search uses PTRA to look through the program (which is why it was saved at stage 3). If it is found, add it to the list; otherwise, restore the base of PTRA from the 6502 stack (this will tell the error handler on which line the error occurred), and generate a 'No such FN/PROC' error.
- **7** Set PTRA to point to the location found by the search (or found in the list). This will point to the first character following the name after the DEF FN or DEF PROC. If there are any parameters, this character will be an opening bracket, '('.
- **8** If there are any parameters in the definition, check that they match with those in the call. If they do, push the value and the *variable descriptor block* of each *formal* parameter on the BASIC STACK (i.e. the one in the definition), and assign the new value to it given by the value of the *actual* parameter in the call. Saving the value and *variable descriptor block* allows the formal parameters to be restored to their original values after the call has returned. If the parameters do not match, restore the base of PTRA from the 6502 stack (for the error handler), and generate an 'Arguments' error (error number 31).
- **9** Push the number of parameters on the 6502 stack, so that the correct number can be restored when returning from the call. If there were no parameters, this will be 0.
- **10** Save PTRB on the 6502 stack. This points to the next part of the line to be interpreted, and will need to be restored after the call has returned. The stacks are now in the state shown in fig $5.1(c)$.
- **11** Start off the call by executing a JSR to the statement interpreter, which will start executing statements from PTRA. This leaves this return address on the 6502 stack ready for a FN return statement or an ENDPROC statement (all other statements JMP back to the statement interpreter when they have finished; only the ENDPROC and FN return statements finish by executing an RTS).
- **12** When we get here, the FN or PROC has finished. If it was a FN, then the result type will be in &27, and the value will be in IntA, StrA, or FPA as appropriate.
- **13** Restore PTRB from the 6502 stack. This points to the place in the line where interpreting should continue.
- **14** Pull the number of parameters from the 6502 stack. If there were any, restore the old value of each one by pulling its *variable descriptor block* and value from the BASIC STACK.
- **15** Restore PTRA from the 6502 stack. The only thing left now on the stack, is the FN or PROC token, which was used to tell the ENDPROC or FN return statement which type of call it was in.
- **16** Recover the old 6502 stack from the BASIC stack. The stacks are now back to the state that they were when the FN/PROC handler was called (fig 5.1(a)).
- **17** Retrieve the type of the result from &27 into A, in case this is a FN. If it is a PROC, this stage is not needed, but does no harm.

18 Execute an RTS to return to the code which called the FN/PROC caller. In the case of a FN, this returns to the expression evaluator, with the type of the result of the FN in A, and the result itself in IntA, FPA, or StrA. In the case of a PROC, this returns to the PROC statement handler, which sets PTRA to point to the next statement (using PTRB to find out where the FN/PROC handler had got up to), and jumps back to the statement interpreter to continue execution after the PROC.

By trapping the 'No such FN/PROC' error generated if the DEF FN or DEF PROC is not found in stage 6 above, procedures and functions can be overlayed from disc (or tape, but it's not so useful). There is more on overlaying FNs and PROCs in [chapter 8](#page-129-0).

The LOCAL statement inside a FN or PROC has to save the old value of variables in a similar way to parameters passed to the call. Each variable in the LOCAL statement has its value pushed on the BASIC STACK, followed by its *variable descriptor block*; and the 'Number of parameters' byte on the 6502 stack is incremented. The current value of the variable is then set to zero. Saving it in this manner means that its old value will be restored as if it was just another parameter, when the call returns.

The ENDPROC statement and the $=$ (FN return) statement check the state of the stack before they return (just returning could have disastrous results if they didn't). If they find that there are not at least 4 items on the 6502 stack (there won't be any if it isn't in a PROC or a FN), they generate a 'No FN' or 'No PROC' error. Also, if the token at $&1FF$ (the bottom of the stack) does not match (i.e. a PROC token for ENDPROC, or a FN token for the FN return statement), this error is also generated. Otherwise, if everything is OK, then they execute an RTS (after evaluating the <numeric> in the case of the FN return statement) to return to the FN/PROC handler at stage 12 above.

When executing statements inside a FN or PROC, the 6502 S register contains &F5 (i.e. the next available byte on the stack is at $&1F5$), and the state of the stack is as follows:

Note that when the FN/PROC handler gets back at stage 12, the RTS address has been removed from the top.

5.4 IF…THEN…ELSE

This construction allows the statements after the THEN or the ELSE parts to be executed conditionally, depending on the value of the <testable-condition> found after the IF part.

The action of the IF statement is:

- **1** Evaluate the <testable-condition> following the IF token (i.e. the <numeric> after the IF token: they are just the same).
- **2** If the <testable-condition> evaluated to be 0 (i.e. false), then scan through the line until an ELSE token or the end of the line is found. If no ELSE was found on the line, then continue execution on the next line. Otherwise, set PTRA to point to the character after the ELSE token, and continue at stage 4.
- **3** If the <testable-condition> evaluated to be anything other than 0 (i.e. true), check for a THEN token. If there isn't one, JMP to the statement interpreter to continue executing the rest of the line after the <numeric> (you don't have to use a THEN). If there is a THEN token, set PTRA to point to the character after it, and continue at stage 4.
- **4** Check for a (tokenised) line number following the THEN or ELSE; if there is one, execute a GOTO to that line number. Otherwise, JMP to the statement interpreter to continue executing the rest of the line.

Note that once the IF statement has decided that the THEN section is to be executed, the IF statement does not prevent it from 'falling into' the ELSE clause; this is done by the general statement interpreter itself. If it discovers that there is an ELSE token on the end of the statement it has just executed, it will just skip the rest of the line instead (as if it was a REM statement). This means that lines like:

PRINT "HELLO" ELSE MISTAKE

will not give an error, but the ELSE clause will never be executed.

5.5 REPEAT…UNTIL

This is the simplest of BASIC's two loop structures, the other being the FOR…NEXT loop. Using this loop, control is repeatedly passed back to the statements following the REPEAT until the UNTIL clause is satisfied.

This loop structure uses a stack in page 5 to save the location of the start of the statement after the REPEAT, so that the UNTIL statement knows where to pass control back to if it is not satisfied. The format of the REPEAT stack is:

The action of the REPEAT statement is:

- **1** Check that the REPEAT stack pointer (RSP) is less than 20 ($&$ 14). If it isn't, the REPEAT stack is full, so generate a 'Too many REPEATs' error (error number 44).
- **2** PTRA points to the character after the REPEAT token, so push that address on the REPEAT stack, incrementing the REPEAT stack pointer.
- **3** JMP to the statement interpreter to continue execution with the statements after the REPEAT token.

The action of the UNTIL statement is:

- **1** Evaluate the <testable-condition> following the UNTIL token, checking that it is at the end of the statement (if it isn't at the end of the statement, a 'Syntax error' is generated).
- **2** Check that the REPEAT stack is not empty (i.e. the REPEAT stack pointer is not 0). If it is, generate a 'No REPEAT' error (error number 43).
- **3** If the <testable-expression> evaluated in stage 1 was zero, get the address of the statement following the REPEAT from the REPEAT stack, leaving it on there for the next time this UNTIL statement is encountered. Set PTRA to this address, and JMP to the statement interpreter to continue execution at the statement after the REPEAT.
- **4** If the <testable-expression> was not zero, remove the top entry from the REPEAT stack by decrementing the REPEAT stack pointer, and JMP to the statement interpreter to continue execution with the statements following the UNTIL statement.

5.6 FOR…NEXT

This loop structure allows a series of statements to be performed a set number of times, with a different value of the *control variable* each time. This is a more complex loop than the REPEAT…UNTIL loop, as far as the interpreter is concerned, because it takes more time to set up, and there is more to do every time it goes round the loop.

This loop has to save the address and type of the control variable, the STEP size, the TO limit, and the address of the statement after the FOR statement. For this, it has a stack in page 5 in the following format:

The FOR stack pointer is an offset from $&500$ to the next available 15-byte FOR slot. The format of each 15-byte entry is:

If the control variable is an integer, it only uses 4 of the 5 bytes allocated for the STEP size and TO limit.

The action of the FOR statement is:

- **1** Get the variable following the FOR token; this is going to be the 'control variable'. If it is invalid, or a string variable, generate a 'FOR variable' error (error number 34).
- **2** Check for an equals sign (4) following the variable; if there isn't one, generate a 'Mistake' error (error number 4).
- **3** Evaluate the <numeric> after the equals sign, and set the value of the control variable to this.
- **4** If the FOR stack pointer is &96 (150) or more, there are already 10 FOR loops in operation and the FOR stack is full. If this is the case, generate a 'Too many FORs' error (error number 35).
- **5** Save the address and type of the variable (i.e. its *variable descriptor block*) on the FOR stack.
- **6** If the next character on the line is a TO token, evaluate the \le numeric \ge after it (making sure it is the same type – real or integer – as the control variable), and save that on the

FOR stack. If it isn't a TO token, generate a 'No TO' error (error number 36).

- **7** If the next character is a STEP token, get the \leq numeric> following that to use as the step size (making sure it is of the correct type again). If it isn't a STEP token, use 1 as the STEP size instead.
- **8** Check that we are now at the end of the statement, and set PTRA to point to the next statement.
- **9** Save PTRA on the FOR stack, to tell NEXT where to return to, and move the FOR stack pointer up by 15 bytes to cover this new FOR entry.
- **10** Finally, JMP to the statement interpreter to continue execution with the statements after the FOR statement.

The action of the NEXT statement is:

- **1** Look for a variable name after the NEXT token. If there is one, get its *variable descriptor block* and look down the FOR stack, throwing away the top entry, until the same variable is found. If the FOR stack was empty, generate a 'No FOR' error (error number 32); if the FOR stack wasn't empty, but a FOR loop could not be found with the same control variable, then generate a 'Can't match FOR' error (error number 33).
- **2** If there was no variable after the NEXT, check that the FOR stack is not empty (generate a 'No FOR' error if it is empty).
- **3** Get the type and address of the control variable, so that real and integer loop variables can be handled separately. Note, however, that NEXT does not differentiate between single-byte and 4-byte integers (although FOR does), so a single byte variable like '?A%' may give unpredictable results if used as a control variable.
- **4** Add the STEP size to the control variable.
- **5** If the new value of the control variable is inside the TO limit (less than or equal if STEP is positive; greater than or equal if STEP is negative) set PTRA to the address of the statement after the FOR statement (from the FOR stack), and JMP to the statement interpreter to continue execution with those statements.
- **6** If the new value of the control variable is outside the TO limit, move the FOR stack pointer down by 15 bytes to remove the top entry.
- **7** Set PTRA to point to the next character of the NEXT statement. If it is a comma $($, $)$, go back to stage 1 as if it was a new NEXT statement (i.e. we have a multiple NEXT statement). Otherwise, JMP to the statement interpreter to continue execution with the statements following the NEXT statement.

5.7 ON…GOTO/GOSUB

This program control statement allows control to be passed to different parts of the program, depending on the value after the ON.

The action of the ON statement is:

- **1** If the first character after the ON token is an ERROR token, then go to the ON ERROR handler [\(section 5.8\)](#page-82-0).
- **2** Evaluate the <numeric> following the ON token.
- **3** If the next character is not a GOTO or a GOSUB token, generate an 'ON syntax' error (error number 39).
- **4** Save the GOTO or GOSUB token on the 6502 stack.
- **5** If the value of the \leq numeric \geq was less than zero or greater than 255, give up trying to match it; otherwise, count along the list of line numbers to try to find the entry corresponding to the ON control value. If the entry was found, pop the GOTO or GOSUB token from the 6502 stack, and jump into the GOTO or GOSUB routine

(depending on the token) to pass control to that line number.

- **6** If no match was made, remove the token from the 6502 stack, and look to see if there is an ELSE token on the line. If there is, handle it as if it was an ELSE in an IF statement (i.e. if there is a line number after the ELSE token, GOTO it, otherwise continue execution with the statements after the ELSE token).
- **7** If there is no ELSE token on the line, generate an 'ON range' error (error number 40).

In BASIC1, the token is not popped from the 6502 stack at stage 6; so if an ELSE clause is found and executed, the 6502 stack state has been messed up. If the ON statement was inside a FN or PROC (which keeps its return address on the 6502 stack), this will cause BASIC to crash on the FN or PROC return. The ON statement works correctly without the ELSE clause; and this bug has been cured in BASIC2 anyway.

5.8 ON ERROR

This statement does not directly change control of the program execution like the other program control mechanisms, but it does still involve using the pointers in a similar way. It changes the BASIC statements that the error handler executes when an error is generated.

BASIC keeps an ON ERROR pointer in page zero at &16,&17. This points to the start of a section of BASIC which will be executed when an error occurs.

In BASIC1 the default error handler (stored as 2 lines in the ROM starting at &B443) is:

 REPORT:IF ERL<>0 PRINT" at line ";ERL; 0 PRINT:END

In BASIC2 the default error handler (only 1 line at $&B433$) is:

REPORT:IF ERL PRINT" at line ";ERL:END ELSE PRINT:END

The action of the ON ERROR statement is:

- **1** If the first character after the ERROR token is an OFF token, set the ON ERROR pointer to point to the default error handler, and JMP to the statement interpreter to continue with the statements after the ON ERROR OFF statement.
- **2** If the character was not an OFF token, then set PTRA to point to the first character after the ON ERROR, and set the ON ERROR pointer to point to this. This means that, should an error occur, these statements will be executed as the error handler.
- **3** Finally, skip the rest of the line as if it was a REM statement (we don't want to execute the error handler yet), and continue execution of the program on the next line.

6 Assembling and Disassembling

6.1 The Assembler

The built-in 6502 assembler in BASIC is a very useful tool, allowing both large and small machine code routines to be written easily. Being a part of BASIC itself, it is very easy to use BASIC variables and functions, conditional assembly (with some sections of the assembly code in IF…THEN statements), or macros (assembly sections in a GOSUB or FN/PROC).

The assembler is written very efficiently, and in total only occupies just over 1K of the 16K BASIC ROM.

The assembler mnemonics in the ROM are stored in a compressed format to save space. Only the least significant 5 bits of each mnemonic character are used, so that the whole mnemonic can be compressed into 15 bits of a 2-byte number. This also means that both upper case or lower case mnemonics will be recognised (or a mixture of the two). Fig 6.1 shows how the characters are packed.

MNEMONIC CHARACTERS

Figure 6.1 – Mnemonic compression.

A further byte is used for each mnemonic, to hold the 'base value' of the opcode. For instructions which can only have one addressing mode (such as the instructions which employ implied or relative addressing), this is the actual opcode used; for other instructions, this base value is modified by the actual addressing mode used.

The mnemonic and base opcode are stored as follows:

where M is the mnemonic number. Table 6.1 shows the mnemonic and base opcode value for each mnemonic number, as stored in the ROM table. Note that the directives OPT and EQU are stored the same as mnemonics, but they need no base opcode. The EQU directive is not implemented in BASIC1.

By comparing this table with [fig 6.2](#page-86-0), it can be seen that the mnemonics are grouped together with others which allow the same addressing modes. The assembler has a different section of machine code which is used for each of the different groups of mnemonics, to decide which addressing modes to allow. [Section](#page-24-0) [1.5](#page-24-0) gives these mnemonic groups.

6.2 The Disassembler

A disassembler is always useful: either for exploring the contents of the ROMs in the machine, or for checking that the machine code that you have just assembled is actually what you wanted (especially if it's got lots of conditional assembly in it).

Most disassemblers take up quite a lot of memory. For a start, they usually use a large table to decode the opcodes, with one entry for each of the $\overline{256}$ possible 1-byte numbers. Each entry of the table contains 3 bytes of mnemonic characters, and a further byte to give the addressing modes allowed with that particular opcode. This means that the disassembler is 1K long already, without any program to decode the instructions. Also, they are usually written in BASIC, which makes them slow, and even larger.

The disassembler described in this section uses the assembler tables in the ROM, and is written in machine code. When assembled, it is less than 500 bytes long, and so will fit in any 2 spare pages of memory (for example, from &B00 to &CFF, which is otherwise used for the user defined characters and function keys).

To use the disassembler, the resident integer variable D% is set to point to the first instruction to be disassembled (similar to the use of P% by the assembler). Typing 'CALL start%' will then disassemble one instruction, and leave D% pointing to the next one to be disassembled. If the variables have been re-set since the program was assembled, 'CALL &B00', or wherever the start of it is, will have to be used instead. This could be built in as a new statement, if required ([see chapter 7](#page-99-0)).

To disassemble a length of code, a loop can be used:

REPEAT:CALL &B00:UNTIL FALSE or: REPEAT:CALL &B00:UNTIL D%>&BFFF

(page mode will have to be used with a loop like this, as it disassembles at about 150 bytes/second, depending on the screen mode). In fact, a short program could be used to make the use of it very flexible; but the main advantage of it is that other programs can be loaded and run while the disassembler is still

resident. If the user defined characters or function keys need to be used while the disassembler is in memory, PAGE could be moved up by 512 bytes, and it could be assembled there.

The 'EQU' directive has not been used in the program, so that it will work on either a BASIC1 or BASIC2 machine with no modification. PROCsetup (lines 9000 on) checks which version of BASIC is present, and sets up the correct ROM table labels before it is assembled.

Operation of the disassembler

The disassembler compares the opcode which is to be disassembled against the 'base opcode' of each mnemonic, and calculates the difference between them. If this difference can be made up by the offset of a particular addressing mode, and this addressing mode is allowed with the current mnemonic that it is checking, the mnemonic and addressing mode of that particular opcode have been found.

For example, if the value of the opcode was $\&31$, this would be matched with the mnemonic 'AND' (base opcode &21) and the addressing mode '(IND),Y' (offset &10). The base opcodes for each mnemonic are stored in the ROM tables, but the disassembler must contain the tables of allowed addressing modes for each group of instructions, and also the extent of each group. These tables are not in the ROM as the assembler does the addressing mode decoding in machine code rather than using tables.

The main opcode matching loop is from lines 1460–1760.

If the opcode is not matched with anything in the table, '???' is printed out (for an unrecognised mnemonic). Note that 'JMP (IND)' has to be tested for separately (line 1190) as it does not fit into the pattern with the rest of them.

The allowed addressing mode offsets for each group are:

These possible offsets are held in the bit table 'msktab' in the program (lines 3490–3590). The number of the lowest mnemonic in each group is held in the table 'grptab' (lines 3600–3710).

The symbols in the table $(X, \#, A, 1 \text{ to } 7)$ represent the possible addressing modes. Note that they don't all line up: the addressing mode decode part of the program has to line up all these to get the correct addressing mode. The symbols represent:

- X either relative or implied
 $\#$ IMM (same as 2, but diff
- $\frac{\text{H}}{\text{M}}$ IMM (same as 2, but different pattern)
0 (IND.X)
- (IND,X)
- $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{ZP}{IM}$
- 2 IMM
3 ABS
- $\begin{array}{cc} 3 & \text{ABS} \\ 4 & \text{(IND)} \end{array}$
- 4 (IND), Y
5 ZP, X
- 5 ZP,X
6 ABS
- $\begin{array}{cc}\n6 & \text{ABS,Y} \\
7 & \text{ARS X}\n\end{array}$
- ABS, X (, Y if LDX or STX)

The rest of the program handles the decoding and printing of the addressing mode characters and data. For most of the groups this is not too difficult, as the addressing mode corresponds directly with the offset from the base address; however, some others need to be shifted by an extra offset to 'line up' with the others. This shifting is done by lines 1810–2060.

The more complex addressing modes are printed using a bit mask table (lines 3800 to 3882) to decide which characters to print. The simpler addressing modes are printed by a separate part of the routine.

```
 10 REM Machine code disassembler
   15 REM using assembler ROM tables
  20 REM<br>25 REM
             M D Plumbley 1984
   30 REM
 99<br>100 PROCsetup
                          :REM Set up ROM entry points
  590
 595 REM *** Allocate workspace ***<br>600 worksp = &0070 600 worksp = &0070
 605 grpmsk = worksp :REM Bit mask of allowed modes
 610 ytemp = worksp+1 :REM Temp for addr mode group
 615 mdstor = worksp+2 :REM Store for addressing mode
 620 opcode = worksp+3 :REM Opcode read in from memory
 625 data = worksp+4 :REM The 2 bytes after the opcode
 630 addr = worksp+6 :REM Copy of address in D%
 635 mnem = worksp+8 :REM Mnemonic construction area
 640 xtemp = worksp+10 :REM Temp for mnemonic number
 645 lastch = worksp+11 :REM Last char of mnemonic
 650 nbytes = worksp+12 :REM Number of instruction bytes
 655 chrmsk = worksp+13 :REM Addr mode character mask
  690
  700 count = &1E
  799
 900 start% = &0B00 :REM User defined char/key area
  905
  910 FOR opt% = 0 TO 3 STEP 3
 920 P_{6} = start%
  950 [OPT opt%
 1000 .disass
1010 LDA &410 \Get address from D%, and put it<br>1020 STA addr \in the workspace
 1020 STA addr \ in the workspace
 1030 LDA &411
 1040 STA addr+1
1045<br>1050 LDY #2
                          \Transfer the opcode and 2 data
1060 .txbyte \ bytes to be disassembled
 1070 LDA (addr),Y
 1080 STA opcode,Y
 1090 DEY
 1100 BPL txbyte
 1105
                          \Print the address and the opcode
1110 LDA addr+1<br>1120 JSR phex
 1130 LDA addr
```
1140 JSR phexsp
1150 JSR pspace 1150 JSR pspace
1160 IDA opcode LDA opcode 1170 JSR phexsp 1180 1190 LDA opcode \vert if we have a JMP (XXXX), then 1200 cMP #860 \vert set the mnemonic to "JMP" 1200 CMP #&6C \ set the mnemonic to "JMP"
1210 BNF mtchop \ (mnemonic number &32).and 1 (mnemonic number &32), and the 1220 LDX #&32 \ addressing mode to 8.
1230 STX xtemp \ Otherwise, attempt to 1230 STX xtemp \setminus Otherwise, attempt to match the 1240 IDA #8 λ opcode with the table 1250 STA mdstor 1260 JMP domode 1270 1280 .nomtch
1290 .JSR 1290 JSR tbmnem $\left\{\n \begin{array}{l}\n 1290 \\
 1300\n \end{array}\n \right.$ JSR tbmnem $\left\{\n \begin{array}{l}\n 1600 \\
 1300\n \end{array}\n \right.$ \setminus found, so print a "???", 1310 LDA #ASC"?" \ and go on to add 1 to D%
1320 .pgloop \ before finishing 1320 .pqloop \ before finishing
1330 (JSR pchar 1330 JSR pchar 1340 DEY
1350 BNE 1350 BNE pqloop 1360 JMP add1 1370 1380 .tbmnem
1390 .1DY LDY #16 \Print spaces until we get to 1400 .tbloop \downarrow the 16th column. This lines 1410 JSR pspace \downarrow up all the mnemonics. 1410 JSR pspace λ up all the mnemonics.
1420 CPY count CPY count 1430 BCS tbloop
1440 RTS 1440 1450 1451 \ ** Main opcode matching routine ** 1452
1460 .mtchop \Go through all the mnemonics, 1470 LDX #&39 \ and try to match one to the 1480 LDY #&0A \ opcode. 1485 1490 .nextop 1500 DEX \If we have tried all the
1510 BEQ nomtch \mnemonics.it is invalie \ mnemonics, it is invalid. 1515 1520 TXA \Check to see if we are now in
1530 CMP grotab.Y \a new mnemonic group. CMP grptab, $Y \cap \{a\}$ new mnemonic group. 1540 BCS samgrp 1550 DEY 1560 LDA msktab,Y 1570 STA grpmsk 1575 1580 .samgrp 1590 LDA opcode \The opcode can only have this 1600 SEC \ mnemonic if is a positive

1610 SBC opbase, X \ offset from the "base opcode"
1620 BCC nextop \ of it. Also, the offset must 1620 BCC nextop \ of it. Also, the offset must
1630 ISRA \ be divisible by 4. and must I \backslash be divisible by 4, and must be 1640 BCS nextop \ &1C or less (&1C=4*7) 1650 LSRA 1660 BCS nextop
1670 CMP #8 1670 CMP #8 BCS nextop 1685
1690 1690 STA mdstor \Check to see if this addr mode
1700 STY vtemp \is allowed with this mnemonic λ is allowed with this mnemonic. 1710 TAY \ If it isn't, go back to check
1720 LDA bittab, Y \ for another mnemonic. 1720 LDA bittab, Y \ for another mnemonic.
1730 IDY vtemp \ "grpmsk" holds the al LDY ytemp $\qquad \qquad \qquad$ "grpmsk" holds the allowed 1740 AND grpmsk \ addr modes for this mnemonic.
1750 BEQ nextop BEQ nextop 1755 1760 STX xtemp \Success!! - so save the mnemonic
1762 \ number 1762 \ number 1765 1770 LDY ytemp \If the mode group is 0, it is
1790 TYA \either implied or relative 1790 TYA \ either implied or relative
1800 BFQ imprel BEQ imprel 1805
1810 LDA #&10 λ if the group mask suggests that 1820 .trymsk λ the mnemonic doesn't allow 1830 BIT grpmsk \ absolute addressing, we have to
1840 BNE mskok \ alter the addressing mode until 1840 BNE mskok λ alter the addressing mode until
1850 INC mdstor λ it does. (The "BPI" will always \ it does. (The "BPL" will always 1860 LSR grpmsk \ work after a "LSR".)
1870 – RPI trymsk BPL trymsk 1875 1880 .mskok \\Men we get here, the mask and
1890 LDA qrpmsk \addr mode offset is 0K. 1890 LDA grpmsk \ addr mode offset is OK.
1900 AND #&O8 \ However, if the addr mo \backslash However, if the addr mode is 0 1910 BNE modeok \ and (indir), Y is not allowed, 1920 LDA mdstor \ then it is really immediate
1930 BNF modeok \ addressing, which should be \ addressing, which should be 1940 LDA #2 \ addr mode 2 1950 STA mdstor 1955 1960 .modeok \When we get here, the only thing 1970 CPY #2 \ left to test for is accumulator
1980 BNF domode \ addressing. If the "allowed 1980 BNE domode \ addressing. If the "allowed
1990 TYA \ mode" group is 2, and the a TYA \ mode" group is 2, and the addr 2000 CMP mdstor λ mode is also 2, then print the
2010 BNF domode λ mnemonic, followed by an "A". 2010 BNE domode \ mnemonic, followed by an "A", 2020 JSR pmnem \ and go to add 1 to D% before 2030 LDA #ASC"A" \ finishing. Otherwise, go to
2040 JSR pchar \ "domode". \ "domode". 2050 .jadd1 2060 JMP add1

2065
2070 .imprel 2070 .imprel **If we get here, the addressing**
2080 LDX xtemp \ mode is either relative or \ mode is either relative or 2090 CPX #&1A \ implied. 2100 BCS rel 2105
2110 2110 JSR pmnem $\lfloor 2110 \rfloor$ and $\lfloor 2120 \rfloor$ JMP add 1 $\lfloor 2120 \rfloor$ and add 1 to $\lfloor 2120 \rfloor$ \ mnemonic, and add 1 to D% 2125 2130 rel $\overline{1}$ it is relative, we have 1
2140 $\overline{1}$ IDA data $\overline{1}$ extra data byte to print ou LDA data λ extra data byte to print out 2150 $JSR\ phase$ JSR phexsp λ before the mnemonic.
2160 $JSR\ phase$ 2160 JSR pmnem 2165 2170 LDA #0 \The absolute addr has to be
2180 STA data+1 \calculated from the offset 2180 STA data+1 \setminus calculated from the offset.
2190 IDA data \setminus First extend the sign of the \backslash First extend the sign of the 2200 BPL nodec \setminus offset byte into 2 bytes
2210 DEC data+1 DEC data+1 2215
2220 .nodec 2220 .nodec \overline{C} \Then add this 2-byte offset to 2230 SEC \overline{C} 2230 SEC \overline{O} adding another 2 with it.
2240 ADC 8410 \ One extra is added by setting \ One extra is added by setting 2250 STA data \setminus the carry before the addition,
2260 LDA &411 \setminus the other is added by λ the other is added by 2270 ADC data+1 \longrightarrow incrementing the address 2280 STA data+1 \ afterwards.
2290 INC data 2290 INC data
2300 BNF nopa BNE nopage 2310 INC data+1 2315 2320 .nopage \blacksquare \Finally, print the absolute 2330 JSR pabs \ address, and add 2 to D% before 2340 JMP add2 \ leaving. 2350 2355 \ $**$ Print the mnemonic $***$ 2360 .pmnem
2370 .lb LDX xtemp $\{First, act the number of the$ 2380 JSR tbmnem \ mnemonic, and get the LSB and 2390 LDA lsbmn, $X \cup Y$ MSB of the compressed mnemonic.
2400 ASIA \ The shifts are to get the bits \ The shifts are to get the bits 2410 STA mnem \ ready for the first 5 bits to 2420 LDA msbmn, X \ be shifted out. 2430 ROLA 2440 STA mnem+1 2445 2450 LDX #3 \This is the main loop which 2460 .mcloop \ shifts 3 characters out of 2470 LDA #0 \setminus the 2-byte compressed mnemonic.
2480 IDY #5 \setminus 5 bits at a time are shifted $\sqrt{5}$ bits at a time are shifted 2490 .mbloop \ out into the accumulator, and 2500 ASL mnem \ they are then ORed with &40 to

2510 ROL mnem+1 \ turn them into upper case
2520 ROLA \ letters. ROLA \ letters.
DFY 2530 2540 BNE mbloop
2550 0RA #&40 2550 ORA #&40 2560 JSR pchar
2570 DFX 2570 DEX 2580 BNE mcloop 2585
2590 2590 STA lastch $\sum_{i=1}^{n}$ \Save the last character printed: \ it might be an "X". 2600 JMP pspace \Print a space, and exit. 2605 2606 \ $**$ Handle the addressing mode stuff $**$ 2610 .domode
2620 LDY mdstor 2620 LDY mdstor latinst, get the number of bytes
2630 LDX mdbyts,Y \used by this addr mode, and \backslash used by this addr mode, and 2640 STX nbytes \ save it. 2645
2650 2650 DEX \Print the required number of 2660 BEQ nodata λ data bytes before the mnemonic.
2670 LDA data 2670 LDA data
2680 JSR phexs JSR phexsp 2690 DEX BEQ nodata 2710 LDA data+1 2720 JSR phexsp 2725 2730 .nodata 2740 JSR pmnem **\Print the mnemonic.** 2745
2750 LSR mdstor λ If the addr mode was odd, it is 2760 BCS smplmd λ a simple one, so deal with it 2770 \If it was not a simple mode, get 2790 LDA chmstb, Y \ the mask of characters to be 2800 STA chrmsk \ printed into "chrmsk". 2805 2810 LDY #6 \Starting at the 7th (0..6) char, 2820 .newchr $\overline{}$ \ if the bit shifted out of the
2830 ASI chrmsk $\overline{}$ \ mask is set, then print it. \langle mask is set, then print it. 2840 BCC nochr 2850 LDA chtab,Y
2860 JSR pchar 2860 JSR pchar 2865 2870 .nochr $\begin{array}{ccc}\n 2870 & \text{nochr} \\
 \end{array}$ \If we have got to the 5th char, 2880 CPY #5 \setminus the data can be printed (i.e. 2890 BNE nodat λ the "#" or "(" has been printed 2900 JSR pdata \setminus if there was one) 2905 2910 .nodat (Go round for another character 2920 DEY \ if we haven't printed them all;

2930 BPL newchr \setminus otherwise add "nbytes" to D%
2940 JMP addn \setminus and exit. λ and exit. 2950
2960 .smplmd 2960 .smplmd \iint we get here, the addr mode is 2970 JSR pdata \iint either "zero-page", "absolute", 2970 JSR pdata \ either "zero-page", "absolute",
2980 LSR mdstor \ "zero-page.X" or "absolute.X". 2980 LSR mdstor \vee "zero-page, X" or "absolute, X".
2990 ISR mdstor \vee Shifting out the 2nd bit from 2990 LSR mdstor \ Shifting out the 2nd bit from
3000 BCC addn \ "mdstor" gives whether indexed \ "mdstor" gives whether indexed 3010 LDA #ASC"," \ addressing is required. 3020 JSR pchar 3025 3030 LDA #ASC"X" \If the last character of the
3040 CMP lastch \ mnemonic was a "X", then use \ mnemonic was a "X", then use 3050 BNE px \vee "Y" as the index 3060 LDA #ASC"Y" 3070 .px
3080 JSR pchar 3080 JSR pchar \Print the index character, and
3090 JMP addn \add "nbytes" to D%. JMP addn \qquad add "nbytes" to D%. 3095 3096 \ ** Routines to print the data after the mnemonic $**$ 3110 .pabs
3120 LDA #ASC"&" \address. 3120 LDA #ASC"&"
3130 JSR pchar 3130 JSR pchar 3140 LDA data+1 JSR phex 3160 LDA data 3170 JMP phex 3175
3180 .pdata \If the total number of bytes for 3190 LDA nbytes \setminus this addressing mode is not 2
3200 CMP #2 \setminus (i.e. it is 3) then print the \setminus (i.e. it is 3) then print the 3210 BNE pabs \ absolute address. 3220 .pzerop \Print the data as a single byte. 3230 LDA #ASC"&"
3240 JSR pchar 3250 LDA data 3260 JMP phex 3265 3267 ** Exit points; add size to D% and exit *** 3270 .add1 λ and then exit 3280 and then exit 3280 LDA #1 3290 BNE add 3300 .add2 λ \Add 2 to D%, and then exit
3310 λ μ = λ 1 DA #2 3320 BNE add 3360 .addn \Add the number of bytes in the 3370 LDA nbytes \ instruciton to D%, then exit 3375 3380 add λ Add A to D%
3390 CLC λ (The least \ (The least significant 2 bytes 3400 ADC &410 \ of D%, are stored in &410 and 3410 STA &410 \ &411)

```
 3420 LDA &411
3430 ADC #0<br>3440 STA &4
        STA 8411
3445<br>3450
         JMP pnewl \Print a CRLF and exit
 3460
 3480 \*** Allowed offset table ***
 3482 \This table gives the allowed addr mode offset for
 3484 \ each group of mnemonics. Bit 7 (the top bit) is set
3486 \ if O is allowed; bit 6 set if 4 is allowed; etc.
 3490 ]:msktab=P%:P%=P%+10
 3500 msktab?0 = &80
 3510 msktab?1 = &FF
3520 msktab?2 = 8FA 3530 msktab?3 = &AA
 3540 msktab?4 = &D0
3550 msktab?5 = 850 3560 msktab?6 = &80
 3570 msktab?7 = &D5
 3580 msktab?8 = &DF
 3590 msktab?9 = &A8
 3592
 3594 REM ** Addressing mode groups **
 3596 REM This table contains the starts of the mnemonics
 3598 REM which have the same allowed addressing modes
 3600 grptab=P%:P%=P%+11
 3610 grptab?&0 = &01
 3620 grptab?&1 = &22
 3630 grptab?&2 = &29
 3640 grptab?&3 = &2D
 3650 grptab?&4 = &2F
 3660 grptab?&5 = &31
 3670 grptab?&6 = &32
 3680 grptab?&7 = &34
 3690 grptab?&8 = &36
 3700 grptab?&9 = &37
 3710 grptab?&A = &39
 3712
 3714 REM *** Bit position table ***
 3716 REM This table contains the bit position corresponding
 3718 REM to each addressing mode
 3720 bittab=P%:P%=P%+8
 3730 bittab?0 = &80
3740 \text{ bittab}?1 = 840 3750 bittab?2 = &20
 3760 bittab?3 = &10
3770 \text{ bittab}?4 = 808 3780 bittab?5 = &04
 3790 bittab?6 = &02
 3800 bittab?7 = &01
 3802
 3804 REM *** Addr mode character mask table ***
```

```
 3806 REM This table gives the characters to be printed for
 3808 REM the non-simple addressing modes
 3810 chmstb=P%:P%=P%+5
 3820 chmstb?0 = &78 :REM "(,X)"
 3830 chmstb?1 = &80 :REM "#"
 3840 chmstb?2 = &4E :REM "(),Y"
 3850 chmstb?3 = &06 :REM ",Y"
 3860 chmstb?4 = &48 :REM "()"
 3870 chtab=P%:P%=P%+7
 3880 $chtab="Y,)X,(#"
 3882
 3884 REM *** Addressing mode bytes table ***
 3886 REM This table gives the total number of bytes used by
 3888 REM a given addressing mode.
 3890 mdbyts=P%:P%=P%+9
 3900 mdbyts?0 = 2
 3910 mdbyts?1 = 2
 3920 mdbyts?2 = 2
 3930 mdbyts?3 = 3
3940 mdbyts?4 = 2
 3950 mdbyts?5 = 2
 3960 mdbyts?6 = 3
 3970 mdbyts?7 = 3
 3980 mdbyts?8 = 3
 8000
 8010 NEXT
 8015 @%=0
 8020 PRINT'"Code length =&"~P%-start%
 8190
 8200 PRINT'''''"** WARNING: Once assembled, the code"
 8210 PRINT"generated by this program is not"
 8220 PRINT"transferable between different BASICs"
 8230 PRINT
 8300 PRINT"DO ""CALL &"~disass""" to disassemble 1 line"
 8305 PRINT"D% points to code to be disassembled"'
 8310 END
 8990
 8992 REM *** Set up ROM entry points, allowing for ***
8993 REM *** BASIC 1 and BASIC 2. ***
 9000 DEFPROCsetup
 9010 basic1$ = "BASIC"+CHR$0+"(C)1981 Acorn"+CHR$&A
 9020 basic2$ = "BASIC"+CHR$0+"(C)1982 Acorn"+CHR$&A
 9030 IF $&8009=basic1$ THEN PROCset1 :ENDPROC
 9040 IF $&8009=basic2$ THEN PROCset2 :ENDPROC
 9050 PRINT "NOT BASIC 1 OR 2"
 9060 END
 9290
9292 REM *** Set up BASIC 1 entry points ***
 9300 DEFPROCset1
 9310 opbase = &84AD :REM Opcode base value table
 9315 lsbmn = &843B :REM Table of LSB of mnemonic
 9320 msbmn = &8474 :REM Table of MSB of mnemonic
```

```
9325 phex = &8570:REM Print A as a HEX byte
 9330 phexsp = &856A :REM Print A in HEX, then space
 9335 pspace = &B57B :REM Print a space
9340 pnewl = &BCA2 : REM Print a CRLF
 9345 pchar = &B571 :REM Print char in A
 9350 ENDPROC
 9490
9492 REM *** Set up BASIC 2 entry points ***
 9500 DEFPROCset2
 9510 opbase = &84C4 :REM Opcode base value table
 9515 lsbmn = &8450 :REM Table of LSB of mnemonic
 9520 msbmn = &848A :REM Table of MSB of mnemonic
9525 phex = &B545 :REM \cdot P\text{int A as a HEX bytes} 9530 phexsp = &B562 :REM Print A in HEX, then space
 9535 pspace = &B565 :REM Print a space
9540 pnewl = &BC25: REM Print a CRLF
9545 pchar = &B558 :REM Print char in A
 9550 ENDPROC
```
7 Adding New Commands

When the BASIC interpreter discovers anything which it doesn't recognise, it generates an error (usually 'Mistake'), to stop processing of the program or command and go back to command mode. This section describes how new statements and commands can be added to BASIC by intercepting this error.

7.1 Trapping BRK

The method that BASIC uses to generate an error, is to execute a BRK instruction, which is followed by a number of bytes in a standard error format. This format is:

> BRK instruction to generate the error Single byte error number (ERR) Error message (like 'Mistake') A zero byte to terminate the message

This is the standard method of generating errors on the Acorn BBC system, and it allows errors to be 'trapped' by intercepting the BRK vector (at $&202$). By trapping the errors generated by BASIC, it is possible to add new commands, overlay procedures, etc., and continue where it left off. Other errors which are generated by BASIC are described in [chapter 11.](#page-265-0)

When a BRK instruction is executed, the Machine Operating System will JMP to the BRK handler whose address is in the BRK vector at $&202,\&203$. On entry to the BRK handler the following conditions prevail:

- (a) The A, X and Y registers are unchanged from when the BRK instruction was executed.
- (b) The 6502 stack is prepared ready for an RTI to the instruction following the BRK instruction (i.e. with the 6502 flag byte on the top of the stack, and the return address underneath it). This will return control to the instruction 2 bytes after the BRK instruction.
- (c) The pointer in locations &FD,&FE points to the 'error number' byte after the BRK instruction.

Although a return from a BRK instruction is possible (it can be used as a breakpoint in a machine code program), BASIC does not expect such a return; executing an RTI after a BRK instruction has been executed by BASIC (or any other program using it as an error generating mechanism) will probably have fatal results.

The small program below illustrates how the BRK vector can be intercepted, to cause a bleep (CHR\$7) each time an error is generated. If you get fed up with this, pressing BREAK or typing '*BASIC' will re-set the BRK vector to point to the default BRK handler in BASIC, missing out this routine.

The code assembles into the user defined character area from &0C00 onwards. If any user defined characters are to be used while the routine is 'linked in' to the BRK vector, it could be assembled somewhere else, by changing line 900. Space could be allocated at PAGE for it by adding 256 to PAGE before the routine is loaded (or typed in), and assembling the code to the old location of PAGE, underneath the BASIC program.

```
 10 REM Routine to print a bleep on an error
 20 REM<br>400 brkv = 80202
                             :REM BRK vector location
  410 oldbrk = !brkv AND &FFFF :REM Get default BRK handler
  420
  500 oswrch = &FFEE :REM OSWRCH (to print bleep)
  505
 900 start% = &0C00 :REM User char area
  905
  910 FOR opt% = 0 TO 3 STEP 3
  915 P%=start%
  920 [OPT opt%
  925
 1000 .newbrk
1005 PHA \ Save A
 1007
1010 LDA #&7 \ Print a bleep
 1015 JSR oswrch
1017<br>1020 PLA<br>1025 JMPoldbrk
1020 PLA \setminus Retrieve A, and continue
 1025 JMP oldbrk \ with default BRK handler.
 9000 ]
 9010 NEXT
 9020 IF newbrk=oldbrk PRINT"Already set up":END
 9030 brkv?0 = newbrk MOD &100 :REM Set up BRK vector to
 9040 brkv?1 = newbrk DIV &100 :REM point to this routine.
 9050 END
```
When the program is assembled, the address of the default BRK handler is retrieved at line 410. This is where the new routine will JMP to when it has printed its bleep. This means that the error message will still be printed by the BASIC BRK handler, as though nothing had happened.

After the program has been assembled, its start address is poked into the BRK vector at lines 9030 and 9040 (the BRK vector is stored low byte first). Line 9020 checks to see if the program has already been set up. If it has, the new BRK handler would jump back to *itself* when it has finished. This means that if any error occurs, it will continue printing bleeps until BREAK is pressed – not very useful (try assembling it twice, and see what happens). This is something to look out for with most error trapping routines; if they fail to clear the error which called them, it will be generated again, and they will be called again in exactly the same situation.

The error trap routine saves A by pushing it on the stack, while it prints the bleep. This is not necessary if the BASIC error handler will be JMPed to immediately afterwards, as it does not use it; but it would be important if a different routine, which relies on A being correct on entry, had intercepted the BRK vector *before* this program was entered. If this other routine had been linked in to the BRK vector in a similar way, the 'JMP oldbrk' on the end of this routine will jump into that routine when it is finished, rather than the BASIC BRK handler.

It is usually a good idea to save any registers you are going to use, if control will be returned to another routine which may need them. If the 'No room' error is being trapped, for example [\(chapter 11](#page-315-0), BASIC2 only), all of the 6502 registers (A, X, Y) must be intact so that the source of the error can be determined.

7.2 The 'Mistake' error

If you type in a word that BASIC doesn't recognise, it generates a 'Mistake' error (error number 4). However, it leaves its statement pointer, PTRA, pointing one character after the start of the name (PTRA was advanced one byte by the action of reading in the first character). This means that the word which caused the error to be generated can be checked, and action taken if it corresponds to a new, 'home-made' statement.

The 'Mistake' error is actually generated when BASIC fails to find an '=' character, often due to a mistyped keyword (such as 'PRIT' instead of 'PRINT'). When this happens, the sequence of actions is as follows:

- **1** The statement interpreter reads the character at PTRA, advancing PTRA to point to the next character.
- **2** The character is not a keyword token. It is alphabetic, however, so it looks like the start of a variable name; and the statement interpreter jumps into the variable assignment handler.
- **3** The assignment handler scans what it thinks is a variable name, using PTRB. This means that PTRA still points one byte after the first character of the name. If the name is of a variable which doesn't already exist, it will create it; but only *after* it has checked that there is an '=' following it.
- **4** The assignment routine checks for an '=' after the variable name. If it doesn't find one (which it won't, if it was a mistyped keyword), it generates a 'Mistake' error. If it does find one, it continues with the assignment.

In fact there are 5 slightly different causes of a 'Mistake':

- (a) A non-existent variable name was found, without an $=$ following it. This error is generated before the variable is created, by a sort of 'pre-check' before the main assignment routine is entered.
- (b) An existing variable name was found, without an $=$ following it. This is not quite the same as (a), above, but the only difference is the return address left on the 6502 stack.
- (c) A 'LET' statement, followed by a valid variable, was found, but there was no $=$ following the name. If the variable did not exist before this statement, it would have been created before the error was generated (unlike (a) above).
- (d) A psuedo-variable name, like 'HIMEM', was found, but $no' =' followed$ it.
- (e) A 'FOR' statement was found, followed by a valid variable, but no $=$ followed the name.

All of these leave PTRA pointing 1 byte after the start of the statement, but (c), (d), and (e) leave the 6502 stack in different states. Fortunately, this only happens if the first character of the statement is a keyword token; so if new statements are to be introduced, they should not be allowed to start with one of the tokens mentioned above (so 'FORAGE' cannot be a new statement keyword).

Note that new keywords cannot begin with any other tokens either (like the 'TO' in 'TOTAL') as these will cause a 'Syntax error' rather than a 'Mistake'. However, some of the BASIC keywords are not tokenised if followed by an alphanumeric character ([see section 2.3.1\)](#page-38-0), so 'TIMER' could be used as a new statement (the 'TIME' part would not be tokenised).

For (a) and (b), the prevailing conditions on entry to the BRK handler are:

Other conditions are not so important ([see chapter 11, error](#page-272-0) [number 4\)](#page-272-0).

When a new statement has been recognised, the 3 bytes of RTI information (pushed by the BRK instruction) and the 2 bytes of return address (the $=$ ' was checked by a subroutine called by the assignment handler) must be pulled from the stack before execution is continued. If this is not done, any FNs or PROCs will not return properly, as they expect their return address to be on the top of the stack ([see section 5.3](#page-71-0)).

7.3 A single character statement

The routine in this section shows a simple example of adding a new statement, by just checking the first character of the statement; the one just before PTRA. If it is a 'B', it pulls the 5 bytes to be discarded from the stack, checks that the 'B' is the only thing (apart from spaces) in the statement, and produces a bleep. Finally, it JMPs to the BASIC entry point to continue executing the following statements.

Instead of being initialised when the program is assembled, this program links in to the BRK vector when the small routine at the start is CALLed (lines 1000 to 1115). Any programs which are initialised in this way don't need to be reassembled each time they are used.

Note that the EQUB and EQUS assembler directives are used in this program (lines 1025 to 1040), as they are much clearer than the equivalent in BASIC. However, the EQU directive is not implemented in BASIC 1, and should be replaced with its equivalent using indirection operators.

```
 10 REM *** Program to add single character command ***
 12 REM
 14 REM M D Plumbley 1984
 16 REM
 18 REM This program traps the BRK vector. On an error,
 20 REM if ERR (the error number) is 4 ("Mistake")
 22 REM and the unrecognised statement is the single
 24 REM character "B", then a bleep will be produced.
 26 REM
 28 REM If the error number is not 4, or the first char
 30 REM of the statement is not a "B", then control will
 32 REM be passed to the default error handler.
 34 REM
 36 REM When setting up, the program tests for BASIC 1
 38 REM or BASIC 2, and uses the corresponding ROM
 40 REM entry points.
 42 REM
 44 REM Before using on BASIC I, all EQU directives
 46 REM should be replaced with indirections:
 48 REM "EQUB X" => "]?P%=X:P%=P%+1:[OPTopt%"
 50 REM "EQUS A$" => "]$P%=A$:P%=P%+LEN$P%:[OPTopt%"
 52 REM
 54 REM The code is assembled into the user defined
 56 REM character space: alternatively, space could
 58 REM be reserved at PAGE for it.
```

```
 60 REM
   99
  100 PROCsetup :REM Set up correct ROM entry points
  490
  495 REM *** OS routines and vectors ***
 500 OSWRCH = &FFEE
  550 BRKV = &0202
  799
  900 start% = &0C00 :REM Assemble into user char space
  905
 910 FOR \text{ont}% = 0 TO 3 STFP 3
  920 P% = start%
  950 [OPT opt%
 1000 .init
 1005 LDA &8015 \Test that the correct
 1010 CMP #baschr \ version of BASIC is
1015 BEQ basok \ in the ROM.
 1016
 1020 BRK \If it isn't, print an
 1025 EQUB 60 \ error message.
 1030 EQUS "Not BASIC " \ (baschr set by PROCsetup)
 1035 EQUB baschr
 1040 EQUB 0
 1041
 1045 .basok
1050 LDA BRKV and the current BRK vector
1055 LDX BRKV+1 \ into A and X.
 1056
 1060 CMP #newbrk MOD &100 \If this routine is already
1065 BNE ntsavd \qquad \qquad \ set up, don't change BRKV.
 1070 CPX #newbrk DIV &100
 1075 BEQ saved
 1076
 1078 .ntsavd
 1080 STA svbrkv \It has not been set up
 1085 STX svbrkv+1 \ already, so save old
 1090 LDA #newbrk MOD &100 \ BRKV, and set up the new
 1095 STA BRKV \ one.
 1100 LDA #newbrk DIV &100
 1105 STA BRKV+1
 1106
 1110 .saved
 1115 RTS
 1190
 1192 \ *** This is the new BRK handling routine ***
 1200 .newbrk
       PHA \Save A and Y on 6502 stack
 1210 TYA
 1215 PHA
 1216
1220 LDY #0 \Get error number
 1225 LDA (&FD),Y
```
1226
1280 1280 CMP #4 \If "Mistake", check for a "B"
1285 BFQ mistak BEQ mistak 1286 1400 .giveup 1410 PLA \Restore A and Y from 6502 stack
1420 TAY 1420 TAY
1430 PLA 1430 1431 JMP (svbrkv) \Go to old BRK handler 1441 1490 \ *** If we get here, an error 4 ("Mistake") has *** 1492 \ *** ocurred, so see if the charcter is a "B". *** 1500 .mistak 1510 LDY &A \Get character at start of statement 1520 DEY
1530 LDA 1530 LDA (&B),Y 1531
1540 1540 CMP #ASC"B" \If it is not a "B", go to the old BNE giveup \ BRK handler 1551
1560 1560 PLA \Discard saved A and Y from stack 1570 1571 1580 PLA \Discard RTI information from the
1590 PLA \6502 stack. This is automatical PLA \setminus 6502 stack. This is automatically 1600 PLA \ pushed by the BRK instruction. 1601 PLA \Discard return addr (of routine 1620 PLA \ to check for "=") from stack 1621
1630 1630 JSR chksda \Check for end of statement 1631 1640 LDA #7 \Print a beep 1650 JSR OSWRCH \ (action at last!) 1651 1660 JMP cont \Continue execution 1661 6899 6990 \ *** Routine variables area *** 6991 7000 .svbrkv EQUW !BRKV \Space to save old BRK vector 7010 8000] 8010 NEXT 8015 @%=0 8020 PRINT'"Code length =&"~P%-start% 8190 8200 PRINT'''''"** WARNING: Once assembled, the code" 8210 PRINT"generated by this program is not" 8220 PRINT"transferable between different BASICS" 8230 PRINT

```
 8300 PRINT"Execute ""CALL &"~init""" to initialise."'
 8310 END
 8990
 8992 REM *** Set up ROM entry points, allowing for ***
 8993 REM *** BASIC 1 and BASIC 2. ***
 9000 DEFPROCsetup
 9010 basic1$ = "BASIC"+CHR$0+"(C)1981 Acorn"+CHR$&A
 9020 basic2$ = "BASIC"+CHR$0+"(C)1982 Acorn"+CHR$&A
 9030 IF $&8009=basic1$ THEN PROCset1 :ENDPROC
 9040 IF $&8009=basic2$ THEN PROCset2 :ENDPROC
 9050 PRINT "NOT BASIC I OR II"
 9060 END
 9290
9292 REM *** Set up BASIC 1 entry points ***
 9300 DEFPROCset1
 9310 baschr = ASC"1":REM Used by init routine
 9320 chksda = &9810 :REM Check for statement delimiter
9330 cont = &8BOC :REM Cont execution at next statement
 9490
9492 REM *** Set up BASIC 2 entry points ***
 9500 DEFPROCset2
 9505 baschr = ASC"2":REM Used by init routine
 9530 chksda = &9857 :REM Check for statement delimiter
 9540 cont = &8B9B :REM Cont execution at next statement
 9550 ENDPROC
```
The general operation of the program is as follows:

PROCsetup is called to set up the correct ROM entry points required by the routine ('Check for statement delimiter' and 'Continue execution' in this case). This uses the copyright string to check for the version type, and calls PROCsetl or PROCset2 depending on the year (1981 or 1982). Alternatively, the paged ROM version number, held in location &8008, could be used. This is &00 for BASIC1, and &01 for BASIC2.

When the assembled code is initialised by CALLing the start, the initialisation routine first checks that the year of the ROM is the same as the one it was assembled for; if it isn't, it won't link itself in (as the ROM entry points will be wrong). Note that this check will *only* work if the BASIC ROM is paged in when the initialisation routine checks the year; and not if the DFS, say, is paged in (if the routine has just been '*RUN'). [See chapter 10](#page-163-0) for more on this.

If the ROM is correct, the initialisation routine saves the contents of the BRK vector at 'svbrkv', and sets the BRK vector to point to the new BRK handling routine.
When an error is generated, and 'newbrk' is entered, it checks that the error number pointed to by $\&$ FD, $&$ FE is 4, if it isn't, the error was not a 'Mistake', and a JMP is made to the default BRK handler to deal with it.

If the error is a 'Mistake', the character before PTRA is tested to see if it is a 'B' (the base of PTRA is stored in &B,&C with the offset in &A). If it isn't the old BRK handler is JMPed to to print the 'Mistake' message.

If it is a 'B', then the 5 bytes on the 6502 stack are pulled from it (together with the 2 saved registers from the BRK handler). Then the ROM routine is called which checks for the end of the statement at PTRA (which still points just after the 'B'). This will produce a 'Syntax error' (error number 16) if it doesn't find a ':', an ELSE token, or the end of the line.

Finally, a bleep is printed, and a JMP is made to the ROM routine which continues with the execution of the program. Note that this routine expects the 'Check for statement delimiter' routine to be called before it, so that PTRA is set up to actually point 1 byte after the statement terminator. These ROM routines are detailed in [chapter 10](#page-163-0).

7.4 Recognising keywords

Just using single character statements is not very versatile: most of the time it would be much more useful to give the new statements keywords which reflect the action that they perform, like 'DUMP' to dump the variables, or 'REN' to renumber a program. The program in this section shows how to implement a command line interpreter to recognise keywords from a table.

The keywords implemented in the program are 'BEEP', which beeps (again), and 'DUMP', which lists the current active dynamic variables [\(see section 3.1.2](#page-50-0)). Neither of them take any arguments.

Note that the EQU assembler directive has been used again (lines 1025 to 1040 as before, and lines 2500 to 2580 in the keyword table).

 10 REM *** Program to add new BASIC commands *** 12 REM 14 REM M D Plumbley 1984 16 REM 18 REM This program traps the BRK vector. On an error, 20 REM if ERR (the error number) is 4 ("Mistake") 22 REM then a command line interpreter will test the 24 REM statement for a keyword to recognise. If it is 26 REM recognised, the keyword's action is performed. 28 REM Otherwise, control is passed on to the default 30 REM BRK handler. 32 REM 34 REM The code is assembled into the user key/char 36 REM space: alternatively, space could be reserved 38 REM at PAGE for it. 40 REM 42 REM Before using with BASIC 1, the EQUs should be 44 REM replaced with their equivalent: 46 REM "EQUB X" => "]?P%=X:P%=P%+1:[OPTopt%" 48 REM "EQUW X" => "]!P%=X:P%=P%+2:[OPTopt%" 50 REM "EQUS A\$" => "]\$P%=A\$:P%=P%+LEN\$P%:[OPTopt%" 52 REM 99 100 PROCsetup :REM Set up correct ROM entry points 490 495 REM *** OS routines and vectors *** 500 OSWRCH = R FFFF 550 BRKV = &0202 590 600 svbrkv = &0070 :REM Space to save old BRK vector 690 900 start% = &0B00 :REM User key/char area 905 910 FOR opt% = 0 TO 3 STEP 3 920 $P'' = start$ 950 [OPT opt% 1000 .init 1005 LDA &8015 \Test that the correct 1010 CMP #baschr \ version of BASIC is 1015 BEQ basok \ in the ROM. 1016
1020 BRK
1025 EQUB**6**0 \If it isn't, print an 1025 EQUB 60 \ error message.
1030 FQUS "Not BASIC " \ (baschr set by EQUS "Not BASIC " \ (baschr set by PROCsetup) 1035 EQUB baschr 1040 EQUB 0 1041 1045 .basok 1050 LDA BRKV \Load the current BRK vector 1055 \blacksquare LDX BRKV+1 \blacksquare \ into A and X. 1056 1060 CMP #newbrk MOD &100 \If this routine is already

1065 BNE ntsavd \ set up, don't change BRKV.
1070 CPX #newbrk DIV &100 1070 CPX #newbrk DIV &100
1075 BFQ saved BFQ saved 1076 1078 .ntsavd 1080 STA svbrkv \It has not been set up 1085 STX svbrkv+1 \ already, so save old 1090 LDA #newbrk MOD &100 \ BRKV, and set up the new 1095 STA BRKV \ one. LDA #newbrk DIV &100 STA BRKV+1 1106 1110 .saved 1115 RTS 1190 1192 \ *** This is the new BRK handling routine *** 1200 .newbrk 1205 PHA \Save A and Y on 6502 stack
1210 TYA 1210 1215 PHA 1216 1220 LDY #0 \Get error number 1225 LDA (&FD),Y 1226
1280
1285 CMP #4 Υ \If "Mistake", try new keywords BFQ mistak 1286 1400 .giveup 1 \Restore A and Y from 6502 stack 1420 TAY 1430 PLA 1431 1440 JMP (svbrkv) \Go to old BRK handler 1441 1490 \ *** If we get here, an error 4 ("Mistake") has *** 1492 \ *** ocurred, so attempt to recognise one of the *** 1494 \ $***$ command keywords in the table. $***$ 1500 .mistak 1510 LDA #keytab MOD &100 \Get start of keyword table 1520 STA &39 \ into (&39)
1530 | IDA #keytab DIV &100 LDA #keytab DIV &100 1540 STA &3A 1541
1550 LDY &A \Set (&37) to point to character 1560 DEY \ before PTRA. It will then point 1570 TYA \setminus to the first non-space character
1580 CLC \setminus of the statement. $CIC \t\t \qquad \qquad \setminus \text{ of the statement.}$ 1590 ADC &B 1600 STA & 37
1610 IDA & C LDA &C 1620 ADC #0 1630 STA &38

1631
1640 JSR nxtwrd \Call the command line interpreter 1641 1650 BCS giveup \Exit if no match 1651 1660 DEY \Adjust the offset of PTRA so that
1665 TYA \it points to the first charcter 1665 TYA \ it points to the first charcter
1670 CLC \ after the keyword just recognise \ after the keyword just recognised. 1675 ADC &A STA &A 1681 1685 PLA \Discard saved A and Y from stack
1690 PLA 1690 1691 1695 PLA \Discard RTI information from the
1700 PLA \ 6502 stack. This is automatical 1700 PLA \setminus 6502 stack. This is automatically 1705 PLA \setminus pushed by the BRK instruction. If λ pushed by the BRK instruction. 1706 1710 PLA \Discard return addr (of routine
1715 PLA \to check for "=") from stack PLA \setminus to check for "=") from stack 1716
1720 JMP (&0037) \Execute the command 1721 1900 \ *** Command Line Interpreter *** 1902 \ *** On entry, (&37) should point to the first *** 1904 \ *** char of the word in the program to be $***$ 1906 \ *** recognised. (&39) should point to the *** 1908 \ *** start of the keyword table. *** 1910 \ $***$ On exit; $***$ 1912 \ $***$ if C is set, a match was not made $***$ 1914 \ *** if C is clear, the action addr is in $***$ 1916 \ *** &37,38, so that JMP (&37) will call it. *** 1917 \ *** Y contains the length of the word. $***$ $1918 \t\t\t\t\t***$ *** *** *** *** 1920 \ *** No abbreviations are allowed. *** 1922 2135 .nxtwrd
2140 1DY LDY #0 \Beginning of words 2141 2150 LDA (839 , Y \If no word, this is the end of the
2160 BFQ nomtch \table, so no match was made. BEQ nomtch \setminus table, so no match was made. 2161 2170 CMP (837), Y \If the chars do not match,
2180 BNF difrnt \ try the next keyword. BNE difrnt $\qquad \qquad$ \ try the next keyword. 2181 2190 .nextch 2200 INY \Get the next character: 2210 LDA (839), Y \ if it is the end of the keyword, 2220 BEQ getadr \ then get its addr, and jump there. 2221 2230 CMP (&37),Y \If the chars match, 2240 BEQ nextch \ try the next one.

 2241 2250 .difrnt INY \This keyword is not the right one, 2270 LDA ($&39$), Y \ so look for the end of it.
2280 BNE difrnt BNE difrnt 2281
2290 2290 INY \setminus Set the base pointer at ($\&39$) to \geq 200 INY \setminus the start of the next keyword is \ the start of the next keyword in 2310 TYA \setminus the table (i.e. 3 bytes past the 2320 SEC \setminus end of this keyword, to allow 2320 SEC \setminus end of this keyword, to allow
2330 ADC 839 \setminus for the address). \setminus for the address). 2340 STA & 39
2350 IDA & 3A 2350 LDA &3A 2360 ADC #0 2370 STA &3A 2371
2380 JMP nxtwrd Γ Γ and Γ is next keyword in the table 2381 2400 .getadr INY \The correct keyword has been 2415 LDA (839 , Y \ matched, so put its execution
2420 STA 837 \ addr in (837). $\begin{array}{ccc} \text{STA} & \text{837} \\ \text{INY} \end{array}$ \ addr in (&37). 2425 2430 LDA (&39), Y
2435 STA &38 STA &38 2436 2440 DEY \Adjust Y so it contains the length 2445 DEY \setminus of the recognised word. 2446 2450 CLC \Flag "Match OK", and exit
2455 RTS 2455 2456 2460 .nomtch 2465 SEC \Flag "No match", and exit
2470 RTS 2470 2490 2494 \ *** Keyword table. The format of this table *** 2496 \ *** is; Keyword, zero byte, action addr *** 2498 \ *** A 0 keyword entry marks end of table. *** 2499 2500 .keytab 2505 EQUS "BEEP" \Keyword,
2510 EQUB 0 \ zero by 2510 EQUB 0 \ zero byte,
2515 FQUW beep \ action add λ action addr 2516 2520 EQUS "DUMP" 2525 EQUB 0 2530 EQUW dump 2531
2580 FQUB 0 **LEnd of keyword table** 2990 2992 \ *** BEEP - This command makes a beep by ***

 2994 \ *** printing a BEL character (CHR\$7) *** 3000 .beep
3010 .J JSR chksda \Ensure end of statement 3011
3020 3020 LDA #7 \Print a beep 3030 JSR OSWRCH 3031 3035 .alldne 3040 JMP cont \Continue execution 3090 3092 \ *** DUMP - This command lists the names of *** 3094 \ *** all of the current active variables. *** 3100 .dump
3105 ... 3105 JSR chksda \Ensure end of statement 3106
3110 3110 LDA #ASC"A"-1 \Set first initial letter for \ variable (allow for first INC) 3121 3125 .newltr **Si** Vuse the next initial letter 3131
3140 3140 LDA &39 \If all the letters have been
3150 CMP #ASC"z"+1 \ used up, go to next statement CMP #ASC"z"+1 \ used up, go to next statement 3160 BCS alldne 3161
3170 ASL A \Point (&3A) at the right place 3180 STA $83A$ \ in the variable link table
3190 LDA #4 \ in the top half of page 4 3190 LDA #4 λ in the top half of page 4
3200 STA & 3B **STA &3B** 3201 3205 .newptr
3210 1DY LDY #1 \qquad \Get the MSB of the pointer to the 3220 LDA (&3A),Y \ next variable in the linked list. 3221
3230 BEQ newltr \setminus If it is 0, we have found the end, 3231 \ so try another initial letter. 3232
3240 TAX \Using X as a temp for the MSB, 3245 DEY \ get the LSB of the pointer to the 3250 LDA ($83A$), Y \ next variable in the list, and 3255 STA $83A$ \ set ($83A$) to point to this \setminus set (&3A) to point to this 3260 STX &3B \setminus variable. 3261
3262 3262 LDA &39 \Print initial letter of variable 3264 JSR pchar \ name (not stored in the list) 3265 3266 LDY #2 \Point at 1st stored char 3267 3268 .nxtchr 3270 LDA (&3A),Y \Get the char in the name. If it 3275 BEQ namend \ is the end of the name, exit. 3280 JSR pchar \ Otherwise, print the char, and

 3285 INY \setminus go to the next one. 3290 BNE nxtchr \ (Y never 0 here, so branch always) 3291 3295 .namend 3300 JSR pnewl \Print a new line after the end of 3305 JMP newptr \ the name, and try the next link. 8000] 8010 NEXT 8015 @%=0 8020 PRINT'"Code length =&"~P%-start% 8190 8200 PRINT'''''"** WARNING: Once assembled, the code" 8210 PRINT"generated by this program is not" 8220 PRINT"transferable between different BASICs" 8230 PRINT 8300 PRINT"Execute ""CALL &"~init""" to initialise."' 8310 END 8990 8992 REM *** Set up ROM entry points, allowing for *** 8993 REM *** BASIC 1 and BASIC 2. *** 9000 DEFPROCsetup 9010 basic1\$ = "BASIC"+CHR\$0+"(C)1981 Acorn"+CHR\$&A 9020 basic2\$ = "BASIC"+CHR\$0+"(C)1982 Acorn"+CHR\$&A 9030 IF \$&8009=basic1\$ THEN PROCset1 :ENDPROC 9040 IF \$&8009=basic2\$ THEN PROCset2 :ENDPROC 9050 PRINT "NOT BASIC 1 OR 2" 9060 END 9290 9292 REM *** Set up BASIC 1 entry points *** 9300 DEFPROCset1 9310 baschr = ASC"1":REM Used by init routine 9320 pchar = &B571 :REM Print char in A: handle COUNT 9330 pnewl = &BC42 :REM Print a CRLF, and zero COUNT 9340 chksda = &9810 :REM Check for statement delimiter 9350 cont = &8B0C :REM Cont execution at next statement 9360 ENDPROC 9490 9492 REM *** Set up BASIC 2 entry points *** 9500 DEFPROCset2 9505 baschr = ASC"2":REM Used by init routine 9520 pchar = &B558 :REM Print char in A: handle COUNT 9525 pnewl = &BC25 :REM Print a CRLF, and zero COUNT 9530 chksda = &9857 :REM Check for statement delimiter 9540 cont = &8B9B :REM Cont execution at next statenemt 9550 ENDPROC

Note that the initialisation and setup routines are substantially the same as for the program in [section 7.3](#page-104-0) (although there are a few extra ROM routines). The program is longer than the last one, so it destroys the user defined function key area (this means that funny things might happen if you press BREAK, as it is function key 10). The command line interpreter in this program (lines 1500 on) replaces the simple check for a 'B' in the last one.

The keyword recogniser (lines 1900 to 2470) is a subroutine all by itself. It uses a keyword table (lines 2500 to 2580) with each entry in the following format:

> keyword characters a zero byte to terminate the keyword the action address of the keyword (2 bytes)

The end of the table is marked by the first character of the keyword being a zero byte.

The keyword recogniser is entered with the address of the table in &38,&39 and the address of the keyword to be recognised in $&37,&38$. If the keyword is recognised, the action address is put into &37,&38, the length of the recognised word is left in Y, and the carry flag cleared. If the keyword is not recognised, the carry flag is set.

Sending the address of the table in this manner allows more than one routine to use the same recogniser, with different tables. This means that it could also be used if new functions are being added as well.

The general operation of the keyword recogniser is as follows:

- **1** If the first byte of the name is a zero, the end of the table has been reached without a match, so exit with the carry flag set.
- **2** Compare the keyword in the table against the word in the program. If they both match until the zero at the end of the word in the table is found, get the action address of the keyword.
- **3** If any characters did not match, move the table pointer up to point to the next entry, and go back to stage $\hat{1}$ to try to match the next one.

When the keyword recogniser has returned, PTRA is updated to point to the first character after the keyword (lines 1660 to 1680). This allows the routine for the keyword to continue from there, to get anything it needs from the text (or to just check for the end of the statement).

The variable dump routine works in a similar way to the BASIC one in [section 3.1.2](#page-50-0), but it doesn't print out their values.

7.5 A renumber utility

The RENUMBER command in BASIC is very limited; it only allows you to renumber the whole of your program. This is OK for small programs, but larger programs usually consist of a number of PROC and FN definitions, and it is very easy to loose track of these if they don't start on, say, 1000 boundaries. Using BASIC's blanket renumber on programs such as these will lose this structure completely.

This section describes how to add a new command to allow selected areas of the program to be renumbered. It is less than 512 bytes long, and so will fit in any 2 spare pages in memory (the user defined character and function key pages, perhaps).

Once the program has been assembled, and initialised by CALLing the start address, the new statement 'REN' has been added.

REN L, U; S, I

will renumber the lines in the program between L and U (inclusive) starting at S with an increment of I. All line numbers outside this range will be left unaltered. The GOTO and GOSUB line number references will be dealt with, in the same way as the BASIC RENUMBER command (in fact, the program JMPs into the RENUMBER code to do this!).

For example, if the following program was in memory:

 10 REM PROGRAM 100 A=0 101 B=0 110 PROCthing 1000 DEFPROCthing 1010 ENDPROC

typing 'REN 100,110;500,20' would leave the program as:

```
 10 REM PROGRAM
  500 A=0
520 B=0 540 PROCthing
 1000 DEFPROCthing
 1010 ENDPROC
```
The following errors will be produced if the REN statement is misused:

REN syntax

This error is generated if the REN statement fails to find a comma or a semicolon separating its arguments where expected.

REN space

This error is generated if there is not enough room for the pile of old line numbers the REN statement needs to put on the TOP of the program. This is similar to the 'RENUMBER space' error (a fatal error).

REN range

An attempt was made to renumber the program such that the new lines would be out of sequence. In the above example, if 'REN 1000,1010;1,2' was typed this error would be generated.

REN type

A string was used as the argument to the REN statement (floating point numbers will be converted to integer if necessary).

EQU has not been used in this program, so it will work without modification with either BASIC 1 or BASIC 2 (although it looks a bit messy).

```
 10 REM *** Selective renumber utility ***
 12 REM
 14 REM M D Plumbley 1984
 16 REM
 18 REM This program traps the BRK vector. If the error
 20 REM number is 4 ("Mistake") then the command line
 22 REM interpreter will test for the new command "REN",
```
 24 REM and execute it if it is. 26 REM 28 REM REN L, U; S, I will renumber lines L to U of a 30 REM program, starting at S, with an increment of I. 32 REM 34 REM The code is assembled into the user key/char 36 REM space. This can be changed by changing line 900 38 REM 40 REM The EQU directive is not used in this program, and 42 REM it will work without modification on either 44 REM BASIC1 or BASIC2 machines. 46 REM 99 100 PROCsetup :REM Set up correct ROM entry points 490 495 REM *** OS routines and vectors *** 550 BRKV = 80202 590 600 worksp = &0070 :REM Workspace area 605 svbrkv = worksp :REM BRK vector save slot 610 lower = worksp+&2 :REM Lower renumber limit 615 upper = worksp+&4 :REM Upper renumber limit 620 start = worksp+&6 :REM Start line number 625 number = worksp+&8 :REM Next renumber number 630 line = worksp+&A :REM Pointer to line in prog. 635 pile = worksp+&C :REM Ptr. to line no. pile 640 newnum = worksp+&E :REM Line no. to be used 690 695 REM *** BASIC system variables *** 700 himem = &0006 705 top = &0012 $710 \text{ page} = \text{\&}0018$ 715 count = $&001E$ 720 inta = &002A :REM Integer accumulator 725 750 renum = 0 :REM To stop "No such var." 799 900 start% = &0B00 :REM User key/char 905 910 FOR opt% = 0 TO 3 STEP 3 920 P% = start% 950 [OPT opt% 1000 .init 1005 \Test that the correct 1010 CMP #baschr \ version of BASIC is 1015 BEQ basok \ in the ROM. 1020 1025 BRK \If it isn't, print an 1030]?P%=60:P%=P%+1 :REM error message 1035 \$P%="Not BASIC ":P%=P%+LEN\$P% 1040 ?P%=baschr:P%=P%+1 1045 ?P%=0:P%=P%+1:[OPTopt%

 1050 1055 .basok LDA BRKV \Load the current BRK vector
iDX BRKV+1 \ into A and X . 1065 \blacksquare LDX BRKV+1 \blacksquare \ into A and X. 1070 1075 CMP #newbrk MOD &100 \If this routine is already
1080 BNF ptsavd bet up, don't change BRKV 1080 BNE ntsavd \ set up, don't change BRKV.
1085 CPX #newbrk DIV 8100 CPX #newbrk DIV $&100$ 1090 BEQ saved 1095 1100 .ntsavd 1105 STA svbrkv (It has not been set up
1110 STX svbrkv+1 (already, so save old 1110 STX svbrkv+1 \ already, so save old
1115 LDA #newbrk MOD &100 \ BRKV and set un the LDA #newbrk MOD $&100 \setminus BRKV$, and set up the new 1120 STA BRKV \ \ one.
1125 LDA #newbrk DIV & 100 1125 LDA #newbrk DIV & 100 STA BRKV+1 1135 1140 .saved
1145 RTS RTS 1190 1192 \ *** This is the new BRK handling routine *** 1200 .newbrk 1205 PHA \Save A and Y on 6502 stack
1210 TYA 1210 TYA
1215 PHA 1215 1220 1225 $LDY #0$ \Get error number
1230 $LDA (RFD).Y$ 1230 LDA (&FD),Y 1235 1240 CMP #4 \If "Mistake", try new keywords
1245 BFQ mistak **BFQ** mistak 1250 1400 .giveup PLA \Restore A and Y from 6502 stack 1410 TAY 1415 PLA 1420 1425 JMP (svbrkv) \Go to old BRK handler 1430 1490 \ *** If we get here, an error 4 ("Mistake") has *** 1492 \ *** ocurred, so attempt to recognise one of the *** 1494 \ $***$ command keywords in the table. $***$ 1500 .mistak 1505 LDA #keytab MOD &100 \Get start of keyword table 1510 STA &39 \ into (&39) 1515 LDA #keytab DIV &100 1520 STA &3A 1525
1530 LDY &A \Set (&37) to point to character 1535 DEY \ before PTRA. It will then point 1540 TYA \ to the first non-space character

 2100 BNE difrnt 2105
2110 INY (Set the base pointer at (&39) to
INY (the start of the next keyword in 2115 INY λ the start of the next keyword in
2120 TYA λ the table (i.e. 3 bytes past the $\begin{array}{lll} \text{IYA} & \text{I the table (i.e. 3 bytes past the} \\ \text{SEC} & \text{I end of this keyword, to allow} \end{array}$ 2125 SEC \setminus end of this keyword, to allow
2130 ADC 839 \setminus for the address). 2130 \overline{a} ADC \overline{a} 39 \overline{a} \ for the address). ADC &39
STA &39 2140 LDA &3A
2145 ADC #0 800 #0
814 834 2150 2155
2160 JMP nxtwrd Γ Γ and Γ is next keyword in the table 2165 2170 .getadr 2175 INY \The correct keyword has been
2180 IDA (839).Y \matched, so put its executive LDA (&39),Y \ matched, so put its execution
STA &37 \ addr in (&37). 2185 STA &37 \ addr in (&37).
2190 TNY 2190 2195 LDA (&39),Y 2200 STA &38 2205
2210 DEY \Adjust Y so it contains the length 2215 DEY \ of the recognised word. 2220 2225 CLC \Flag "Match OK", and exit 2230 RTS 2235 2240 .nomtch 2245 SEC \Flag "No match", and exit
2250 RTS 2250 2490 2494 \ *** Keyword table. The format of this table *** 2496 \ *** is; Keyword, zero byte, action addr *** 2498 \ *** A 0 keyword entry marks end of table. *** 2499 2500] 2505 keytab = P % 2510 \$P% = "REN" :P%=P%+LEN\$P% 2515 ?P% = 0 :P%=P%+1 2520 !P% = renum :P%=P%+2 2525 ?P% = 0 :P%=P%+1 :REM end of table 2600 [OPT opt% 2790 2792 \ *** This prints a REN syntax error *** 2800 .nocom 2805 .noscol $\qquad \qquad \qquad$ \ If "," missing, or ";" \ missing, generate a 2810 BRK \ "REN syntax" error 2815] 2820 ?P%=&60:P%=P%+1 2825 \$P%="REN syntax":P%=P%+LEN\$P% 2830 ?P%=0:P%=P%+1

 2835 [OPT opt% 2990 2992 \ $***$ REN - This command renumbers a selected $***$ 2994 \ $***$ part of a program $***$ 3000 .renum
3005 JSR gtinta 3005 JSR gtinta \sim \ Get the lower limit line
3010 LDA inta \ number from the text at 3010 LDA inta \longrightarrow number from the text at 3015 STA lower \longrightarrow PTRA, and save it in \ PTRA, and save it in 3020 LDA inta+1 \vee "lower". PTRB points to 3025 STA lower+1 \vee the next item. λ the next item. 3030 3035 JSR getchb \ Check for a comma at PTRB, 3040 CMP $\#$ ASC"," \ and error if it isn't. 3045 BNE nocom 3050
3055 3055 JSR gtintb \setminus Get the upper limit line
3060 IDA inta \ number from the text at 3065 STA upper \ PTRB, and save it in
3065 STA upper \ 'upper". 3070 LDA inta+1 \ "upper". 3075 STA upper+1 3080
3085 3085 JSR getchb \ Check for a semicolon at 3090 CMP #ASC";" \ PTRB, and error if it 3095 BNE noscol \ isn't. 3100
3105 JSR gtintb $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} S_i$ and $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} S_i$ and $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} S_i$ the renumbered section. 3110 LDA inta $\begin{array}{ccc} \sim & \text{the renumbered section,} \\ \sim & \text{3115} \\ \text{3115} & \text{5TA start} \\ \text{3116} & \text{5TA start} \\ \text{31T17} & \text{5TA start} \\ \text{31T18} & \text{5TA start} \\ \text{6TA19} & \text{6TA19} \\ \text{7TA10} & \text{7TA10} \\ \text{8TA110} & \text{8TA111} \\ \text{9TA111} & \text{9TA121} \\ \text{10TA12} & \text{11TA13} \\ \text{11TA13$ 3115 STA start \ and save it in "start".
3120 IDA inta+1 3120 LDA inta+1 3125 STA start+1 3130 3135 JSR getchb \setminus Check for a comma, and 3140 CMP #ASC", \setminus error if it isn't. 3140 CMP $\hat{\texttt{H}}$ ASC"," \ error if it isn't. 3145 BNE nocom 3150 3155 JSR gtintb \ Get the increment, leaving 3157 \ leaving it in IntA. 3160 3165 JSR chksdb \ Check for end of statement 3170
3200 JSR settop \setminus Set TOP to the top of the 3202 \ program, and set up the \ initial ptrs and numbers 3210 3490 \ ** Go through all the lines, piling up the *** 3492 \ ** numbers, and checking for range. *** 3500 .chklns 3505 LDY #0 \ If we're at the end of the 3510 LDA (line),Y \ program, go on to renumber 3515 BMI renlns \ the lines 3520 3525 STA (pile),Y \ Otherwise, add the line

 3530 INY \ number to the pile on the 3535 LDA (line),Y \ TOP of the program. 3540 STA (pile),Y 3545
3550 3550 CLC $\qquad \qquad \setminus$ Add 2 to the pile pointer, 3555 LDA #2 \ to cover the new line just 3560 ADC pile \ added to it. Save the LSB 3565 STA pile \setminus of the pile pointer in X, 3570 TAX \ as it will be needed to 3575 LDA pile+1 \ check against HIMEM. 3580 ADC #0 3585 STA pile+1 3590 3595 CPX himem \ If the pile pointer is now 3600 SBC himem+1 \ above HIMEM, give a 3605 BCS noroom \ "REN space" error. 3610 3615 JSR rngchk \ Check the line range, and 3620 JSR nextln \ move the pointer to the 3621 \ next one, and go back to
3625 JMP chklns \ do another. 3625 JMP chklns 3630 3635 .noroom \ Generate a "REN space" 3640 BRK \ error. 3645]?P%=&61:P%=P%+1 3650 \$P%="REN space":P%=P%+LEN\$P% 3655 ?P%=0:P%=P%+1 3660 [OPT opt% 3990 3992 \ ** Once the line range has been checked, and the ** 3994 \ ** pile set up, come here to renumber the lines ** 3996
4000 .renlns \ Re-set the line pointer and 4005 JSR setup \ numbers. 4010 4015 .rnline \ If we're at the end of the 4020 LDY #0 \ program, go on to resolve 4025 LDA (line),Y \ the GOTO line references. 4030 BMI rsolve 4035
4040 JSR rnachk \ Set up "newnum" to be the 4045 $\qquad \qquad \qquad$ \ new line number to be 4050 LDA newnum+1 \ used, and set the line 4050 LDA newnum+1 \ used, and set the line
4055 STA (line). Y \ number of the current \setminus number of the current line
 \setminus to it. 4060 INY \ to it. 4065 LDA newnum 4070 STA (line),Y 4075 4080 JSR nextln \angle Move the line pointer to 4085 \ point to the next line, 4090 JMP rnline λ and jump back to renumber 4095 \ the next one.

4100
4500 .rsolve 4500 .rsolve \ Jump into RENUMBER to fix 4505 JMP rsvgot \setminus the GOTO references. 4510 5989 5990 \ ** Set up current number to first, 5992 \ line pointer to PAGE+1, 5994 \ pile pointer to TOP 6000 .setup 6005 LDA start \ Set the next number in the 6010 STA number \ renumbered section to the 6015 LDA start+1 \ start number in the 6020 STA number+1 \ renumbered section. 6025 6030 LDA #1 \ Set the line pointer to 6035 STA line \ point to the first line 6040 LDA page \ at PAGE+1 6045 STA line+1 6050 6055 LDA top \ Set the pile pointer to 6060 STA pile \ the TOP of the program 6065 LDA top+1 6070 STA pile+1 6075 6080 LDA #0 \ Set the last number used to 6085 STA newnum \ zero 6090 STA newnum+1 6092 6095 RTS \ Exit 6189 6190 \ $**$ Set "line" to point to next line $**$ 6200 .nextln 6205 LDY #2 \ Get the length byte of the 6210 LDA (line),Y \ current line. 6212 6215 CLC \ Add the length of the line 6220 ADC line \setminus to the line pointer. 6225 STA line 6230 BCC lineok 6235 INC line+1 6240 .lineok 6245 RTS \ Exit 6489 6490 \ $**$ Check range and set up newnum $**$ 6500 .rngchk 6505 LDY #1 \ Get the current line number 6510 LDA (line),Y \ into X (LSB) and A (MSB) 6515 TAX 6520 DEY 6525 LDA (line),Y 6530 \ If the current line is not

 6540 SBC lower+1 \ under the lower limit, go 6545 BCS notund \ to "notund" 6550 6555 LDA (line),Y $\qquad \qquad$ \ If it is, check that the 6560 CPX start \ start line for the REN 6565 SBC start+1 \ section is above this 6570 BCC thisln \ line. Otherwise, ... 6575 6580 .rngerr \ Generate a "REN range" 6585 BRK \ error 6590]?P%=&62:P%=P%+1 6595 \$P%="REN range":P%=P%+LEN\$P% 6600 ?P%=0:P%=P%+1 6605 [OPT opt% 6610 6615 .notund \ Check to see if the current 6620 LDA (line),Y \ line number, which is 6625 CMP upper+1 \ not under the lower limit, 6630 BCC notovr \ is also not over the upper 6635 BNE over \ limit. If it is inside 6640 CPX upper \ both these limits, go to 6645 BCC notovr \ "notovr" to generate a new 6650 BEQ notovr \ line number. 6655
6660 .over 6660 .over \ If the current line number 6665 CMP newnum+1 \qquad is over the upper limit, 6670 BCC rngerr \ check that the last line 6675 BNE thisln \ used was not above this 6680 CPX newnum \ one. If it was, the last 6685 BCC rngerr \ renumbered line number was 6690 BEQ rngerr \ too big, so error. 6695 6700 .thisln \ If the current line number 6705 LDA (line),Y \ is outside the REN limits, 6710 STA newnum+1 \ use the current line 6715 STX newnum \ number as the new one, and 6720 RTS \ exit. 6725 6730 .notovr \ If the current line number 6735 CLC \setminus is inside the REN limits, 6740 LDA number \ use "number" as the new 6745 STA newnum \ line number, and add the 6750 ADC inta \ increment to "number". 6740 LDA number
6745 STA newnum
6750 ADC inta
6755 STA number 6760 6765 LDA number+1 \ The AND is to make sure 6767 AND #&7F \ that the line number never 6770 STA newnum+1 \ exceeds 32768. If it does, 6775 ADC inta+1 \ it will be lost off the 6780 STA number+1 \ end of the program. 6782 6785 RTS \ Exit

 6790 6990 \ ** Get an integer from the text at PTRA ** 7000 .gtinta
7005 JSR getnsa 7005 JSR getnsa \ Get a <numeric> or <string> 7010 JMP typchk λ at PTRA, and check type. 7015 7017 \ ** Get an integer from the text at PTRB **
7020 .gtintb \ \ Get a <numeric> o \ Get a <numeric> or <string> 7025 JSR getnsb \ at PTRB. 7027 7030 .typchk \ If it was a string, give a 7035 BEQ msmtch \ "REN type" error 7040
7045 BPL noconv \setminus If it was real (type -ve), 7050 JSR cftoi \ convert it to integer. 7052 7055 .noconv 7060 RTS \ Exit. 7065
7070 .msmtch \ Generate a "REN type" 7075 BRK \ error. 7080]?P%=&63:P%=P%+1 7085 \$P%="REN type":P%=P%+LEN\$P% 7090 ?P%=0:P%=P%+1 8000 8010 NEXT 8015 @%=0 8020 PRINT'"Code length =&"~P%-start% 8190 8200 PRINT'''''"** WARNING: Once assembled, the code" 8210 PRINT"generated by this program is not" 8220 PRINT"transferable between different BASICs" 8230 PRINT 8300 PRINT"Execute ""CALL &"~init""" to initialise."' 8310 END 8990 8992 REM *** Set up ROM entry points, allowing for *** 8993 REM *** BASIC 1 and BASIC 2. *** 9000 DEFPROCsetup 9010 basic1\$ = "BASIC"+CHR\$0+"(C)1981 Acorn"+CHR\$&A 9020 basic2\$ = "BASIC"+CHR\$0+"(C)1982 Acorn"+CHR\$&A 9030 IF \$&8009=basic1\$ THEN PROCset1 :ENDPROC 9040 IF \$&8009=basic2\$ THEN PROCset2 :ENDPROC 9050 PRINT "NOT BASIC 1 OR 2" 9060 END 9290 9292 REM *** Set up BASIC 1 entry points *** 9300 DEFPROCset1 9305 baschr = ASC"1":REM Used by init routine 9310 cftoi = &A3F2 :REM Convert floating point to integer 9315 chksdb = &980B :REM Check statement delimiter at PTRB 9320 getchb = &8A13 :REM Get character at PTRB

```
 9325 getnsb = &9B03 :REM Get <numeric> or <string> at PTRB
 9330 getnsa = &9AF7 :REM Get <numeric> or <string> at PTRA
 9535 settop = &BE88 :REM Set up TOP, check "Bad program"
 9340 rsvgot = &8FAD :REM Resolve RENUMBERed GOTOs
 9345 ENDPROC
 9490
9492 REM *** Set up BASIC 2 entry points ***
 9500 DEFPROCset2
 9505 baschr = ASC"2":REM Used by init routine
 9510 cftoi = &A3E4 :REM Convert floating point to integer
 9515 chksdb = &9852 :REM Check statement delimiter at PTRB
 9520 getchb = &8A8C :REM Get character at PTRB
 9525 getnsb = &9B29 :REM Get <numeric> or <string> at PTRB
 9530 getnsa = &9B1D :REM Get <numeric> or <string> at PTRA
 9535 settop = &BE6F :REM Set up TOP, check "Bad program"
 9540 rsvgot = &900D :REM Resolve RENUMBERed GOTOs
 9545 ENDPROC
```
The initialisation routine, BRK handler, and keyword recogniser used by this program (lines 1000 to 2250) are the same as used in the program in [section 7.4](#page-108-0). The keyword table (lines 2500 to 2525) contains the single entry 'REN'.

The general operation of the renumber utility, once recognised, is as follows:

- **1** The rest of the line after the 'REN' is decoded (lines 3000 to 3165). The keyword recogniser leaves PTRA pointing to the first character after the keyword, so this is used to get the first integer. The succeeding characters and integers are read in from PTRB, as this is advanced leaving PTRA still pointing to the first character after the 'REN'.
- **2** The old line numbers are piled up above the program, from TOP onwards (lines 3500 to 3625). Also, each line is checked to make sure that the range of the renumbered lines does not overlap with the lines which will not be renumbered. This check is carried out by the routine 'rngchk' (which also calculates the new line number, but that is not used at this stage).
- **3** The lines are then renumbered (lines 4000 to 4095), using the routine 'rngchk' to calculate the new line number. This is not done at stage 2, in case there was not enough room

for the pile of line numbers; otherwise, the program would be left half-renumbered, with no GOTO references resolved.

4 The GOTO and GOSUB references are resolved. This part is in fact done by the routine in the ROM which is used by the BASIC RENUMBER command. It scans through the program, looking for line number tokens [\(section 2.3.2\)](#page-40-0). If it finds one, it searches through the pile of old line numbers on top of the program, at the same time keeping track of the corresponding new line number in the program. When it matches the line numbers, it changes the tokenised line number to the new one. If it couldn't match them, it prints the 'Failed at xxx' message, before continuing.

The 'rngchk' routine is used both in stages 2 and 3. It decides whether the current line number is inside the range to be renumbered or not, and generates 'newnum' to be either the current line number, or a new renumbered line number accordingly. If it finds that the renumbering would cause a line number overlap, it generates a 'REN range' error.

The 'getinta' and 'getintb' routines get an integer from the line of text, leaving it in IntA $(\& 2A$ to $\& 2D)$. If the argument is in fact a string, a 'REN type' error will be generated. If the argument is a floating point number, it will convert it to an integer. The routine to get a <numeric> or <string> at PTRA will first copy PTRA into PTRB, and then get the <numeric> or <string> at PTRB (thus leaving PTRA unchanged). [See chapter 10](#page-163-0) for more details of these expression evaluation routines.

With the mechanisms described in this chapter, any number of new statements can be added (provided there is enough memory to keep them all in). The next chapters describe how other errors can be trapped, as well as the 'Mistake' error.

8 Overlaying Procedures

Lack of memory can be a very restrictive and annoying problem with large programs. One way of getting round this is to use several smaller programs, and CHAIN them together (like the 'Welcome' cassette). However, this RUNs each program which is loaded in, so all the variables (apart from the resident integers) are lost.

Another method is to 'overlay' FNs and PROCs. If the program consists of a number of large sections, which will not be in memory at the same time as one another, these sections can be loaded in on top of each other when one is required. Since only one of the sections will be active at any particular time, the same memory can be used for all of them.

By intercepting the 'No such FN/PROC' error, an overlay file can be loaded in, and executed as if it was a normal FN or PROC. When the FN or PROC has finished, the memory that it loaded into is free for another call. This sort of overlaying is more useful on a system with discs, because of its random access ability; but it can be used with cassettes as well if the order in which the overlay files will be required is known (so that they can be saved in that order on the tape).

This chapter describes how to overlay FNs and PROCs, JMPing back in to BASIC to continue when the file has been loaded.

8.1 The 'No such FN/PROC' error

This error (error number 29) is generated by the FN/PROC handler when it failed to find the definition of the FN or PROC in the program. [See section 5.3](#page-71-0) for the operation of the FN/PROC handler. The sequence of actions taken when the FN/PROC handler comes across an undefined call is as follows:

1 The 6502 stack, from &1FF to the item on top of the stack, is saved on the BASIC STACK. The 6502 stack pointer is saved as the byte on top of the BASIC stack, so that the correct number of bytes can be retrieved after the call. After saving, the 6502 stack pointer is re-set to $&1FF$.

- **2** The FN or PROC token is saved as the first item on the 6502 stack, at $&1FF$, so that ENDPROC or the '=' statement know which type of call they are in. The FN token is &A4, and the PROC token is &F2.
- **3** PTRA is saved on the 6502 stack, from &1FE to &1FC. The stack pointer now points to $&1FB$ (at the next free byte).
- **4** If there was no name after the FN/PROC token, a 'Bad call' error is generated. Otherwise, the FN/PROC handler searches through the list of already used FNs or PROCs for the name.
- **5** If it wasn't found in the list (which it won't be, if it is not in the program), the FN/PROC handler searches through the program for the definition. When it doesn't find it, it restores the base of PTRA from the 6502 stack, so that ERL will be set up properly by the BASIC error handler, and generates a 'No such FN/PROC' error.

When this error ocurrs, the prevailing conditions on entry to the BRK handler are:

BASIC STACK contains old 6502 stack.

The FN/PROC can be re-entered to force it to use an overlayed file as the FN or PROC it was looking for, but first the 6502 stack must be restored to the state immediately before the error was generated. The 3 bytes of RTI information must be pulled from the stack, and the base of PTRA must be pushed back on (&B first, then $\&C$).

At this point the overlay file can be loaded. When the overlay file is in memory, the FN/PROC handler can be re-entered, as if the overlay is a FN or PROC which it has just found.

To re-enter the FN/PROC handler, set the base of PTRA (in $\&B,\&C$) to point to the first character which would be after the name of the FN/PROC in the definition, and JMP to &B223 (BASIC1) or &B1F4 (BASIC2).

Jumping to this address will continue with the FN/PROC handler, and the name will not be added to the list of used FNs or PROCs. If the name had been added to the list, difficulties would arise when the overlay had been finished with; the FN/PROC handler would still think that it knew where the overlayed FN or PROC was, but the memory may have already been used by a different overlay file.

8.2 Static overlaying

A very simple method of overlaying a FN or PROC is to load a file into a fixed position in memory (hence 'static') whenever a 'No such FN/PROC' error is generated.

The routine in this section will load the file 'OVERLAY' into memory at &6000 (this can be changed by altering line 600), and then re-enter the FN/PROC handler to use this file as the FN or PROC which could not be found.

The 'OVERLAY' file should be saved as if it is a normal BASIC program: it should *not* contain the 'DEF PROCname' (but it must have the 'ENDPROC' or $=$ ' statement). If parameters are to be passed to it, the '(' should be the first character on the first line of the program. For example, the following overlay file will print the SIN of the number passed to it:

```
 10(number)
 20PRINT SIN(number)
 30ENDPROC
```
If this program is saved as the file 'OVERLAY', any unrecognised FN or PROC call will be passed to it. For example, 'PROCFRED(PI/2)' will print '1'.

This overlay routine cannot tell the difference between FNs and PROCs; it will load the file 'OVERLAY' whenever the error is generated. So, if the file is saved as above, $X=FMA(3)$ will give a 'No PROC' error, when it finds the 'ENDPROC' statement on the end of what it thinks is a FN.

If the overlay does not need any parameters, the first character on the first line could be the start of the first statement, or a space.

 4 REM This is a simple program to overlay procedures. 6 REM
8 REM M D Plumbley 1984 10 REM 12 REM Once this is initilaised, if a FN or PROC is not 14 REM found in a program, generating the 16 REM "No such FN/PROC" error, then the file called 18 REM "OVERLAY" will be loaded from disc, and 20 REM executed. 22 REM 24 REM The overlay file should not contain the name of 26 REM the PROC or FN, but any parameters should be 28 REM inside brackets on the first line of the file. 30 REM If used, the open bracket must be the first 32 REM character on the first line of the file. 90 REM 95 100 PROCsetup :REM Set up correct ROM entry points 390 395 REM *** OS vectors *** 400 brkv = &0202 410 oldbrk = !brky AND &FFFF 490 495 REM *** OS routines *** 500 oscli = &FFF7 590 600 ldslot = &6000 :REM Area to load overlay into 799 900 start% = &0C00 :REM Assemble into user char space 905 910 FOR opt% = 0 TO 3 STEP 3 920 $P% = start%$ 950 [OPT opt% 960 1000 .newbrk 1005 PHA \Save A and Y on 6502 stack 1010 TYA 1015 PHA 1020 1025 LDY #0 \Get error number 1030 LDA (&FD),Y

1035
1040 1040 CMP #29 \If "No such FN/PROC", go
1045 BEQ noproc \to overlay routine. BEQ noproc \setminus to overlay routine. 1050 1055 .giveup \Otherwise, restore A and Y and go 1060 PLA \ to the default BRK handler.
1065 TAY 1065 TAY 1070 1075 JMP oldbrk 1080 2000 .noproc 2005 PLA λ Remove the saved A and Y from the 2010 PLA λ 6502 stack. \setminus 6502 stack. 2015 2020 PLA \aleph \Remove the RTI information from the 2025 PLA \aleph 6502 stack. PLA \ 6502 stack.
PIA 2030 P 2035
2040 2040 LDA &B λ Push the base of PTRA, ready for λ the return from the FN/PROC. λ the return from the FN/PROC. 2050 LDA &C
2055 PHA 2055 2060 2065 LDX #lodtxt MOD &100 \Tell the filing system to
2070 LDY #lodtxt DIV &100 \ load the overlay file 2070 LDY #lodtxt DIV &100 \ load the overlay file
2075 LSR oscli 2075 JSR oscli 2080
2085 2085 LDA #ldslot MOD&100+4 \Set PTRA to point to the
2090 STA &B \ 1st char of the file \ 1st char of the file 2095 LDA #ldslot DIV $8100 \quad \setminus$ (not CR, line num, or 2100 STA &C \setminus length) STA &C 2105 2110 JMP prcfnd \Continue with the FN/PROC handler 2115
2120 Lodtxt **\DFS** command to load the overlay 2125]\$P% = "LOAD OVERLAY ":P%=P%+LEN\$P% 2130 \$P% = STR\$~ldslot :P%=P%+LEN\$P% 2135 $2P% =$ $ROD = P% = P% + 1$ 2140 8000 NEXT 8010 @%=0 8020 PRINT'"Code length =&"~P%-start% 8030 8040 REM *** Link new routine in to BRK vector *** 8050 IF newbrk=oldbrk PRINT"Already set up":END 8060 brkv?0 = newbrk MOD &100 8070 brkv?1 = newbrk DIV &100 8080 END 8090 9000 REM *** Set up ROM entry points, allowing for *** 9010 REM *** BASIC1 and BASIC2 *** 9020 DEFPROCsetup

 9030 IF ?&8015=ASC"1" THEN PROCset1 ELSE PROCset2 9040 ENDPROC 9050 9300 REM *** Set up BASIC1 entry points *** 9310 DEFPROCset1 9320 prcfnd = &B223 :REM Return to FN/PROC handler 9330 ENDPROC 9340 9500 REM *** Set up BASIC2 entry points *** 9510 DEFPROCset2 9520 prcfnd = &B1F4 :REM Return to FN/PROC handler 9530 ENDPROC

The general operation of the routine is as follows:

- **1** If the error number is not 29, the default BRK handler is called (lines 1000 to 1080). If the error number is 29, the 3 bytes of RTI information are removed from the stack (as well as the 2 registers saved by the BRK handling routine at 1000 to 1015).
- **2** The base of PTRA is pushed back on the 6502 stack (lines 2040 to 2055), for the return when the call is finished.
- **3** The overlay file is loaded by sending the line 'LOAD OVERLAY 6000' to the Operating System Command Line Interpreter (OSCLI). This will be interpreted just as if a '*LOAD' had been typed at the keyboard. Note the use of the hexadecimal version of the STR\$ function (line 2130). This is in BASIC1 and BASIC2, but is not mentioned in the *User Guide*.
- **4** The base of PTRA is set to point to the fifth character of the file (at $&6004$). If the file has been entered as a BASIC program, the first character of the file will be a $&0$ D, followed by a 2-byte line number, followed by the line length byte ([see section 2.4](#page-45-0) for the program storage format).
- **5** A JMP is made to re-enter the FN/PROC handler. It will then think that the call definition has been found, and that the base of PTRA points to the first character after the name in the definition. If this character is a '(, it will handle any parameters which are listed. It will then start executing statements in the file as if it was a proper FN or PROC.

8.3 Dynamic overlaying

The routine in the last section is a bit limited. It can't tell the difference between different FNs or PROCs, as it doesn't do any name checking; and it always loads into the same area of memory (which must be decided when it is assembled), so only one PROC or FN can operate at a time.

The routine in this section shows how FNs and PROCs can be recognised and loaded onto the BASIC STACK, completely invisible to the main program (except for the amount of memory required to load them). If there is not enough memory to load the FN or PROC, a 'No room' error will be generated. FNs and PROCs loaded like this can call others inside them to be overlayed, and these will also be loaded onto the STACK. The program in [section 8.2](#page-131-0) would just load the other overlay on top of the first one.

The exit from the FN or PROC is trapped by changing the token byte on the 6502 stack at &1FF, so that a 'No FN' or 'No PROC' error will be generated. This allows the overlayed file to be removed from the STACK when it is finished with, by intercepting these errors.

The overlay files are created in the same manner as the ones in [section 8.2,](#page-131-0) with the '(' as the first character on the first line if necessary. However, the routine will check the name of the FN or PROC, and will load in 'P.fred' if 'PROCfred' is called, and 'F.fred' if 'FNfred' is called. Note that the operating system will treat upper and lower case letters as the same, so 'F.FRED' is the same as 'F fred' as far is it is concerned.

```
 10 REM *** Program to overlay PROCs and FNs **
 12 REM
 14 REM M D Plumbley 1984
 16 REM
 18 REM Once this is run, if a FN or PROC is not found in
 20 REM a program, generating the "No such FN/PROC"
 22 REM error, then the file with the same name
 24 REM as the FN or PROC will be loaded from disc (or
 26 REM tape). The P directory will be used for PROCs,
 28 REM the F directory for FNs.
 30 REM
 32 REM The FN or PROC will be loaded on the BASIC
```

```
 34 REM STACK, and will be removed when it exits.
   36 REM
   38 REM The overlay file should not contain the name of
   40 REM the PROC or FN, but any parameters should be
   42 REM inside brackets on the first line of the file.
   44 REM If used, the open bracket must be the first
   46 REM character on the first line of the file.
   48 REM
   50 REM Before using with BASIC 1, all EQU directives
   52 REM should be replaced by indirections:
   54 REM "EQUB X" => "]?P%=X:P%=P%+1:[OPTopt%"
   54 REM "EQUW X" => "]!P%=X:P%=P%+2:[OPTopt%"
   54 REM "EQUD X" => "]!P%=X:P%=P%+4:[OPTopt%"
   54 REM "EQUS A$" => "]$P%=A$:P%=P%+LEN$P%:[OPTopt%"
   90 REM
   95
  100 PROCsetup :REM Set up correct ROM entry points
  390
  395 REM *** OS vectors ***
 400 brky = 80202 410 oldbrk = !brkv AND &FFFF
  490
  495 REM *** OS routines ***
 500 oscli = &FFF7
 505 osfile = &FFDD
  590
  690 REM *** BASIC registers ***
  700 stack = &0004
 705 inta = $002A 799
  800 parms = &0070 :REM Temp for number of parameters
  899
  900 start% = &0B00 :REM User defined character area
  905
  910 FOR opt% = 0 TO 3 STEP 3
  920 P% = start%
  950 [OPT opt%
  960
 1000 .newbrk
1005 PHA \Save A and Y on 6502 stack<br>1010 TYA
1010 1015 PHA
1020<br>1025
        LDY #0 \Get error number
 1030 LDA (&FD),Y
 1035
 1040 CMP #29 \If "No such FN/PROC", go
1045 BEQ nofnpr \ to overlay routine.
1047<br>1050
        CMP #7 \sqrt{If} "No FN" see if it is a FN
1055 BEQ jnofn \ to be thrown away.
 1057
```
1060 CMP #13 \lfloor 16 \rfloor \lfloor 16 \rfloor λ to be thrown away. 1070 1075 .ospace \Otherwise, restore A and Y and go 1085 PLA \ to the default BRK handler.
1090 TAY 1090 TAY 1095
1100 1100 JMP oldbrk 1105
1110 .inofn \Jump to the "No FN" handler 1115 JMP nofn 1117
1120 .jnoprc \Jump to the "No PROC" handler 1125 JMP noproc 1127 1990 \ *** If we get here, a FN or PROC is to be *** 1992 \ *** overlayed, after a "No such FN/PROC" error *** 2000 .nofnpr \Remove the saved A and Y from the 2010 PLA \ 6502 stack. 2015
2020 PLA \Remove the RTI information from the 2025 PLA \ 6502 stack.
2030 PLA 2030 2035 2040 LDA &B \Push the base of PTRA, ready for
2045 PHA \the return from the FN/PROC. 2045 PHA \ the return from the FN/PROC.
2050 IDA &C 2050 LDA &C 2055 PHA 2060
2065 2065 LDY &39 \If the length of the name of the 2070 CPY #9 $\qquad \qquad \setminus$ FN/PROC, with the token, is > 8, 2075 BCS giveup \setminus it is too big to be a filename. 2080 2085 LDA #&0D \Put a CR on the end of the 2090 STA filnam+1,Y \ area, ... 2095 2100 .txnmlp \ and transfer the name from the 2105 LDA ($&37$), Y \ text into the filename area.
2110 STA filnam.Y 2110 STA filnam,Y 2115 DEY 2120 BNE txnmlp 2125
2130 LDX #ASC"P"
2135 CMP #&F2
2140 BEQ proc \If the token on the front of the \ name (the last byte transfered) 2140 BEQ proc λ was a PROC token, put a "P" on 2145 LDX #ASC"F" λ the front of the filename; LDX #ASC"F" \setminus the front of the filename; 2150 .proc \ otherwise use an "F". 2155 STX filnam 2160 2165 LDA #ASC"." \Put a "." between the P/F and the

 2170 STA filnam+1 \ FN/PROC name. 2175
2180 LDX #pblock MOD &100 \Call OSFILE to find 2185 LDY #pblock DIV & 100 λ the length of the 2190 LDA #5 \setminus file. 2195 JSR osfile 2200
2205 CMP #1 $\qquad \qquad \qquad$ \If it didn't exist, jump to the 2210 BNE giveup \ default error handler. 2215
2220 IDA stack and Save the BASIC STACK pointer in 2225 STA inta λ IntA, and move the STACK pointer
2230 SFC λ down ready to load the overlay. 2230 SEC λ down ready to load the overlay,
2235 SBC phlock+80A λ by subtracting the length of the $25BC$ pblock+&0A \ by subtracting the length of the 2240 STA stack \setminus file from it. The file length 2245 STA pblock+2 \setminus is returned by OSFILE 5 in 2245 STA pblock+2 \setminus is returned by OSFILE 5 in
2250 \setminus pblock+8A and pblock+8B. 2250 \ pblock+&A and pblock+&B.
2255 LDA stack+1 2255 LDA stack+1
2260 STA inta+1 2260 STA inta+1 \land A copy of the new stack pointer
2265 SBC pblock+80B \land is loaded into pblock+2 and SBC pblock+&OB \ is loaded into pblock+2 and 2270 STA stack+1 \pblock+3, to tell OSFILE &FF
2275 STA pblock+3 \where to load the file when 2275 STA pblock+3 ∞ where to load the file when it 2277 \backslash is called. 2280 BCC ospace \setminus If the STACK wrapped round,
2282 \setminus give an error. \ give an error. 2285 2290 JSR pushi \angle Push the old STACK pointer on
2292 \ the STACK. 2295 2300 LDA $#0$ \Set the "addr" flag for OSFILE to 2305 STA phlock+6 \ load the file at the given addr STA pblock+6 \setminus load the file at the given addr 2310 2315 LDX #pblock MOD &100 \Call OSFILE to load 2320 LDY #pblock DIV &100 \setminus the overlay file into
2325 IDA #&FF \setminus the space allocated λ the space allocated 2330 JSR osfile \setminus on the STACK. 2335
2340 IDA stack Set the base of PTRA to point to 2345 CLC \ the first character in the BASIC 2350 ADC #8 \setminus file (4 up to miss over IntA,
2355 STA &B \setminus and another 4 up to miss the λ and another 4 up to miss the 2360 LDA stack+1 \ &0D, line number, and length 2365 ADC $#0$ \ byte as before).
2370 STA &C STA &C 2375 2380 LDA filnam \Set{Set} the FN/PROC identifier byte
2385 STA & 1FF \ on the stack to a "P" or "F" 2385 STA ℓ 376 STA ℓ The stack to a "P" or "F" 2390 2395 JMP prcfnd \Jump into the FN/PROC handler. 2990 3000 .pblock \OSFILE parameter block 3005 EQUW filnam

 3010 EQUD 0 EQUD 0 3020 EQUD 0 3025 EQUD 0 3030 EQUB 0 3032
3035 .filnam 3035 .filnam \Filename area (max 9 characters) 3040 EQUS "123456789" 3045 EQUB &0D 3990 $3992 \times * \times$ No FN error $**$ 4000 .nofn 4005 LDA &1FF \If the item on the stack was not 4010 CMP #ASC"F" \ left by the overlay routine, 4015 BNE jgivup \ there isn't a FN on the STACK. 4017
4020 CPX #&F5 Υ if the 6502 stack pointer wasn't 4025 BNE jgivup \ &F5, we're not in a FN. 4027 4030 JSR getnsa \Get the value of the FN following 4035 JSR chksdb \ the "=", check end of statement, 4040 JMP doret \ and jump to do the FN return. 4045 4090 \ 4100 .jgivup 4105 JMP giveup \Jump to the old BRK handler 4110 4990 \ ** No PROC error ** 5000 .noproc 5005 LDA &1FF \If the item on the stack was not 5010 CMP #ASC"P" \ left by the overlay routine, 5015 BNE jgivup \ there isn't a PROC on the STACK. 5020 5025 CPX #&F5 \If the 6502 stack pointer wasn't 5030 BNE jgivup \ &F5, we're not in a PROC. 5032
5035 JSR chksda 5035 JSR chksda \Check end of statement after the 5036 \ "ENDPROC". 5037 5040 .doret Semove the saved A and Y from the 5050 PLA \ 6502 stack. 5055
5060 PLA \Remove the RTI information from 5065 PLA \ the 6502 stack 5070 PLA 5075 5080 PLA \Remove the return addr to the 5085 PLA \ FN/PROC handler. 5090 5095 PLA \Restore PTRB 5100 STA &1A

 5105 PLA STA &19
PLA 5115 5120 STA &1B 5125 5130 PLA \If there were no parameters,
5135 BEQ nonarm \don't restore any. BEQ noparm \ don't restore any. 5140 5145 STA parms \Otherwise, restore the saved
5150 .doparm \ value of each parameter by \ value of each parameter by 5155 JSR popi1 \ popping the variable descriptor 5160 JSR poppar \ block and value from the BASIC
5165 DEC parms \ stack. DEC parms 5170 BNE doparm 5175 5180 .noparm 5185 PLA \Restore PTRA STA &C
PIA 5195 5200 STA &B 5205 PLA STA &A 5215 5220 LDY #0 \Restore the BASIC stack pointer
5225 LDA (stack), Y \ to the value it was before the 5225 LDA (stack), Y \ to the value it was before the 5230 TAX \ FN or PROC was loaded onto it: TAX \setminus FN or PROC was loaded onto it: 5235 INY \ this had been pushed on the 5240 LDA (stack), Y \ STACK when the file was loaded.
5245 STX stack STX stack 5250 STA stack+1 5255 5260 LDY #0 \Restore the 6502 stack from the 5265 LDA (stack),Y \ BASIC STACK. The first byte 5270 TAX \setminus gives the old value of the 6502
5275 TXS \setminus S register, the rest of the \ S register, the rest of the 5280 .txstk \ bytes are the actual stack 5285 INY \ contents. 5290 INX 5295 LDA (stack),Y 5300 STA &100, X
5305 CPX #&FF 5305 CPX #&FF 5310 BNE txstk 5315
5320 TYA \Move the STACK pointer up to 5325 ADC stack \ remove the 6502 stack contents 5330 STA stack \ from it. 5335 BCC stkok 5340 INC stack+1 5345 .stkok 5347 5350 LDA &27 \Set the 6502 flags according to 5352 \ &27 (in case we're in a FN).

 5253 5355 RTS \Exit 9000] 9010 NEXT 9020 @%=0 9030 PRINT'"Code length =&"~P%-start% 9040 9045 REM *** Link new routine in to BRK vector *** 9050 IF newbrk=oldbrk PRINT"Already set up":END 9060 brkv?0 = newbrk MOD &100 9070 brkv?1 = newbrk ρ IV ℓ 100 9075 END 9080 9500 REM *** Set up ROM entry points, allowing for ***
9510 REM *** BASIC1 and BASIC2 *** BASIC1 and BASIC2 *** 9520 DEFPROCsetup 9530 IF ?&8015=ASC"1" THEN PROCset1 ELSE PROCset2 9540 ENDPROC 9550 9600 REM *** Set up BASIC1 entry points *** 9610 DEFPROCset1 9615 prcfnd = &B223 :REM Return to FN/PROC handler 9620 pushi = &BDAC :REM Push IntA on the BASIC STACK 9625 popi1 = $&BE23$: REM Pop $&37-\&3A$ from the STACK 9630 poppar = &8C5B :REM Pop parameter value from STACK 9635 getnsa = &9AF7 :REM Get <numeric> or <string> 9640 chksda = &9810 :REM Check end of statement (PTRA) 9645 chksdb = &980B :REM Check end of statement (PTRB) 9650 ENDPROC 9670 9800 REM *** Set up BASIC2 entry points *** 9810 DEFPROCset2 9815 prcfnd = &B1F4 :REM Return to FN/PROC handler 9820 pushi = &BD94 :REM Push IntA on the BASIC STACK 9825 popi1 = &BE0B :REM Pop &37-&3A from the STACK 9830 poppar = &8CC1 :REM Pop parameter value from STACK 9835 getnsa = &9B1D :REM Get <numeric> or <string> 9840 chksda = &9857 :REM Check end of statement (PTRA) 9845 chksdb = &9852 :REM Check end of statement (PTRB) 9850 ENDPROC

The general operation of the routine is as follows:

- **1** It creates a filename using the name of the FN or PROC, which is left 1 byte after $(X37)$. If it is a FN, 'F,' is put on the front: otherwise 'P.' is put on the front.
- **2** OSFILE is called to find the length of the overlay file, and the BASIC STACK is moved down by a corresponding amount. The old value of the STACK pointer is pushed

onto the STACK so that it can be restored to its original value afterwards. This action also checks that the STACK has not gone below the level of the HEAP (and produces a 'No room' error if it has).

- **3** OSFILE is called again, but this time to load the file into the space created for it on the STACK.
- **4** A 'P' or an 'F' is put in the token slot on the 6502 stack at &1FF. This will cause a 'No FN' or 'No PROC' error when the FN or PROC exits, so that the STACK can be restored, removing the overlayed file.
- **5** PTRA is pointed to the first character of the overlay and a JMP is made to continue with the FN/PROC handler.

When a 'No FN' or 'No PROC' error is generated on the return from the overlayed call (caused by the substitution of the call type identifier token at stage 4) the routine must not only do the job normally performed by end of the FN/PROC handler, but also remove the overlayed file from the BASIC STACK.

The action performed when this happens is as follows:

- **1** If it is the exit from a FN, the value is evaluated, and a check is made for the end of the statement. If it is the exit from a PROC, the end of statement check only is made. These actions were not performed by the FN or PROC return statements before the error was generated.
- **2** The return address to the FN/PROC handler is pulled from the stack. The rest of this routine will do its job instead.
- **3** PTRB is restored from the stack.
- **4** The parameter values, pushed on the BASIC STACK when the FN/PROC call was made, are restored.
- **5** PTRA is restored from the stack.
- **6** The BASIC STACK, which is now in the same state which it was just after the overlay file was loaded, is restored to its

previous value (which was pushed onto the STACK by the overlaying routine).

- **7** The 6502 stack is restored from the BASIC STACK.
- **8** The flags are set according to the byte in &27. If we are returning from a PROC, this has no effect; but if we are returning from a FN, the 6502 flags need to reflect the type of the value of the FN.
- **9** The routine exits, either to the PROC statement handler, or to the code which asked for the FN value.

For more details on the general operation of PROCs and FNs, [see section 5.3.](#page-71-0) For more details on the ['No FN' \(error number 7\)](#page-275-0) and ['No PROC' \(error number 13\)](#page-282-0) see [chapter 11](#page-265-0).

This overlay routine is very much better than the one in [section](#page-131-0) [8.2.](#page-131-0) However, there are still improvements which could be made to it. For example, if a recursive FN or PROC is used, it will load in another new version each time a call is made. Perhaps a linked list of overlayed files could be used to get round this.

Another way of overlaying may be to shift the STACK down bodily, and load the file between HIMEM and the bottom of the screen. A file loaded in this way could be left in memory until a 'No room' error was generated, and then it could be removed (providing it wasn't being executed at the time). In fact, there are many alternatives and improvements which can be made to this general idea.
9 Trapping Other Errors

Chapters [7](#page-99-0) and [8](#page-129-0) described how two of the errors generated by BASIC could be trapped, and used to add new commands, or to overlay procedures and functions. This section gives a couple of examples of recovering from other errors.

9.1 Bad MODE recover

If an attempt is made to change mode inside a PROC or a FN, a 'Bad MODE' error (error number 25) is generated. When a PROC or FN is in operation, there will be data on the BASIC STACK, which it will use when it returns [\(see section 5.3\)](#page-71-0).

A MODE change alters HIMEM and resets the BASIC STACK pointer to this new value of HIMEM. If this was reset inside a PROC or a FN, the BASIC STACK contents would be lost, and BASIC would crash when the call returned.

However, by trapping this error, changing MODE inside a PROC or a FN can be allowed, providing that the bottom of the new MODE is above the current HIMEM. If it is, HIMEM can be left as it is, and the BASIC STACK pointer left unchanged. For example, changing from MODE 3 to MODE 6 would be allowed, as the bottom of screen is higher for MODE 6 than MODE 3.

The prevailing conditions on a 'Bad MODE' error are:

If it is possible to change MODE without moving the STACK, this routine will print the MODE change command and continue executing the program. It will not reset HIMEM or the STACK, although the normal MODE change routine will continue to do so whenever the MODE change is made outside a FN or PROC. This means that after this routine has been called, there may be a gap between HIMEM and the bottom of the screen.

 10 REM *** Program to allow MODE change inside PROCs *** 12 REM
14 RFM M D Plumbley 1984 16 REM 18 REM This program traps the "Bad MODE" error (ERR = 25) 20 REM 22 REM If there is enough room to change MODE above 24 REM HIMEM, without disurbing the BASIC stack, then 26 REM MODE can be changed, even if the stack is in use 28 REM (i.e. there is a FN or PROC active at the time) 30 REM 32 REM "Bad MODE" will still be given if you are changing 34 REM to a mode which requires HIMEM to be lower than 36 REM the current setting (unless you are not in a 38 REM FN/PROC). 40 REM 42 REM For BASIC 1, replace EQUs as in chapter 7. 44 REM 99 100 PROCsetup :REM Set up correct ROM entry points 490 495 REM *** OS routines and vectors *** 500 OSWRCH = R FFFF 505 OSBYTE = &FFF4 550 BRKV = &0202 590 595 REM *** Allocate workspace *** 600 worksp = &0070 605 svbrkv = worksp 690 695 REM *** BASIC system variables *** 700 Lomem = &0000 705 Heap = &0002 710 Stack = &0004 715 Himem = &0006 720 Top = &0012 725 Count = $&001E$ 799 900 start% = &0C00 :REM Assemble into user char space 905 910 FOR opt% = 0 TO 3 STEP 3 920 P% = start% 950 [OPT opt% 1000 .init 1005 LDA &8015 \Test that the correct 1010 CMP #baschr \ version of BASIC is 1015 BEQ basok \ in the ROM. 1016 1020 BRK \If it isn't, print an 1025 EQUB 60 \ error message. 1030 EQUS "Not BASIC " \ (baschr set by PROCsetup) 1035 EQUB baschr

 1040 EQUB 0 1041 1045 .basok
1050 LDA BRKV 1050 LDA BRKV \Load the current BRK vector
1055 LDX BRKV+1 \into A and X. LDX BRKV+1 $\qquad \qquad$ into A and X. 1056 1060 CMP #newbrk MOD &100 \If this routine is already 1065 BNE ntsavd \ set up, don't change BRKV. 1070 CPX #newbrk DIV &100 BEQ saved 1076 1078 .ntsavd
1080 STA svbrkv 1080 STA svbrkv \It has not been set up
1085 STX svbrkv+1 \already, so save old STX svbrkv+1 \ already, so save old 1090 LDA #newbrk MOD &100 \ BRKV, and set up the new 1095 STABRKV \ one. 1100 LDA #newbrk DIV &100
1105 STA BRKV+1 STA BRKV+1 1106 1110 .saved 1115 RTS 1190 1192 \ *** This is the new BRK handling routine *** 1200 .newbrk \Save A and Y on 6502 stack 1210 TYA 1215 PHA 1216
1220 LDY #0 \Get error number 1225 LDA (&FD),Y 1226
1230 1230 CMP $#25$ \If ERR = 25 ("Bad MODE"), then
1235 BEQ badmde \try to correct it BEQ badmde $\qquad \qquad \setminus$ try to correct it 1236 1240 .giveup 1245 PLA \Restore A any Y from 6502 stack 1250 TAY 1255 PLA 1256 1260 JMP (svbrkv) \Go to old BRK handler 1261 1490 \ *** If we get here, a "Bad MODE" error has *** 1492 \ $***$ occurred. This was either caused by a $***$ 1494 \ *** non-empty BASIC stack, or not enough room. *** 1500 .badmde 1505 LDX &2A \Get requested mode number from
1510 LDA #&85 \ IntA, and find out what HIMEM \ IntA, and find out what HIMEM 1515 JSR OSBYTE \ would be in that mode. 1516 1520 CPX Himem \If new HIMEM would be below the 1525 TYA \ current HIMEM, then the STACK 1530 SBC Himem+1 \ is in the way.

 1535 BCC giveup 1536
1540 CPX Heap Υ and Υ hew HIMEM would be below the top 1545 TYA \ of the variables heap, there is 1550 SBC Heap+1 \ not enough room for the MODE. 1555 BCC giveup 1556
1560 CPX Top \setminus If HIMEM would be below TOP, there 1565 TYA \ is not enough room for the MODE.
1570 SBC Top+1 \ This test is in case LOMEM had 1570 SBC Top+1 \rightarrow This test is in case LOMEM had
1575 BCC giveup \rightarrow not been set to TOP vet. BCC giveup \ not been set to TOP yet. 1576
1580 1580 PLA \Discard saved values of Y and A
1590 PLA \from 6502 stack $\frac{1}{500}$ from 6502 stack 1591
1600 1600 PLA \Discard RTI information from the
1605 PLA \6502 stack. This is pushed by PLA \setminus 6502 stack. This is pushed by 1610 PLA \ the BRK instruction. 1611
1615 LDA #0 \Zero COUNT (a MODE change leaves 1620 STA Count \ the cursor at start of line) 1621 \Pop "mode change" byte from stack 1630 JSR OSWRCH \ (pushed by MODE command), and
1631 \ print it \ print it 1632 1635 LDA &2A \Get mode number from int acc, and 1640 JSR OSWRCH \ print that 1641 1645 JMP cont \Command completed, so execute the 1646 \ next statement. 1647 8000] 8010 NEXT 8015 $22 = 0$ 8020 PRINT'"Code length =&"~P%-start% 8190 8200 PRINT'''''"** WARNING: Once assembled, the code" 8210 PRINT"generated by this program is not" 8220 PRINT"transferable between different BASICs" 8230 PRINT 8300 PRINT"Execute ""CALL &"~init""" to initialise."' 8310 END 8990 8992 REM *** Set up ROM entry points, allowing for *** 8993 REM *** BASIC I and BASIC II. *** 9000 DEFPROCsetup 9010 basic1\$ = "BASIC"+CHR\$0+"(C)1981 Acorn"+CHR\$&A 9020 basic2\$ = "BASIC"+CHR\$0+"(C)1982 Acorn"+CHR\$&A 9030 IF \$&8009=basic1\$ THEN PROCset1 :ENDPROC 9040 IF \$&8009=basic2\$ THEN PROCset2 :ENDPROC 9050 PRINT "NOT BASIC 1 OR 2"

```
 9060 END
 9290
9292 REM *** Set up BASIC 1 entry points ***
 9300 DEFPROCset1
 9305 baschr = ASC"1":REM Used by init routine
9310 cont = &8BOC :REM Cont execution at next statement
 9320 ENDPROC
 9490
9492 REM *** Set up BASIC 2 entry points ***
 9500 DEFPROCset2
 9505 baschr = ASC"2":REM Used by init routine
 9540 cont = &8898 :REM Cont execution at next statement
 9550 ENDPROC
```
The initialising and BRK handling parts of this routine are very similar to the programs in [chapter 7.](#page-99-0) In fact, there is not really a lot to the program at all.

This routine could be modified to copy the BASIC stack bodily if a MODE change was made which required HIMEM to be lower than its current setting. This could also be used anyway, to ensure that the least amount of memory was being used for each MODE.

Performing a MODE change, and shifting the stack, may be one way of allocating more memory if a 'No room' error is generated. However, this is only possible with BASIC 2, as this error does not use the BRK error generating mechanism in BASIC 1 ([see](#page-315-0) [chapter 11](#page-315-0) for more on 'No room')

9.2 Bad program salvage

One of the more annoying error messages that BASIC can produce is 'Bad program'. You may have just waited 10 minutes for a long program to load from tape, or spent the last 2 hours typing something in, to be greeted by this message because the program got corrupted somehow. This section describes how the bad program, or as much of it as possible, can be salvaged into an editable form.

Program storage

Program lines are stored in the following format:

The first byte stored at PAGE is a &0D (carriage return), followed by the MSB of the first line number. The end of the program is marked by an &FF byte after the carriage return on the end of the last line.

The length byte of the line number is used to speed up the search for line numbers in a GOTO or GOSUB. However, if one of these gets corrupted, so that there isn't a &0D where BASIC thinks the end of the line should be, it will give a 'Bad program' error. This could also be caused if the carriage return has been corrupted.

By scanning through the program, re-linking all these length bytes, the program can be salvaged. It may not be completely correct, but at least it will be possible to edit it again.

The salvage routine

This routine can be assembled and the code saved onto disc or cassette by using '*SAVE'. It assembles into the user defined character area, so the code can be loaded in and executed if a 'Bad program' occurs, without disturbing the program to be salvaged.

The program can be loaded and run by typing

*LOAD SALVAGE CALL &C00

assuming that it was assembled from &C00 onwards. If the DFS, or any filing system which operates from a paged ROM, is used to load the routine, it should *not* be run by using '*SALVAGE'. If this was used, the DFS ROM, rather than the BASIC ROM, would be paged in while the routine was operating, and the BASIC ROM routines which the are called would not be available. To get round this, the ROM routines required could be duplicated in the salvage routine itself.

4 REM ** Bad program salvage routine *** 6 REM
8 REM M D Plumbley 1984 10 REM 12 REM This routine will scan through the BASIC program 14 REM at PAGE and re-set any link pointers which have 16 REM been corrupted. 18 REM 20 REM Before using with BASIC 1, the EQUS should be 22 REM replaced with their equivalents: 24 REM "EQUB X" => "]?P%=X:P%=P%+1:[OPTopt%" 26 REM "EQUS A\$" => "]\$P%=A\$:P%=P%+LEN\$P%:[OPTopt%" 90 REM 99 100 PROCsetup :REM Set up correct ROM entry points 490 495 REM *** OS routines and vectors *** 510 osrdch = $RFFF0$ 590 600 worksp = &0070 605 line = worksp 610 ytemp = worksp+2 690 695 REM *** BASIC system variables *** 700 page = &0018 710 inta = $&002A$ 799 900 start% = &0C00 :REM User defined character area 905 910 FOR opt% = 0 TO 3 STEP 3 920 P_{0} = start% 950 [OPT opt% 990 995 \ ** Salvage routine entry point *** 1000 .slvage 1005 LDA page \setminus Set "line" to point to the 1010 STA line+1 \ first byte of the program 1015 LDY #0 \ at PAGE. 1020 STY line 1025 1030 LDA (line), Y \If it is a CR, jump to start

1035 CMP $\#$ & OD $\#$ checking through the lines.
1040 BEQ strtok 1040 BEQ strtok 1045 1050 JSR pmess \Otherwise, print an 1055 EQUS "No CR at start" \ error message and 1060 NOP \ exit. 1065 .end 1070 RTS 1075
1100 .escape 1100 .escape \This is used to give an 1105 BRK \ "Escape" error if the 1110 EQUB 17
1115 EQUS "Escape" \ necessary 1115 EQUS "Escape" 1120 **EQUB 0** 1125 1195 \ ** Start looking through lines *** 1200 .strtok 1205 JSR pnewl **Start on a new line** 1210 1215 BIT &FF \lif an escape condition is
1220 BMI escape \pending, handle it. BMI escape \ pending, handle it. 1225 1230 LDA line+1 \Print out the address of the 1235 JSR phex \ current line. 1240 LDA line 1245 JSR phexsp 1250 1255 LDY #1 \lvert . If we are at the end of the 1260 LDA (line),Y \ program, exit. 1265 BMI end 1270
1275 STA inta+1 \Otherwise, print out the
INY \\line number. 1280 INY \ line number. 1285 LDA (line),Y 1290 STA inta 1295 JSR plnum5 1300 1305 LDY #3 \Get the length byte from the 1310 LDA (line),Y \ line. If it is zero, the 1315 BEQ flink \vert link has failed, so fix it. 1320 1325 TAY **Same Start Set the byte on the end of** 1330 LDA (line), $Y \qquad \qquad$ \ the line. 1335 1340 CMP #&OD \If it is not a CR, the link 1345 BNE flink \ failed, so fix it. 1350
1355 TYA **\Transfer the length into A** 1360 1365 .newlna 1370 CLC \Add the length of the line 1375 ADC line \setminus (in A) to the line pointer, 1380 STA line \setminus so it now points to the 1385 BCC strtok \ line, and go back to 1390 INC line+1 \ "strtok" to handle the next 1395 BCS strtok \ line. 1400 1990 \ $**$ If we get here, the link has failed $***$
2000 .flink 2000 .flink 2005 JSR pmess \Print a message 2010 EQUS " Failed link" 2015 NOP 2020 2025 LDY #3 \Scan from the start.. 2030 2035 .cscan \ for control characters 2040 LDA #&1F \ (i.e. less than &20) 2045 INY 2050 2055 .loop \Loop round until a control 2060 CMP (line),Y \ character is found. If it 2065 BCS fixlnk \setminus is, go to fix the link. 2070 INY 2075 BNE loop 2080 2085 DEY \If the end wasn't found, set 2090 STY ytemp \ the "end" to be used at 255 2095 2100 JSR pmess $\qquad \qquad$ and print the 2105 EQUS " End not found: F/T" \ message. 2110 NOP 2115 2120 JSR osrdch **Read a character, and exit** 2125 BCS escape \ if ESC was pressed. 2130 2135 .notasc \Check for a "T". 2140 CMP #ASC"T" 2145 BNE noterm 2150 2155 LDA #&FF \If it was, set the MSB of 2160 LDY #1 $\qquad \qquad$ the current line to &FF 2165 STA (line),Y \ to terminate the program, 2170 .nforce $\qquad \qquad \setminus$ and exit. 2175 RTS 2180
2200 .noterm \If it wasn't, check for an
\ "F". 2205 CMP #ASC"F" 2210 BNE nforce 2215 2220 LDY ytemp \If it was, set the character 2225 .force \ where scanning stopped to 2230 LDA #&OD \ be a CR, and ... 2235 STA (line),Y 2240

 2245 TYA \ set the length byte, 2250 LDY #3 λ and ... 2255 STA (line),Y 2260
2265 JMP newlna \log qo to the next line. 2270 3000 .fixlnk \If the control character 3005 LDA (line), $Y \sim \tan \theta$ that was found was a CR, 3010 CMP #&OD $\qquad \qquad$ force the length byte to 3015 BEQ force \ point to it. 3020 3025 STY ytemp **\Otherwise, save the offset**, 3030
3035 3035 JSR pmess \ and print the 3040 EQUS " Control char A/F/T" \ message. 3045 NOP 3050 3055 $\sqrt{3055}$ JSR osrdch $\sqrt{3055}$ 3060 BCS jesc \ and exit if ESC pressed. 3065 3070 CMP #ASC"A" \Check for "A". 3075 BNE notasc 3080 3085 LDY ytemp \If it was, force the 3090 LDA (line),Y \ control char to be a letter 3095 ORA #&40 \ by ORing it with &40, and 3100 STA (line),Y \ jump back to continue 3105 JMP cscan $\qquad \qquad$ \ scanning the line. 3110 3200 .jesc \Jump the the "Escape" error. 3205 JMP escape 8000] 8010 NEXT $8015 a\% = 0$ 8020 PRINT'"Code length =&"~P%-start% 8190 8200 PRINT'''''"** WARNING: Once assembled, the code" 8210 PRINT"generated by this program is not" 8220 PRINT"transferable between different BASICs" 8230 PRINT 8300 PRINT"Execute ""CALL &"~start%""" to use"' 8310 END 8990 8992 REM *** Set up ROM entry points, allowing for *** 8993 REM *** BASIC 1 and BASIC 2. *** 9000 DEFPROCsetup 9010 basic1\$ = "BASIC"+CHR\$0+"(C)1981 Acorn"+CHR\$&A 9020 basic2\$ = "BASIC"+CHR\$0+"(C)1982 Acorn"+CHR\$&A 9030 IF \$88009=basic1\$ THEN PROCset1 :ENDPROC 9040 IF \$&8009=basic2\$ THEN PROCset2 :ENDPROC 9050 PRINT "NOT BASIC 1 OR 2" 9060 END

```
 9290
9292 REM *** Set up BASIC 1 entry points ***
 9300 DEFPROCset1
 9305 plnum5 = &98F5 :REM Print line number (field 5)
 9310 pmess = &BFCB :REM Print message following JSR
 9315 pnewl = &BC42 :REM Print a new line (CRLF)
9320 \mu = 88570 :REM Print A as 2-digit HEX no.
 9325 phexsp = &856A :REM Print HEX no. then space
 9330 ENDPROC
 9490
9492 REM *** Set up BASIC 2 entry points ***
 9500 DEFPROCset2
 9505 plnum5 = &9923 :REM Print line number (field 5)
 9510 pmess = &BFCF :REM Print message following JSR
 9515 pnewl = &BC25 :REM Print a new line (CRLF)
9520 \mu = &B545 :REM Print A as 2-digit HEX no.
 9525 phexsp = &B562 :REM Print HEX no. then space
 9600 ENDPROC
```
The general operation of the routine is as follows:

- **1** It first checks that there is a carriage return at the start of the program. If there isn't, it prints a message and exits. If this happens, either there was no BASIC program at all, or the routine can be re-started after '?PAGE=13' has been typed.
- **2** The start address of the current line, and its line number, are printed. If the program is so bad that this salvage routine cannot cope with it properly, this information may help if a hex dump program needs to be used to patch up the program.
- **3** If the end of the program has been found, the routine exits.
- **4** If the length byte points correctly to the carriage return on the end of the line, the routine moves on to the next line, and jumps back to stage 2.
- **5** The message 'Failed link' is printed after the line number, and the line is scanned until a control character is found.
- **6** If the control character found was a carriage return, the length byte is fixed, and the routine jumps back to continue checking the rest of the program.

7 If the end of the line was not found, or the control character found was not a carriage return, the routine gives the option of forcing the control character to be a letter, forcing the end of the line to be at this point, or marking the end of the program at this line.

The ESC key can be pressed at any time while the salvage operation is underway, and the routine will stop when it is about to do the next line.

The routine may think that it has reached the end of the program before it should have, because it found a negative byte as the MSB of the next line number. It can be forced to continue by typing'END:?(TOP−1)=0' to force the end marker to zero before re-starting the salvage routine.

This routine will cope with most things, but if the program is really bad, the following hex dump program maybe useful to examine it by hand. It should be loaded in by setting PAGE above the top of the corrupted program (give plenty of room, just in case), and then just LOADing in as normal.

```
 5 REM ** Hex dump program **
    6 REM
   10 REM M D Plumbley 1984
   15 REM
   20 REM Press <space> to stop listing
 25 REM <return> to continue
 30 REM "Q" to quit
 35 REM<br>100 len% = 8
                             REM length of line (bytes):
  200 INPUT"START ADDR :&"input$
 210 \text{ start}% = EVAL("&"+input$)
  220 INPUT"END ADDR :&"input$
 230 end% = EVAL("&"+input$)
  400 REPEAT
  410 PROCline(start%) :REM Hexdump 1 line
  420 start% = start%+len% :REM Next line
  430 key$ = INKEY$(0)
  440 IF key$=" " THEN PROCwait
  450 IF key$="Q" THEN END
  460 UNTIL start%>end%
  470 END
  998
  999 REM *** Print hexdump of 1 line ***
 1000 DEFPROCline(addr%)
1010 \frac{3}{2}=4:PRINT<sup>"</sup>addr<sup>%"</sup> "; :REM Addr at start of line
```

```
 1015 @%=3
                                     :REM Clear text string
1020 FOR offset = 0 TO len%-1
 1030 byte% = addr%?offset :REM Get byte
1040 PRINT "byte%; :REM Print hex byte
1045 valid = (byte%>=&20 AND byte%>=R 1046 served to the server of t
                                     :REM Is it a character?
 1050 IF valid THEN chr$=CHR$(byte%) ELSE chr$="."
 1060 text$ = text$+chr$ :REM Add char to text string
 1070 NEXT offset
 1080 PRINT" " text$
 1090 ENDPROC
 1998
 1999 REM *** Wait for <CR> or "Q" to be pressed ***
 2000 DEFPROCwait
 2010 REPEAT
 2020 key$ = GETS
 2030 UNTIL key$=CHR$(13) OR key$="Q"
 2040 IF key$="Q" THEN END
 2050 ENDPROC
```
9.3 Error listing

Sometimes it is not very easy to spot an error in a line of BASIC, especially when it is in the middle of a multi-statement line. The routine in this section will LIST out the line that any error occurred on, together with 2 markers pointing out the possible sources of the error. These represent the positions of the two BASIC text pointers, PTRA and PTRB, at the instant of the error.

For example, if the following line is typed in:

>PRINT"HELLO"; REM Should be a ":"

the response will be:

```
HELLO
PRINT"HELLO"; REM Should be a ":"
\sim \sim\simNo such variable
```
The top arrow represents the position of PTRA, and the bottom one represents the position of PTRB. In this case, they both point to the same position (just after the REM token), but in most cases they will be different.

This can also be used to check the position of the pointers, if certain errors are to be intercepted.

 5 REM *** Error listing routine *** 7 REM
10 RFM M D Plumbley 1984 15 REM 20 REM When an error occurs, this routine will print out 25 REM the offending line, and print the position of 30 REM the two BASIC pointers, pointing out the error. 35 REM 40 REM This program assembles into user key/character 42 REM area at &0B00 onwards. 44 REM 46 REM Before using with BASIC 1, the EQUs should be 48 REM replaced with their equivalents: 50 REM "EQUB X" => "]?P%=X:P%=P%+1:[OPTopt% 52 REM "EQUW X" => "]!P%=X:P%=P%+2:[OPTopt%" 54 REM "EQUS A\$" => "]\$P%=A\$:P%=P%+LEN\$P%:[OPTopt%" 56 REM 99 100 PROCsetup :REM Set up correct ROM entry points 490 550 BRKV = &0202 799 900 start% = &0B00 :REM User key/char space 905 910 FOR opt% = 0 TO 3 STEP 3 920 $P% = start%$ 950 **FOPT** opt% 1000 .init 1005 LDA &8015 \Test that the correct
1010 CMP #baschr \version of BASIC is 1010 CMP #baschr \ version of BASIC is 1015 BEQ basok \ in the ROM. 1016 1020 BRK \If it isn't, print an 1025 EQUB 60 \ error message. 1030 EQUS "Not BASIC " \ (baschr set by PROCsetup) 1035 EQUB baschr 1040 EQUB 0 1041 1045 .basok
1050 LDA BRKV 1050 LDA BRKV \Load the current BRK vector
1055 LDX BRKV+1 \into A and X. $\overline{}$ into A and X. 1056 1060 CMP #newbrk MOD &100 \If this routine is already 1065 BNE ntsavd \ set up, don't change BRKV. 1070 CPX #newbrk DIV &100 1075 BEQ saved 1076 1078 .ntsavd

2175
2180 2180 LDA $&3D$ \Set PTRA to point to start
2190 STA &B \of line in error. \ of line in error. 2200 LDA $83E$ \ (PTRA is used by the line number 2210 STA &C \ decoding routine) 2220 LDY#1
2230 STYRA STY &A 2235 2240 JSR prtlne \Print out line, setting counters 2245
2250 2250 LDX countA \Print posn of PTRA 2260 JSR prtptr
2262 JSR pnewl JSR pnewl 2265 2270 LDX countB \Print posn of PTRB
2280 JSR prtptr 2280 JSR prtptr 2285 2290 LDA ptrtmp \Restore PTRA from temp area
2300 STA &A STA &A 2310 LDA ptrtmp+1 2320 STA &B 2330 LDA ptrtmp+2
2340 STA &C STA &C 2342 2345 .noline 2350 PLA \Restore X,Y,A from 6502 stack 2355 TAX 2360 PLA 2365 TAY 2370 PLA 2371 2375 JMP (svbrkv) \Continue with default BRK routine 2376 2900 .exit JMP pnewl \Print CRLF at end of line 2920 2990 \ *** Print out line at PTRA, setting counters *** 2991 \ *** countA and countB to the screen positions *** $2992 \times **$ of the saved PTRA and PTRB $***$ 3000 .prtlne
3010 ... IDY & A LDY &A \Get next character, and
INC &A \increment PTRA 3020 INC &A \ increment PTRA
3030 LDA (&B), Y 3030 LDA (&B),Y 3035 3040 CMP #&0D \If end of line, 3050 BEQ exit \ print CRLF and exit. 3055 3060 CMP #&8D \If a line number, 3070 BEQ lineno \ print it 3075 3080 JSR ptoken \Print char or token in A 3090 JMP counts \ and skip line number section

 3095 3100 .lineno 3110 JSR getlno \Get line number after token 3120 JSR plnum0 \ and print it 3130 .counts 3140 CLC \Move PTRA (position of next
3150 LDA &A \ char to be printed) into 3150 LDA &A \ char to be printed) into
3160 ADC &B \ integer accumulator \ integer accumulator 3170 STA &2A \ at &2A and &2B
3180 LDA &C 3180 LDA &C
3190 ADC #0 ADC $H⁰$ 3200 STA &2B 3205 3210 LDA ptrtmp \Get old PTRA from temp area 3220 ADC ptrtmp+1 \ into X (LSB) 3230 TAX \
 3240 IDA ntrtmn+2 \ $1DA$ ptrtmp+2 λ and A (MSB) 3250 ADC #0 3255 3260 CPX &2A \If char at old PTRA has not 3270 SBC &2B \ been printed yet,
3280 BCC nocntA \ 3280 BCC nocntA \
 3290 IDA &1F \ \ set countA to COUNT 3300 STA countA \ (COUNT held in &1E) 3305 3310 .nocntA 3320 CLC \Get PTRB
3330 LDA &1B \ 3330 LDA &1B \
3340 ADC &19 \ \ into X (LSB) 3350 TAX
3360 LDA &1A \ 3360 LDA &1A \ and A (MSB)
3370 ADC #0 ADC # D 3375 $\I{If char at PTRB has not been} \n$ printed yet. 3380 CPX &2A
3390 SBC &2B 3400 BCC nocntB \
3410 LDA &1E \ 3410 LDA &1E \ set countB to COUNT
3420 STA countB STA countB 3425 3430 .nocntB JMP prtlne \Go back for another char 4990 4991 4992 \ *** Print a "^" in the Xth column *** 4993 \ *** (entry point is "prtptr") *** 5006 .loop 5010 LDA #ASC(" ") \Print a space 5020 JSR pchar 5022 5025 .prtptr 5030 CPX &1E \If not at the right col, 5040 BNE loop \ print another space.

5045
5050 5050 LDA #ASC("^") \Print a "^" JSR pchar 5065 5080 RTS \Exit 7790 7792 \ *** Routine variables area *** 7800 .svbrkv EQUW !BRKV \Space to save BRK vector 7801 7810 .countA EQUB 0 \Screen posn of PTRA \Screen posn of PTRB 7816 7820 .ptrtmp EQUW 0 \Temp for PTRA 7825 EQUB 0 8000] 8010 NEXT 8015 a %=0 8020 PRINT'"Code length =&"~P%-start% 8190 8200 PRINT'''''"** WARNING: Once assembled, the code" 8210 PRINT"generated by this program is not" 8220 PRINT"transferable between different BASICs" 8230 PRINT 8300 PRINT"Execute ""CALL &"~init""" to initialise."' 8310 END 8990 8992 REM *** Set up ROM entry points, allowing for *** 8993 REM *** BASIC 1 and BASIC 2. *** 9000 DEFPROCsetup 9010 basic1\$ = "BASIC"+CHR\$0+"(C)1981 Acorn"+CHR\$&A 9020 basic2\$ = "BASIC"+CHR\$0+"(C)1982 Acorn"+CHR\$&A 9030 IF \$&8009=basic1\$ THEN PROCset1 :ENDPROC 9040 IF \$&8009=basic2\$ THEN PROCset2 :ENDPROC 9050 PRINT "NOT BASIC 1 OR 2" 9060 END 9290 9292 REM *** Set up BASIC 1 entry points *** 9300 DEFPROCset1 9305 baschr = ASC"1":REM Used by init routine 9310 setERL = &B3F6 :REM Get no of line in error into &8,9 9315 schlin = &9942 :REM Find start of line given line no 9320 plnum5 = &98F5 :REM Print &2A,2B in decimal (field 5) 9325 plnum0 = &98F1 :REM Print &2A,2B in decimal (field 0) 9330 ptoken = $&B53A$:REM Print char, or token if $A > &Z7F$ 9335 pchar = &B571 :REM Print char in A, and incr COUNT 9340 pnewl = &BC42 :REM Print CRLF, and zero COUNT 9345 getlno = &97BA :REM Get tokenised line no at PTRA 9350 ENDPROC 9490 9492 REM *** Set up BASIC 2 entry points *** 9500 DEFPROCset2 9505 baschr = ASC"2":REM Used by init routine

```
 9510 setERL = &B3C5 :REM Get no of line in error into &8,9
 9515 schlin = &9970 :REM Find start of line given line no
 9520 plnum5 = &9923 :REM Print &2A,28 in decimal (field 5)
 9525 plnum0 = &991F :REM Print &2A,2B in decimal (field 0)
 9530 ptoken = &B50E :REM Print char, or token if A > &7F
9535 pchar = &B558:REM Print char in A, and incr COUNT
 9540 pnewl = &BC25 :REM Print CRLF, and zero COUNT
 9545 getlno = &97EB :REM Get tokenised line no at PTRA
 9550 ENDPROC
```
The general operation of the routine is as follows:

- **1** The pointer at $&3D_{x}S\overline{B}$ is set up to point to the start of the line in error, by searching through the program if necessary.
- **2** The line is printed out, updating counters which mark the screen position of PTRA and PTRB. Tokens are expanded by the ROM routine 'ptoken', but this does not handle line number tokens. These have to be dealt with separately.
- **3** The markers which point to the positions of PTRA and PTRB are printed out, using the counters set while the error line was being printed.
- **4** Finally, a JMP is made to the default BRK handler to print out the error message.

The programs in the last few chapters are not really meant to show everything that can be done: they are really just an indication of the way that the BBC BASIC can be enhanced by overlaying procedures, or adding new commands and utilities.

Chapters [10](#page-163-0) and [11](#page-265-0) detail the routines inside the ROM, and the the other errors generated by BASIC, and these may give ideas for experimenting with more new command and functions, like graphics commands or statistical functions.

10 ROM Routines

Many of the tasks which need to be performed when dealing with the BASIC system are handled by standard routines inside the BASIC ROM. There are standard routines for expression evaluation, checking the syntax of lines, handling the memory allocation, and arithmetic routines. Although some of these will only be of use inside new statements and functions (like the 'Get character at PTRB' routine); many can be used from simple machine code programs, to allow floating point calculations to be performed, or accessing the variables passed by the BASIC 'CALL' statement, perhaps.

Note that these ROM routines can only be used if BASIC is paged in to &8000 to &BFFF. If the machine code program which uses them will be called from BASIC, using either the ["]CALL" statement or the 'USR' function, BASIC will be paged in. The programs in chapters [7](#page-99-0) to [9](#page-144-0) rely on this. However, BASIC will *not* be paged in if the program is called by using the '*RUN' command in any filing system which itself sits in a paged ROM (like DFS, for example): the filing system ROM will be paged in instead.

To check that the current paged-in ROM is BASIC, the RAM copy of the paged ROM select register (in location &F4) should be compared with the ROM number of the BASIC ROM. This can be found by using OSBYTE &BB (187). For example, this section of code will check that the current ROM is BASIC:

The BASIC ROM does not need to be paged in if the only part of the machine code program which is to be '*RUN' is the initialisation section, and that just needs to check the year of the BASIC ROM (but uses no ROM routines). If this is the case, the BASIC ROM slot number can be found using OSBYTE &BB

(187) as above, and the year byte found by using OSRDRM (&FFB9). For example, the following code will read the year byte of the BASIC ROM:

```
\Call OSBYTE &BB to read the ROM
                      \ socket number containing BASIC.
                      \setminus X and Y are set to read it without<br>\setminus modification.
      LDA #&BB<br>LDY #&FF<br>LDX #&OO<br>JSR osbyte
TXA \
TAY TAY NTransfer the ROM number into Y,
 LDA #&80 \ and call OSRDRM to read the byte
 STA &F7 \ at location &8015 in the BASIC ROM.
LDA #&15 \
STA &F6 \qquad \qquad \backslashJSR &FFB9
```
Note that OSRDRM was implemented for operating the '*ROM' filing system in paged ROMs, so use it with caution (as with most of the rest of the examples in this book!).

Throughout this section, I have used the names of many of the standard BASIC registers, rather than the actual memory they occupy. They are detailed in other parts of this book, but here is a summary of them:

IntA This is the integer accumulator which is held in page zero at &2A to $&2\overline{D}$ (LSB in &2A, MSB in &2D). It is used in integer calculations, and also to pass integer values between routines.

> The low 3 bytes of IntA (&2A to &2C) are also used to hold the *variable descriptor block* when handling variables. When being used for this, $&2A$ and $&2B$ point to the first byte of the variable value, and $&2C$ contains the variable type (for a description of the variable types, [see section 3.1.3](#page-54-0)). This variable descriptor block is sometimes used at &37 to &39 (if IntA is used to hold the value of the variable).

FPA This is the main floating point accumulator, which is held in page zero at $&2E$ to $&35$ ([see section 2.2.2](#page-32-0) for the floating point accumulator format). It is used in calculations involving real numbers (together with FPB), and also to pass real values between routines.

- **FPB** This is the secondary floating point accumulator, which is held in page zero at $&3B$ to $&42$. It is involved in most floating point calculations.
- **StrA** This is the string accumulator, which is held in page 6 $(\&600 \text{ to } \&6\text{FF})$. The current length of the string is held in location &36 in page zero. It is used in string manipulations, and to pass string values between routines.
- **PTRA** This is the primary text pointer. The base of the pointer is held in page zero in &B and &C, with the offset in &A. This is used mainly to parse the keyword at the start of a statement.
- **PTRB** This is the secondary text pointer. The base is held in $&19$ and $&1A$, with the offset in $&1B$. This is used mainly for expression evaluation.
- **STACK** This is the BASIC STACK which works downwards in memory from HIMEM. The STACK pointer is held in page zero in &4 and &5. It is used mainly to hold temporary results of calculations, and to save old values of parameters inside FNs and PROCs ([see section 5.3\)](#page-71-0).
- **HEAP** This is the BASIC variable HEAP which works upwards in memory from LOMEM. The HEAP pointer is held in page zero in &2 and &3. It is used to hold variables and FN and PROC locations (once found).

Summary

This list is a summary of the routines documented in this section, split into functional groups. Some of the routines have other entry points which are not listed here, but are included with the full description of the routine. For a summary of the ROM in numerical order, [see appendix B](#page-328-0).

BASIC1 BASIC2

10.1 Restarting BASIC

10.2 Program handling

10.3 Statement handling

10.4 Expression evaluation

10.5 Variable/FN/PROC management

10.6 STACK management

10.7 Input/output

10.8 Type conversion

10.9 Integer routines

10.10 Floating point routines

10.11 Function entry points

(Listed in [section 10.11\)](#page-263-0)

10.1 Restarting BASIC

These entry points allow BASIC to be re-started, rather than continuing with the execution of the program currently running. This may be necessary if, for example, the program has been altered or corrupted by the statement just executed (like DELETE, for example).

cstart – Cold start

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

PAGE points to the program area to be used

HIMEM points to the top of available memory

Exit conditions:

NON-RETURNING

Description

This entry has exactly the same effect as the BASIC 'NEW' command. It turns TRACE off, places the sequence &0D &FF in memory at PAGE, and sets TOP to be PAGE+2, before executing a warm start.

Other entry points

wstart – Warm start

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Resident program at PAGE

TOP points to the next available byte after the program

HIMEM points to the top of available memory

Exit conditions:

NON-RETURNING

Description

LOMEM and HEAP are set to TOP, the variables and FN/PROC lists are cleared, and STACK is reset to HIMEM. BASIC then enters immediate mode, and waits for a line to be input.

Other entry points

istart – Enter immediate mode

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Resident program at PAGE

TOP points to the next available byte after the program

LOMEM, HIMEM delimit the HEAP/STACK memory to be used

Exit conditions:

NON-RETURNING

Description

This entry has the same effect as the BASIC 'END' statement. The 'ON ERROR' pointer is reset, and a line is input into the keyboard buffer. If this starts with a line number, it is inserted into the program; otherwise the line is executed as an immediate command.

Other entry points

10.2 Program handling

These are general routines for manipulating the program currently in memory. Note that if the program is altered by inserting or deleting any lines, the HEAP may be corrupted, so a 'Warm start' should be executed to return to immediate mode and clear the variables.

tline – Tokenise a line

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Tokenised line starting at original position

&37–&3D undefined

Description

This routine tokenises the line pointed to by the pointer at &37,&38 and terminated by a carriage return. The tokeniser can be in several states initially, and these states are set by the flags in &3B and &3C before entering the routine. &3B tells the tokeniser if it is at the start of a statement (if a '*' is at the start,

the rest of the line is not tokenised); and $&3C$ tells the tokeniser whether to tokenise any numbers it finds, or to leave them as ASCII. The tokeniser follows several rules, and encountering a keyword (or not) may change the state. [See section 2.3](#page-38-0) for more on tokenising.

Other entry points

1 tline0 – Tokenise start of statement, no line numbers

This entry point sets both of the tokenising flags to zero, and zeros Y, before entering the main routine (i.e. tokenise from the start of a statement, but don't tokenise line numbers).

inslin – Insert line in program

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

&37–&3E undefined

TOP new top of program

Description

This routine inserts a line into the current program. On entry, the line to be inserted should be in the keyboard buffer (at &700 to &7FF), terminated by a carriage return. Y should point to the first character of the line to be inserted into the program (so that the line number itself can be missed out). The low 2 bytes of IntA should contain the line number. The routine will delete the old line if necessary, and then insert the new one if it is not empty. If there is not enough room for the line to be inserted, a 'LINE space' error ($ERR = 0$) will be generated.

Other entry points

dellin – Delete line in program

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

IntA: line number of line to be deleted

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine deletes a line from the current program. On entry, the line number of the line to be deleted should be in the low $\tilde{2}$ bytes of IntA (at &2A,&2B). If the line could not be found, the routine will exit with C set; otherwise, the line will be deleted, and the routine will exit with C clear.

Other entry points

schlin – Search for line in program

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

IntA: line number of line to be found

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine searches for a line in the program, given the line number in IntA. If it is found, the pointer at &3D,&3E is set to point to the length byte of the line (i.e. 1 before the text of the line), and C is cleared. If it is not found, C is set, and the pointer at &3D,&3E is left pointing at the carriage return on the end of the last line that had a smaller line number than the one being searched for.

Other entry points

run – Run a program

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Resident program at PAGE

Exit conditions:

NON-RETURNING

Description

This entry point does the same as the BASIC statement 'RUN'. It clears the variables (apart from the resident integers) and stacks, and starts executing the program from the beginning.

Other entry points

1 gstart – Goto start of program

This entry point starts executing the BASIC program in memory at PAGE, but it does not clear the variables or stacks first.

clear – Clear variables and stacks

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Valid PAGE, TOP, HIMEM

Exit conditions:

variables cleared

REPEAT, GOSUB, FOR stacks cleared

DATA pointer restored to PAGE

Description

This routine clears all variables and FN/PROC lists (except for the resident integers), and resets the HEAP and all BASIC stacks. It does the same as the BASIC 'CLEAR' statement.

Other entry points
clrstk – Reset stacks, restore data

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Valid PAGE, HIMEM

Exit conditions:

REPEAT, GOSUB, FOR stacks cleared

DATA pointer restored to PAGE

STACK set to HIMEM

Description

This routine resets the BASIC stacks, and restores the DATA pointer to PAGE.

Other entry points

seterl – Set up ERL

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

PTRA: base points to position of error

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine searches through the program, keeping track of the current line number, until it finds the line which the base of PTRA points to. It then sets ERL to the number of this line.

Other entry points

settop – Set up TOP, check 'Bad program'

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

BASIC program at PAGE

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine scans through the current program in memory, and sets TOP to point to the next free memory location after the end of it. If it could not follow the length bytes through to the end of the program, a 'Bad program' message will be generated, and a JMP will be made to immediate mode (istart).

Other entry points

10.3 Statement handling

These routines allow general handling of statements, using the syntax pointers PTRA and PTRB.

PTRA is mostly used for recognising statement keywords, and a few other special uses; it should not be used inside the expression evaluator (i.e. in functions) unless it is saved, and restored before returning. The base of PTRA is stored in &B and &C, with the offset in $\&$ A

PTRB is used for evaluating expressions, and most other general uses. The base of PTRB is stored in $&19$ and $&1A$, with the offset in $\&$ 1 $\&$

The base of both of these pointers normally points 1 character before the start of the text of the statement currently being executed (i.e. the \cdot); or the length byte of the line if it is the first statement on the line). These should not normally be changed during a statement, except at the end, when they will be set up to point to the next one by the 'Check end of statement' routine.

getcha – Get character at PTRA into A

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

PTRA: points to the character to be read.

Exit conditions:

PTRA: points to the next character to be read.

Description

This routine returns the first non-space character found at, or after, PTRA. The offset of PTRA is updated so that it points to the character after the one just read. The character returned by this routine can be re-read if necessary by a 'LDA $(\&B)$, Y'.

Other entry points

NONE

getchb – Get character at PTRB into A

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

PTRB: points to the character to be read

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine returns the first non-space character found at, or after, PTRB. The offset of PTRB is updated so that it points to the character after the one just read. The character returned by this routine can be re-read if necessary by a 'LDA $(\&19)$, Y'.

Other entry points

chksda – Check for end of statement

Execution address

Entry conditions:

PTRA: points at the end of the current statement.

Exit conditions:

Description

Starting at PTRA, if the first non-space character found is not a ':', a carriage return character, or an 'ELSE' token, then a 'Syntax error' ($ERR = 16$) will be generated. If it is one of these, then the base of PTRA will be updated to point to this character, and the offset set to 1. Thus PTRA will point to the first character after the statement delimiter. Finally, the escape flag is tested before returning, and an 'Escape' error (ERR $= 17$) will be generated if an escape condition exists.

Other entry points

1 chksdb – Check end of statement at PTRB

This uses the offset of PTRB instead of the offset of PTRA on entry. Providing that the base of PTRA has been copied into PTRB at some time during the statement, this entry point can be used to check for the end of the statement at PTRB.

cont – Continue execution

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

PTRA: base points to the statement delimiting character. $offset = 1$

Exit conditions:

NON-RETURNING

Description

This entry will test the statement delimiter at the base of PTRA. If it is an 'ELSE' token, the rest of the line will be skipped, and execution will continue on the next program line. Otherwise, execution will continue with the next statement or program line, giving a TRACE if necessary. If the end of the program has been reached (or the end of the line in immediate mode), a jump will be made to enter immediate mode.

Other entry points

1 contsd – Check end of statement, then continue

BASIC1 &8B09 BASIC2 &8B98

This calls 'check for end of statement' before dropping into the main routine. Entry conditions are as for 'check end of statement'.

skplin – Skip rest of line, then continue execution

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

PTRA: points at or before the CR on the end of the line.

Exit conditions:

NON-RETURNING

Description

This entry will skip the rest of the current line, and execution will continue on the next program line, giving a TRACE if necessary. If the end of the program has been reached, or the line was an immediate mode command, a jump will be made to enter immediate mode.

Other entry points

10.4 Expression evaluation

Expression evaluation is carried out using PTRB to scan the text. At each stage, the result is left in IntA, FPA, or StrA for the code which called the routine. If the type of the result is not what is required by the particular level (for example, an attempt to AND with a string), then a 'Type mismatch' error is generated. [See](#page-64-0) [chapter 4](#page-64-0) for more on expression evaluation.

getnsb – Get <numeric> or <string> at PTRB

Execution addr

BASIC1 &9B03 BASIC2 &9B29

Entry conditions:

PTRB: points to the next character to be read.

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine evaluates the \leq numeric \geq or \leq string \geq at PTRB (leading spaces will be ignored), and sets the 6502 flags according to the type of the result ([see chapter 4](#page-64-0) for more on expressions). PTRB will be updated to point to the character after the <numeric> or <string>. Nothing should be left in the accumulators ($&2A$ to $&36$), or in BASIC's temporary workspace $(\&37 \text{ to } \&4E)$, as this will be used by the routine. Any temporary results which need to be kept should be saved on the BASIC STACK, or in the 'free for users' zero page area (&70 to $&8F$). Note also, that because FN's can appear in a \leq numeric \geq or <string>, anything that can be set by a BASIC statement is liable to change. PTRA will be preserved by this routine (it is saved during execution of FNs and PROCs).

Other entry points

1 getnsa – Get <numeric> or <string> at PTRA

This entry copies PTRA into PTRB before entering the main routine. All other entry and exit conditions are the same.

getfsb – Get <factor> or <string-factor> at PTRB

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

PTRB: points to the next character to be read.

Exit conditions:

C undefined

Description

This routine evaluates the <factor> or <string-factor> at PTRB (leading spaces will be ignored), and sets the 6502 flags according to the type of the result ([see chapter 4](#page-64-0) for more on expressions). PTRB will be updated to point to the first character after the <factor> or <string-factor>. Nothing should be left in the accumulators (&2A to &36), or in BASIC's temporary workspace $(\&37 \text{ to } \&4E)$, as this will be used by the routine. Any temporary results which need to be kept should be saved on the BASIC STACK, or in the 'free for users' zero page area $(\&70 \text{ to }$ &8F). Note that FN's can be called inside this routine, so anything that can be set by a BASIC statement is liable to change.

Other entry points

1 getifb – Get integer <factor> at PTRB

BASIC1 &92E3 BASIC2 &9292

This entry calls the main routine, and then forces the result to be an integer. If the result is a string, a 'Type mismatch' error (ERR = 6) will be generated; if the result is real, it will be converted to an integer. Entry and exit conditions are as for the main routine, except that A and the flags will always indicate an integer result.

2 getrfb – Get real <factor> at PTRB

BASIC1 &92AC BASIC2 &92EB

This entry calls the main routine, and then forces the result to be real. If the result is a string, a 'Type mismatch' error $(ERR = 6)$ will be generated; if the result is an integer, it will be converted to a real number. Entry and exit conditions are as for the main routine, except that A and the flags will always indicate a real result.

getnmb – Get number at PTRB

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine gets the positive decimal integer at PTRB whose first digit has just been read using the 'Get character at PTRB' routine. If no number was found (i.e. the character in A on entry was not one of '0' to '9'), it will clear C and leave zero in FPA as a real result. If a number was found, it will be left in IntA or FPA, depending on the type ('200000' will be integer, '2E5' or '1.7' will be real).

Other entry points

getlna – Get a tokenised line number at PTRA

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

PTRA: points to the next character to be read.

Exit conditions:

If C=0 (no line number found):

If C=1 (line number found):

Description

This routine checks for a line number token (&8D) at PTRA (ignoring leading spaces). If it finds one, it gets the 3 bytes of tokenised line number following it into the low-order 2 bytes of IntA, and exits with C set. Otherwise, it exits with C clear. [See](#page-40-0) [section 2.3.2](#page-40-0) for the format of tokenised line numbers.

Other entry points

10.5 Variable/FN/PROC management

Named variables, and the location of FNs and PROCs are stored on the BASIC HEAP, which builds upwards from LOMEM. The HEAP pointer is stored at $&2,\&3$ in page zero, and points to the next available memory location for a variable or FN/PROC information block to be stored in. [See section 3.1](#page-48-0) for more on HEAP storage.

Each named variable stored on the HEAP has its own *variable information block*, which gives the name and value of the variable. These are chained together to form a linked list: one list for each possible first letter (A to z), and one each for FNs and PROCs. The format of the *variable information block* is:

The 'name' field does not include the first letter of the name if it is a variable (but it does if it is a FN or PROC). The name includes any '%', ' $\hat{\mathbf{s}}$ ', or '(' characters on the end of a variable name: these give the type of the variable.

Much of the variable handling is done using a *variable descriptor block*, which gives the location and type of the variable. This *variable descriptor block* has the following format (when in IntA):

Variable types can be:

- &00 single byte integer
- &04 4-byte integer
- &05 5-byte real number
- $&80$ static string terminated by a $&80D$
- &81 dynamic string (stored on the HEAP)

For the format of these variable types, [see section 3.1.3](#page-54-0).

fndvrb – Find variable at PTRB

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

If Z=0: (variable exists)

&2E–4E undefined

If Z=1,C=0: (non-existent variable)

&3A–3D undefined

If Z=1,C=1: (invalid variable)

(&37) points 1 before PTRB

Description

This routine looks for the variable which is at PTRB (this includes indirected variables like ?A or B!5). If the variable exists, it sets up the variable descriptor block in IntA. If it does not exist, but is a valid name, it sets up the pointer at &37,&38 with the length of the name in &39, ready to create it if necessary. If a non-existent array name is found, an 'Array' error $(ERR = 14)$ will be generated.

Other entry points

1 fndvra – Find variable at PTRA

BASIC1 &9595 BASIC2 &95C9

This entry first copies PTRA into PTRB, and then skips any leading spaces at PTRB, before entering the main routine. The exit conditions are the same.

2 fncvra – Find variable at PTRA, creating one if necessary

This entry calls entry point 1 above, and if a non-existent, but valid, variable name is found, it will create it and clear space for it on the HEAP. Its initial value will be zero (or the empty string). Exit conditions are the same as for the main routine (the variable may still be invalid).

rdvar – Read value of variable

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

IntA: variable descriptor block

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine gets the value of the variable given by the variable descriptor block in IntA, and transfers it to the relevant accumulator. This can also be used to get the value of parameters passed by the BASIC 'CALL' statement.

Other entry points

asvar – Assign string variable

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Value assigned to variable

HEAP: moved up if necessary

Description

This routine assigns the value in StrA to a static or dynamic string. In the case of a dynamic string, if the space allocated for the string is not large enough, a new space is allocated on the HEAP [\(see section 3.1.3](#page-54-0) for more on string allocation). A static string (one which is to be written into memory using the string indirection operator) will just be stored at the address given, terminated by a carriage return character (&0D). This routine can be used to set the value of string parameters passed by the BASIC 'CALL' statement. Both the variable and the value must be a string, as no test is made by this routine for type mismatch.

Other entry points

1 asvark – Assign variable on stack

This entry pulls the variable descriptor block from the STACK into IntA before entering the main routine. It should have previously been pushed on the STACK using the 'Push IntA' routine (pushi).

anvark – Assign numeric variable

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

STACK: variable descriptor block removed (4 bytes)

Value assigned to variable

&37–&3A undefined

Description

This routine assigns the value in FPA or IntA (type given in $&27$) to the variable whose variable descriptor block is on the STACK. This should have previously been pushed by the 'Push IntA' routine (pushi). This routine can be used to set the value of numeric parameters passed by the BASIC 'CALL' statement. If the type of the value (in $&27$) is a string, a 'Type mismatch' error $(ERR = 6)$ will be generated, but the variable type is not checked, and must be numeric.

Other entry points

1 asgtvr – Assign <numeric> to variable on stack

BASIC1 &B4DD BASIC2 &B4B1

This entry calls the 'Get <numeric> or <string> at PTRB' routine (getnsb), to set up the value and the type in $&27$, before entering the main routine. The variable descriptor block should still be on the STACK on entry. All temporary areas (&2A to &4E) will be undefined if this entry is used.

schvar – Search for variable in list

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

 $&3A-A3D$ undefined

If Z=0 (variable found):

 $(x2A)$ points to the variable value

Description

This routine searches for a variable name in the linked list. If found, it sets the low 2 bytes of the variable descriptor block in IntA to the address of the value of the variable. This routine is used by the main 'Find variable at PTRB' routine (fndvar).

Other entry points

lnkvar – Link in new variable

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

New variable information block linked in to HEAP.

Description

This routine links in a new variable infomation block to the linked list of variables on the HEAP ([see section 3.1](#page-48-0) for more on the HEAP). The MSB of the new link pointer is zeroed (to mark the end), and the name is transferred to the new block. The routine exits with the pointer at $&3A,3B$ pointing to the previous link pointer (which now points to the new block), so that this pointer can be re-set if there is not enough memory for the new block. This routine does not allocate any memory for the new block; this must be done with a call to the 'Clear space for information block' routine (clrib).

Other entry points

scnvn – Scan variable name

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

 $(k37)$ points 1 before the start of the name

X (see exit)

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine scans the variable name starting one byte after the pointer at (&37). Only the characters A–Z, a –z, (a) , and £ are allowed in variable names (and 0–9 after the first character). The special variable symbols ' \hat{s} ' and '%' are not recognised by this routine. This routine is used by the array handler and the FN/ PROC handler.

Other entry points

schfnp – Look for FN/PROC in list

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

&3A–&3D undefined

If Z=0 (FN/PROC found):

(&2A) points to the FN/PROC pointer field

Description

This routine searches for a given FN or PROC in the linked list on the HEAP. If found, it leaves the low 2 bytes of IntA pointing to the pointer field of the FN/PROC information block. This pointer field points to the first character after the FN or PROC name definition (i.e. the '(' if it has any parameters). [See section 3.1](#page-48-0) for HEAP storage.

Other entry points

lnkfnp – Link in new FN/PROC

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

New FN/PROC information block linked in to the HEAP.

Description

This routine links in a new FN or PROC information block to the linked list of FNs or PROCs on the HEAP ([see section 3.1](#page-48-0) for more on the HEAP). The MSB of the new link pointer is zeroed (to mark the end), and the name is transferred to the new block. The routine exits with the pointer at &3A,3B pointing to the previous link pointer (which now points to the new block), so that this pointer can be re-set if there is not enough memory for the new block. This routine does not allocate any memory for the new block; this must be done with a call to the 'Clear space for information block' routine (clrib).

Other entry points

clrib – Clear space for new information block

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Bytes cleared in information block given by X on entry

Description

This routine clears and allocates space on the HEAP for a variable or FN/PROC information block, once the pointer and name have been set up. On entry, Y (as an offset from the HEAP pointer) points to the last character of the name already in the information block, and X contains the number of bytes which need to be zeroed after it (including 1 for the name terminating byte). If the HEAP pointer is above the STACK pointer after the space for the block is allocated, then a 'No room' error is generated (message only in BASIC1, $ERR = 0$ in BASIC2). Because the bytes are cleared before the space check is made, the top of STACK contents will be destroyed if there is not enough room. This routine is called after the 'Link in new variable' (lnkvar) or 'Link in new FN/PROC' (lnkfnp) routines have set up the name and link pointer.

Other entry points

1 mvheap – Add Y to HEAP pointer

BASIC1 &94FF BASIC2 &9539

This entry point adds Y to the HEAP pointer. It does not zero any bytes. If the new HEAP pointer is above the STACK pointer, a 'No room' error is generated, otherwise the routine returns.

10.6 Stack management

The BASIC STACK pointer is maintained in page zero in $&04,&05$ and works downwards from HIMEM. It is used to hold temporary results, and information saved by FNs and PROCs. For more on the use of the STACK, [see section 3.2](#page-60-0).

pusha – Push IntA, FPA, or StrA on STACK

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Item pushed on STACK

Description

This routine tests the 6502 flags on entry to find the type of the item to be pushed on the BASIC STACK. It then pushes the appropriate accumulator (IntA, FPA, or StrA). Note that there is no way to tell the type of an item on the STACK, so this should be saved before this routine is called. If the STACK would be lowered below the level of the HEAP by pushing this item, a 'No room' error is generated (message only in BASIC1, ERR = 0 in BASIC2), and the item is not pushed.

Other entry points

1 pushi – Push IntA on STACK

This routine pushes IntA on the BASIC STACK, lowering the STACK pointer by 4 bytes. This can be used to save the variable descriptor block, which is sometimes held in IntA.

2 pushf – Push FPA on STACK

This entry pushes FPA on the BASIC STACK, lowering the STACK pointer by 5 bytes.

3 pushs – Push StrA on STACK

This routine pushes StrA on the BASIC STACK, lowering the STACK pointer by one more than the length of the string (the byte on the top gives the length of the string).

chksp – Check for STACK/HEAP clash

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

STACK: new value of STACK pointer to be tested

A copy of LSB of new STACK pointer, &4

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine tests the STACK pointer against the HEAP pointer. If the STACK is below the HEAP, a 'No room' error is generated (message only in BASIC1, $ERR = 0$ in BASIC2). If there is no clash, the routine returns.

Other entry points

1 lwrsp – Lower STACK pointer; check for HEAP clash

This entry point can be used if up to 255 bytes need to be allocated on the STACK. The LSB of the STACK pointer (in &4) should be loaded into A, and the number of bytes required should be subtracted from this. A call to this entry point will then save A as the LSB of the new STACK pointer, and decrement the MSB (in $&5$) if the subtraction had cleared the carry flag (i.e. if the number of bytes to be allocated was greater than the LSB of the STACK pointer). The main routine will then be entered to test for a HEAP clash.

popi – Pop IntA from STACK

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

STACK: points to the 4-byte integer to be popped

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine pops the 4-byte integer from the top of the STACK into IntA, and moves the STACK pointer up by 4 bytes to remove it.

Other entry points

1 rmvi – Remove integer from STACK

This entry moves the STACK pointer up by 4 bytes to remove the integer on the STACK. X and Y are preserved.

popi0 – Pop integer from STACK into page zero

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

STACK: points to the 4-byte integer to be popped

X points to the destination for the integer

Exit conditions:

00,X to 03,X holds the integer just popped

Description

This routine pops the 4-bytes on the top of the STACK into page zero at $00, X$ to $03, X$. It then moves the STACK pointer up by $\overline{4}$ bytes to remove it.

Other entry points

1 popi1 – Pop integer from stack into &37 to &3A

This entry sets X to $&37$ before entering the main routine.

popf – Pop real number from STACK; set up (&4B)

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

STACK: points to the 5-byte real number to be popped

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine pops a real number from the STACK, and moves up the STACK pointer by 5 bytes to remove it. It does not move the number into FPA, but it sets up the floating point memory pointer, $(\&4B)$, to point to it. If the number is to be saved, it should be loaded into FPA or FPB after this routine has been called.

Other entry points

pops – Pop StrA from STACK

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

STACK: points to the string to be popped

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine pops a string from the STACK into StrA, and moves the STACK pointer up by one more than the length of the string, to remove it from the stack (the length of the string is the first byte on the stack).

Other entry points

1 rmvs – Remove string from STACK

This entry gets the length of the string from the stack, and moves the STACK pointer up by one more than the length of the string (to allow for the length byte, which was also on the stack).

pshvvd – Push value and descriptor of variable on STACK

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

IntA: variable descriptor block

Exit conditions:

Value of variable pushed on STACK, followed by descriptor

Description

This routine gets the value of the variable pointed to by the variable descriptor block in IntA, and pushes it on the STACK. It then pushes the variable descriptor block, so the variable can be re-set later. This is used to save the old values of local variables (or parameters) for a FN or a PROC.

Other entry points
poppar – Pop old parameter value from STACK

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

&37–&39 variable descriptor block

STACK: points to the value to be popped

Exit conditions:

Value assigned to variable

Description

This routine is used to re-assign old values to parameters and local variable which have previously been saved on the STACK. It should NOT be used to assign new variables, because it assumes the allocated space for a string will be large enough (which it will be, if it came from there in the first place). It is used on a return from a procedure or function, to re-set old variable values.

Other entry points

10.7 Input/output

These routines are the input and output routines used in BASIC. The output routines all handle COUNT (in $&\&1E$) and WIDTH (in &23): COUNT is used by BASIC to keep track of the current cursor column to be used by TAB.

There is no routine to print a number from IntA or FPA: to do this the number can be converted to a string in StrA using the 'Type conversion' routines ([section 10.8\)](#page-223-0), and then StrA can be printed (there is not a routine for this either, but it is fairly simple). Input of numbers can also be accomplished by inputting a string, and then converting that to a number.

inputs – Input string from keyboard into StrA

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

NONE

Exit conditions:

&600– string input

&37–&3B used as the OSWORD parameter block

COUNT set to zero (in $&1E$)

Description

This routine calls OSWORD with A=&0 to input a line from the keyboard into StrA at &600 onwards. Maximum line length is 238 bytes; all characters with an ASCII value of less than &20 will not be put in the input line (i.e. the control characters). If the ESCAPE key terminated the input instead of a carriage return, an 'Escape' error (ERR $=$ 17) will be generated.

Other entry points

1 inputk – Input string into the keyboard buffer

This entry prints the character in A as a prompt, and sets the address for input to be $&700$ (the keyboard buffer) before joining the main routine. It is used for BASIC's immediate mode command input.

pchar – Print A as a character

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

A character to be printed

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine outputs the character in A using OSWRCH, and increments the value of COUNT. If COUNT has moved past WIDTH, the character will be printed on a new line, and COUNT will be reset.

Other entry points

1 pspace – Print a space

This entry loads A with a space $(\& 20)$ before entering the main routine.

2 pnewl – Print a newline

This entry point calls OSNEWL to print a carriage return and a line feed, and then zeros COUNT.

ptoken – Print A as a character or token

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

A character or token to be printed

Exit conditions:

COUNT updated, allowing for WIDTH if necessary

&37–&3A undefined

- X preserved
Y preserved
- Y preserved
C undefined *undefined*

Description

If the character in A is less than $&80$, it will be printed out as a character. Otherwise, it will be interpreted as a token, and the corresponding keyword will be printed from the token table. This routine will not handle a line number token, or any other invalid token (which may cause the routine to hang up). This routine is used by the 'LIST' and 'REPORT' statements.

Other entry points

phex – Print A as a 2-digit HEX number

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

A byte to be printed

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine prints the byte in A as a 2-digit HEX number (a leading zero will not be suppressed). This routine is used by the assembler, but has been re-located in BASIC2 to save space.

Other entry points

1 phexsp – Print HEX byte, followed by a space

This entry calls the main routine to print the 2-digit HEX number in A, and then prints a space after it. This leaves &20 in A on exit.

plnum0 – Print line number

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

IntA: line number to be printed

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine prints the line number in the low 2 bytes of IntA as a positive decimal number between 0 and 65535. No leading spaces are printed.

Other entry points

1 plnum5 – Print line number (field 5)

This entry uses a field width of 5 to print the line number: it will be padded with leading spaces if necessary. Location &14 will be set to 5 on exit.

10.8 Type conversion

These routines allow conversion between integers, reals, and strings.

The 'Integer to real' and 'Real to integer' routines are used throughout the expression evaluator in BASIC when the type of the number being dealt with needs to be converted. For example if an integer is being added to a real number, the integer must be converted to real before the addition is carried out.

The 'String to number' and 'Number to string' routines are used during input and output of numbers, as the I/O routines do not handle numbers directly.

citof – Convert integer to real number

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

IntA: integer to be converted

Exit conditions:

IntA: ABS value of original integer

Description

This routine converts the 2's complement (signed) integer in IntA to a real number in FPA.

Other entry points

NONE

catof – Convert A to real number

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine converts the 2's complement (signed) integer in A to a real number in FPA.

Other entry points

cftoi – Convert real number to integer

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

FPA: real number to be converted

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine converts the floating point number in FPA into an integer in IntA. If the number is too large to be converted to an integer, a 'Too big' error (ERR = 20) will be generated. On conversion, the ABS value of the number will be truncated, and then negated if necessary; this means that -1.9 ' will be converted to '−1' (try ' \vec{A} % = −1.9'). On exit, FPB mantissa contains the ABS value of the fractional part of the number (the top bit of &3E represents 0.5), and the sign of this fraction will be $\ln \&2E$, so this could be used to round the number properly afterwards, if necessary.

Other entry points

1 int – Take INT of FPA

BASIC1 &ACA5 BASIC2 &AC7F

This entry performs the equivalent of the BASIC function 'INT': it converts the floating point number to the highest integer which is less than or equal to it (i.e. '−1.9' gets converted to '1.9' gets converted to '1'). This routine will exit with $&40$ in A, and the Z and N flags clear, to signal an integer result (as if from the 'Get <factor> or <string-factor>' routine). To round a number to the nearest integer, 0.5 could be added to it before this routine is called.

cntos – Convert number to string

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine converts the number in either IntA or FPA to a string in StrA. If entered with bit 7 of $&15$ set, then a HEX number will be produced; otherwise a decimal number will be produced. The format of this number depends on the value of @% (refer to 'PRINT' in the *User Guide*). This routine uses most of the page zero temporary area, so any temporary results should be saved out of the way before this routine is called.

Other entry points

1 cntoh – Convert number to HEX string

This is the routine called if the hex flag (bit 7 of $& 15$) is set on entry to the main routine. This will convert the number to a hex string, ignoring the settings of ω % and &15. Y must still contain the type of the number (if it is real it will be converted to integer before the HEX string is generated). Any leading zeros will be suppressed. This entry only uses locations &3F to &46 for the conversion.

cston – Convert string to number

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

StrA: string to be converted

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine converts the ASCII decimal number in StrA into either a real number in FPA or an integer in IntA. It uses the 'Get number at PTRB' routine (getnmb), pointing PTRB into StrA, and restores PTRB to its original value afterwards. It leaves the 6502 flags indicating the type of the result (either integer or real).

Other entry points

10.9 Integer routines

Most of the integer arithmetic is performed using the 4-byte integer accumulator, IntA, which is held in page zero at $\&$ 2A to &2D (LSB in &2A, MSB in &2D). The multiplication and division routines also use two other 4-byte accumulators in the temporary storage area, at &39 to &3C and at &3D to &40.

IntA can be transferred to and from memory by using the variable handling routines in [section 10.5,](#page-194-0) with the variable descriptor block set up as if to point to an integer variable. It can be set to 0 or −1 by using the 'FALSE' and 'TRUE' entry points ([section](#page-263-0) [10.11\)](#page-263-0).

lodiay – Load IntA with A,Y

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

IntA: 16-bit positive integer from A,Y

Z=0, N=0 to signal an integer result

Description

This routine sets up IntA with the 16-bit positive integer in A and Y. The top 2 bytes of IntA are set to zero.

Other entry points

1 lodia – Load IntA with A

This entry sets Y to zero before entering the main routine; thus setting IntA to the 8-bit positive integer in A.

lodi0 – Load IntA from 00,X to 03,X

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

X points to 4-byte integer in page zero

Exit conditions:

IntA: 4-byte integer loaded from 00,X to 03,X

Z=0, N=0 to signal an integer result

Description

This routine loads IntA with the 4-byte integer in page zero pointed to by X.

Other entry points

stori0 – Store IntA at 00,X to 03,X

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

X points to 4-byte area in page zero

IntA: number to be transferred

Exit conditions:

00,X to 03,X contains the 4-byte integer in IntA

Description

This routine copies the contents of IntA into a 4-byte area of page zero pointed to by X.

Other entry points

negi – Negate IntA

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

IntA: 4-byte integer to be negated

Exit conditions:

IntA: negated 4-byte integer

 $Z=0$, N=0 to signify an integer result

A $\&40$ (result type = integer)
X preserved preserved
0 $\begin{matrix} Y & 0 \\ C & 0 \end{matrix}$ \mathcal{C}

Description

This routine negates the 4-byte integer in IntA.

Other entry points

1 absi – Take ABS value of IntA

BASIC1 &AD94 BASIC2 &AD71

This entry takes the absolute value of IntA. If it is negative, it will be negated; otherwise it will be unaffected. Exit conditions are as for the main routine.

addi – Perform integer addition

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

X anything except '+' or ' $-$ '

Exit conditions:

IntA: 4-byte signed integer result

integer popped from STACK

Description

This routine adds the 4-byte signed integer on the BASIC STACK to the 4-byte signed integer in IntA. No overflow check is made by this routine.

This routine is an integral part of the expression evaluator. The X register must be set to any character other than a '+', or a '−' before the routine is called, or it will attempt to read another part of the expression it expects to be at PTRB. X is its *one character look-ahead* ([see section 4.2\)](#page-64-0).

Other entry points

subi – Perform integer subtraction

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

X anything except '+' or ' $-$ '

Exit conditions:

IntA: 4-byte signed integer result

integer popped from STACK

Description

This routine subtracts the 4-byte signed integer in IntA from the 4-byte signed integer on the BASIC STACK. No overflow checking is made by this routine.

This routine is an integral part of the expression evaluator. The X register must be set to any character other than a '+', or a '−' before the routine is called, or it will attempt to read another part of the expression it expects to be at PTRB. X is its *one character look-ahead* ([see section 4.2\)](#page-64-0).

Other entry points

muli – Perform integer multiplication

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

multiplicand popped from STACK

Description

This routine multiplies the 4-byte signed integer in IntA by the 4-byte signed integer on the BASIC stack. The number in IntA must be between −32768 and +32767, as only the low 2 bytes are used, once its ABS value has been found. The routine does no checking for overflow, so it is a good idea to check for this before calling the routine.

This routine is an integral part of the expression evaluator. Location $&27$ must be set to any character other than a '*', a '/', a 'MOD' token or a 'DIV' token before the routine is called, or it will attempt to read another part of the expression it expects to be at PTRB. Location &27 is its *one character look-ahead* [\(see](#page-64-0) [section 4.2\)](#page-64-0).

Other entry points

NONE

divi – Perform integer division

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine divides the 4-byte integer in page zero at $&39$ to $&3C$ by the 4-byte positive integer in IntA $(\&$ 3D to $\&$ 40 must be set to zero on entry), leaving the result in $\&39$ to $\&3C$, and the remainder in &3D to &40. If IntA is zero on entry to this routine, a 'Division by zero' error (ERR = 18) will be generated.

If a signed division is required, the signed numbers should be converted to positive integers (using the 'Take ABS value of IntA' routine above) before this routine is called. The sign of the result can be calculated as the EOR of the signs of the two original operands (which should be saved before their ABS value is used for the division), and the result of the division then negated if necessary.

Other entry points

10.10 Floating point routines

Most of the floating point arithmetic is done using the main floating point accumulator FPA, at $&2E$ to $&35$, and the secondary floating point accumulator FPB, at &3B to &42 (in the page zero temporary storage area). The memory area used by FPB may be used for other purposes by routines which do not involve any floating point calculations. See [section 2.2.2](#page-32-0) for more on floating point number storage.

The format of the accumulators is:

FPA and FPB are transferred to and from memory using a pointer at &4B,&4C. Floating point numbers are packed into 5 bytes when stored out in memory.

movfab – Move FPA to FPB

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

FPA: number to be copied

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine copies the floating point number in FPA to FPB.

Other entry points

NONE

movfba – Move FPB to FPA

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine copies the floating point number in FPB to FPA.

Other entry points

ldfan0 – Load FPA with zero

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

NONE

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine sets the floating point accumulator FPA to zero.

Other entry points

ldfan1 – Load FPA with 1.0

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

NONE

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine sets the floating point accumulator FPA to 1.0.

Other entry points

ldfbn0 – Load FPB with zero

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

NONE

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine sets the floating point accumulator FPB to zero.

Other entry points

ldfam – Load FPA from (&4B)

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

(&4B) set to point to 5-byte packed real number

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine loads the floating point accumulator FPA from memory, unpacking it from its 5-byte packed format. On entry, the pointer at &4B,&4C points at the number to be loaded.

Other entry points

1 ldfat1 – Load FPA from &46C to &470

This entry pre-sets the memory pointer $(\&4B)$ to point to the real number temporary storage slot at &46C before entering the main routine.

ldfbm – Load FPB from (&4B)

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

(&4B) set to point to 5-byte packed real number

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine loads the floating point accumulator FPB from memory, unpacking it from its 5-byte packed format. On entry, the pointer at &4B,&4C points at the number to be loaded.

Other entry points

stfam – Store FPA at (&4B)

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

(&4B) points to 5-byte destination

Exit conditions:

Number stored at (&4B)

Description

This routine packs FPA into a 5-byte area of memory pointed to by the pointer at &4B,&4C. Note that the, number in FPA must be in normalised form (i.e. with the top bit of the MSB of the mantissa set) before this routine is called to store it in memory. FPA and $(\&4B)$ are preserved by this operation. There is no corresponding routine to store the contents of FPB into memory.

Other entry points

1 stfatx – Store FPA in floating point temp area

These entry points pre-set the memory pointer at $(\&4B)$ to point to a floating point temporary storage slot $(\&46C, \&471, \text{ or } \&476)$ before entering the main routine. These slots can be used to hold temporary results in the middle of complex calculations, but they should not be used if the expression evaluator is called, as this may use these areas itself.

exfam – Exchange FPA with number at (&4B)

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine exchanges the (normalised) number in FPA with the number pointed to by $(\&4B)$. It loads FPB from $(\&4B)$, stores FPA at $(\& 4B)$, and then copies FPB into FPA.

Other entry points

pntmtx – Point (&4B) at temp storage slot

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

NONE

Exit conditions:

(&4B) points to 5-byte temp store slot

Description

These routines set the floating point memory pointer in &4B,&4C to point to a temporary storage slot.

Other entry points

tstfa – Test FPA

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

FPA: number to be tested

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine tests the floating point accumulator FPA, and sets the Z and N flags of the 6502 according to the number.

Other entry points

nmlfa – Normalise FPA

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

FPA: number to be normalised

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine ensures that the number in FPA is in normalised form (i.e. it has the top bit of the MSB of the mantissa set). If it is not already normalised, it will shift up the mantissa of the number (correcting the exponent) until it is.

Other entry points

rcofa – Round FPA, and check overflow

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

FPA: number to be rounded

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine tests the low-order rounding byte of FPA mantissa $(held in \& 35)$, and rounds up the remaining 4 bytes of the mantissa if necessary. The low-order rounding byte is used for more accuracy in the middle of calculations, but must be rounded up into the rest of the mantissa before the number can be stored in memory in its packed format.

The routine then checks the exponent overflow byte (which is used to allow internal calculations to temporarily overflow the normal number limits). If this is zero, no overflow has occurred, and the routine exits; if it is negative, an underflow has occurred, and the number will be set to zero; and if it is positive (non-zero), an overflow has occurred, and a 'Too big' error $(ERR = 20)$ will be generated. This routine (together with normalising) ensures that FPA is ready to be stored in memory in its packed 5-byte format.

Other entry points

1 nrofa – Normalise, round and check overflow

This normalises FPA before entering the main routine above.

negfa – Negate FPA

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine negates the real number in FPA, and sets the flags to signal a real result.

Other entry points
addfba – Add FPB to FPA

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

FPA, FPB contain the numbers to be added

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine adds the floating point number in FPB to the floating point number in FPA, leaving the result in FPA, and normalises the result. If a subtraction is required, then the number to be subtracted should be negated (using the 'Negate FPA' routine above), and the resulting numbers can added together.

Other entry points

1 addmfa – Add number at $(\&4B)$ to FPA

This entry point loads the number at (&4B) into FPB before calling the main routine. On exit, the 'Round FPA and check overflow' routine is called to ensure that it is ready to be stored in memory (a 'Too big' error will be generated if it overflows).

2 subfam – Subtract FPA from number at $(\&4B)$

This entry point negates FPA before entering entry point 1 above. The result is left in FPA.

3 submfa – Subtract number at (&4B) from FPA

This entry point calls entry point 2 above, and then negates the result.

mulfab – Multiply FPA by FPB

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

FPA, FPB contain numbers to be multiplied

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine multiplies the real number in FPA by the real number in FPB, leaving the result in FPA. It does not test for either number being zero on entry, but it will still perform the multiplication correctly, even if one of them is (although it will be quicker if it is discovered before this routine is called). The result of the multiplication is not normalised (or tested for overflow), so the normalising routine should be called before it is written out to memory.

Other entry points

1 mulfam – Multiply FPA by number at $(\&4B)$

This entry point loads the number at (&4B) into FPB before calling the main routine. If either number is zero, the routine will exit with a zero result immediately.

2 mufamo – Multiply FPA by (&4B); check overflow

This entry point calls entry point 1 above, and then normalises the result. Finally, it rounds the low-order byte into the mantissa, and tests for overflow, generating a 'Too big' error ($\text{ERR} = 20$) if it is.

mufa10 – Multiply FPA by 10

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

FPA: number to be multiplied by 10

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine multiplies the number in FPA by 10. It is faster than the general 'Multiply FPA by FPB' routine, and does not use as much temporary memory. It does not test for the number being zero on entry, and will produce an invalid number if this is the case (although calling the 'Test FPA' routine afterwards will rectify it). If the number overflows, the 'exponent overflow byte' (held in &2F) will be incremented, but no error will be generated at this stage.

Other entry points

NONE

divfab – Divide FPA by FPB

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine divides the number in FPA by the number in FPB, leaving the result in FPA. FPA is then normalised, rounded, and checked for overflow. The routine does not test for either number being zero on entry: if the routine is entered with FPB zero, an invalid result will be obtained.

Other entry points

1 divfam – Divide FPA by number at (&4B)

This entry point divides FPA by the number in memory at $(\&4B)$, leaving the result in FPA. If the number at $(\&4B)$ is zero, then a Divsion by zero' error (ERR = 18) will be generated.

2 divmfa – Divide number at (&4B) by FPA

This entry divides the number at $(\&4B)$ by FPA, leaving the result in FPA. If FPA is zero on entry, a 'Division by zero' error $(ERR = 18)$ will be generated.

3 recfa – Take reciprocal of FPA (set FPA = 1/FPA)

This entry divides FPA into 1, leaving the result in FPA. If FPA is zero on entry, a 'Division by zero' error $(ERR = 18)$ will be generated.

dvfa10 – Divide FPA by 10

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

FPA: number to be divided by 10

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine divides the number in FPA by 10, leaving the result in FPA. The 'Round and check for overflow' routine should be called if the result of this is to be stored in memory, as an underflow may have resulted from this division. This routine is faster than the general 'Divide FPA by FPB' routine, and does not use as much temporary memory.

Other entry points

NONE

series – Perform series evaluation

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine performs the series evaluation required by some of the BASIC mathematical functions (e.g. SIN, EXP). On entry, the pointer in A (LSB) and Y (MSB) points to a list of constants to be used: the first byte of the list indicates 1 less than the number of 5-byte floating point constants in it. The algorithm that the series evaluator follows is:

 $A =$ first constant REPEAT $A = X/A + next constant$ UNTIL no more constants left

where X represents the argument passed to the series evaluator in FPA, and A is the eventual result.

Other entry points

NONE

fixfa – Convert FPA to fixed format

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

FPA: floating point number to be fixed

Exit conditions:

If $ABS(FPA) < 1$ on entry:

If $ABS(FPA) \geq 1$ on entry:

Description

This routine converts the floating point number in FPA into its integer and fractional parts. To find the integer part, the conversion truncates the ABS value of the original number, and then negates it if it was negative. This means that the integer part of '−1.9' found by this routine would be '−1' ([see 'Type](#page-223-0) [conversion routines': section 10.8](#page-223-0) for alternative conversion to integer). If the number is too large for an integer, a 'Too big' error ($ERR = 20$) will be generated. Note that the integer left in FPA mantissa will be in the opposite order to normal integers: the MSB will be in $&31$, and the LSB will be in $&34$.

If the ABS value of the original number is less than 1, then the fractional part (i.e. the original number) will be left as a complete real number in FPB. Otherwise, the ABS value of the fractional part will be left in the mantissa of FPB, with no exponent. This requires an exponent of &80 (representing $2⁰$, positioning the binary point just above the top bit of FPB mantissa) to be given to it, and the sign should also be transferred from the sign of FPA. The exponent should NOT be set if the number in FPB is already complete.

This routine can be used very easily to find the integer part of a number; but if it is to be used to to extract the fractional part, it may be better to test if the ABS value of FPA is less than 1 before calling it (alternatively, the next routine could be used).

Other entry points

NONE

fracfa – Extract fractional part of FPA

Execution addr

Entry conditions:

FPA: number to be used (normalised)

Exit conditions:

Description

This routine extracts the integer and fractional parts of the number in FPA, leaving the LSB of the (signed) integer part in &4A, and the fractional part as a real number in FPA. The original number will be rounded to the nearest integer, so that the fractional part will be between −0.5 and +0.5. A 'Too big' error $(ERR = 20)$ will be generated if the number is too large to fit in a 4-byte integer, but no test is made to check if it is outside the range of a single byte (the other 3 bytes of the integer part are lost).

Other entry points

NONE

10.11 Function entry points

This is a list of the equivalent entry points for the easily accessible BASIC functions. Some of the other functions require more than one argument, and others cannot be used outside the environment of the expression evaluator.

The 'Argument' column gives the type of the item which will be operated on by the function. The possibilities are:

Note that if the function expects a numeric, the N and Z flags should specify the type on entry (as if the 'Get <factor> or <string-factor>' routine had just been used).

On exit from these routines, the result will be in IntA, FPA, or StrA, depending on the result. The type of the result will be in A $(\&00=string, \&40=integer, \&FF=real).$

11 Errors and Error Recovery

The method that BASIC uses to generate an error is to execute a BRK instruction, which is followed by the error number and error message in the following format:

> BRK instruction to generate the error Single byte error number (ERR) Error message (like 'Mistake') A zero byte to terminate the message

The first section of this chapter describes the default BRK handler in BASIC, and what normally happens when an error is generated. The subsequent sections detail the errors which BASIC can generate, and any recovery from them (if possible), so that they can be intercepted in a similar way to the methods used in chapters [7](#page-99-0) to [9.](#page-144-0)

11.1 The BASIC BRK handler

The Machine Operating System contains a BRK handler, which prints out the error message and restarts the current language. However, BASIC uses its own, so that it can allow errors to be trapped using the 'ON ERROR' statement.

BASIC keeps an 'ON ERROR' pointer in locations &16,&17 in page zero, which is normally set to point to the default error handler (in the ROM). This pointer tells the BASIC BRK handler the location of a set of BASIC statements which will deal with the error.

BASIC resets it to point to the default error handler every time it enters immediate mode (either when it initialises, or when it has finished executing a program), or whenever an 'ON ERROR OFF' statement is executed. When an 'ON ERROR' statement is executed, this pointer will be pointed at the start of the statements on the rest of the line, so that these will be executed when an error occurs.

The other advantage that BASIC gains by using its own error handler, is that the error messages can be tokenised. This means that keywords which appear in error messages (like the 'RENUMBER' in 'RENUMBER space') only take up 1 byte. The 'REPORT' statement, which is used to print out the error message, will convert these tokens into the correct keyword and print them out fully (this uses the 'ptoken' ROM routine).

The action of the BASIC 1 BRK handler is:

- **1** Set up ERL. The base of PTRA will be at the start of the statement which caused the error, so a search is carried out through the program, keeping the line numbers, until the error line is found.
- **2** Turn TRACE off.
- **3** Load the 'ON ERROR' pointer into PTRA, and start executing the statements making up the error handler by jumping to the 'Decode and execute command' entry. This executes the statements as if they had just been typed in as a command.

The default ERROR handler for BASIC1 reads:

```
 REPORT:IF ERL<>0 PRINT" at line ";ERL;
0 PRINT:END
```
The BASIC2 BRK handler has been changed slightly from the BASIC1 version; it will not allow commands to be part of the error handler. This means that you can't do 'ON ERROR LIST' with BASIC2; but it does also stop 'ON ERROR 10' (which may have been mistyped for 'ON ERROR GOTO 10') which corrupts the program, giving a 'Bad program' error.

The action of the BASIC 2 BRK handler is:

- **1** Set up ERL.
- **2** Turn TRACE off.
- **3** If the error number (ERR) is 0, the error is *fatal* (not to be trapped by an ON ERROR statement), so set the 'ON ERROR' pointer to point to the default error handler (i.e. perform 'ON ERROR OFF').
- **4** Load the 'ON ERROR' pointer into PTRA, ready to execute it later.
- **5** Clear the BASIC stacks, and restore the DATA pointer. This is done in BASIC1 in the 'Decode and execute command' routine.
- **6** Abandon the VDU queue (OSBYTE &DA). This is so that the first few characters of the error message to be printed will not be used as part of a multi-character VDU command (like VDU 19 or VDU 23).
- **7** Acknowledge an ESCAPE condition. In BASIC 1, this is done by the 'Decode and execute command' routine.
- **8** Set the OPT value to &FF (default).
- **9** Execute the BASIC statements of the error handler at PTRA, as if they are part of a program.

The default ERROR handler for BASIC2 reads:

REPORT:IF ERL PRINT" at line ";ERL:END ELSE PRINT:END

Note that the 'REPORT' statement is slightly different for each BASIC: in BASIC1 a VDU 6 command is sent before the error message is printed; in BASIC2 the error message is just printed. This means that if a program turns the screen off using a VDU 21 command, in BASIC1 any error messages will be printed on the screen, but in BASIC2 it will not.

11.2 Numbered errors

The errors detailed in this section have error numbers associated with them, and can be trapped by the BASIC 'ON ERROR' statement.

These can be recognised easily by a BRK handler, as &FD,&FE will point at the error number when the BRK handler is entered. Chapters [7](#page-99-0) to [9](#page-144-0) show how some of these errors can be intercepted.

Error 1 – Out of range

This error is generated by the assembler when the address supplied to a branch instruction is too far away: it should be within -126 to $+129$ bytes of the branch instruction itself (i.e. within −128 to +127 of the instruction which would be executed if the branch did not take place).

This error (and the 'No such variable' error) will be suppressed if 'OPT 0' or 'OPT 1' is used in the assembler (i.e. bit 1 of OPT is zero). In this case, a displacement of 0 will be used for the branch, and assembly will be allowed to continue. However, due to the way in which the test for this bit is carried out, the 'Out of range' error will *only* be suppressed if the OPT setting used is either 0 or 1. In BASIC2, setting bit 2 of the OPT value enables remote assembly ([see section 1.6.1\)](#page-27-0); so if this facility is being used, this error will not be suppressed.

This error is recoverable, so that assembly can continue, although recovery should only be attempted if remote assembly is being used (in BASIC2).

Error conditions: (BASIC2 only)

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 1
- **2** Bit 1 of the current OPT value (bit 0 of A) is 0

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack
- **2** Set A to zero
- **3** JMP to &86A5 (BASIC2 only)

This will use a zero displacement for the branch, and assembly will continue.

Error 2 – Byte

This error is generated by the assembler when a 2-byte value is used where only a single byte is allowed (the most significant 2 bytes of the 4-byte integer are ignored). The addressing modes which only allow a single byte are:

Recovery should not normally be attempted from this error, as potentially fatal mistakes in an assembler program may not be spotted; however it is possible to recover and just use the LSB of the 2-byte word as the byte if required.

Error conditions:

Recovery should only be attempted if:

1 The error number at (&FD) is 2

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack
- **2** JMP to &8669 (BASIC1) or &86A8 (BASIC2)

This will use only the LSB of the 2-byte value as the byte for the instruction, and assembly will continue.

Error 3 – Index

This error is generated by the assembler if it finds an error in the syntax of any of the indexed addressing modes. The main causes of this are:

- (a) The absence of an index in one of the indexed indirect modes. For example, 'LDA (&80)' will cause this error.
- (b) A comma was found after the data, but no 'X' or 'Y' was found after the comma. For example, 'LDA &80,Z' will cause this error
- (c) The wrong index register was used for this particular instruction. For example, 'LDY &80,Y' is not allowed.

Error conditions:

This error is not recoverable.

Error 4 – Mistake

This error is generated by BASIC when an equals sign, $=$, is not found after the first item of an assignment statement.

The usual cause of this is the mis-typing of a keyword at the start of a statement. When BASIC attempts to interpret the statement, it does not find a keyword, so it assumes that the item is a variable. When it doesn't find the $=$ after it, it generates a 'Mistake' error. By trapping this error, it is possible to add in new statements or commands to the language [\(see chapter 7](#page-99-0)).

There are, in fact, 5 slightly different causes of a 'Mistake':

- (a) A non-existent, but valid, variable name was found at the start of a statement, but the first non-space character after it was not $a' =$.
- (b) An existing variable was found at the start of a statement, but the first non-space character after it was not a $=$. This looks the same as (a) above, but a slightly different action is taken by the BASIC interpreter.
- (c) A 'LET' followed by a valid variable name was found, but no '=' was found after the variable.
- (d) A pseudo-variable (like 'HIMEM') was found at the start of a statement, but no $=$ was found after it.
- (e) A 'FOR' was found, followed by a valid variable name, but no $=$ was found after the variable.

Note that if an invalid symbol is found at the start of a statement, and not a valid variable name, then a 'Syntax error' (error 16) will be generated instead.

Error conditions:

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at (&FD) is 4
- **2** The name at the start of the statement can be recognised as a new command or statement keyword. To attempt this, a pointer could be constructed which points at the character one before PTRA, and recognition attempted from there. [See section 7.4](#page-108-0) for more on recognising keywords.

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack
- **2** Pull the 2 bytes of return address from the stack
- **3** If the first character of the statement was a pseudo-variable token (case (d)), then pull the other 2 bytes of return address from the stack. Normally a statement with a pseudo-variable at the start will not be recognised as a new command (unless one of the new keywords contains the token for it at the front), so this step does not need to be taken.
- **4** The action of the new statement can now be performed. This should be a call to the 'Check for end of statement' routine at $&9810$ (BASIC1) or $&9857$ (BASIC2), to set up the pointers ready to continue with the next statement.
- **5** Finally, after the action of the new statement has been completed, execution of the rest of the program can be continued with a JMP to &8B0C (BASIC1) or &8B9B (BASIC2). Alternatively, a restart of BASIC may be performed; this may be necessary if the program currently being run has been changed (by deleting a line, perhaps), as the syntax pointers may not point to the correct part of the program.

Note that pseudo-variables are not tokenised if followed by an alphanumeric character ([see section 2.3.1](#page-38-0)). This means that new commands may include these at the start of the new keyword (TIMER', for example).

Error 5 – Missing ,

This error is generated by BASIC if it fails to find a comma where one is required. Most of the functions which expect a comma separating their arguments will give this error if it is missing. For example, $A = POINT(X)$ will cause this error.

Error conditions:

This error is not recoverable.

Error 6 – Type mismatch

This error is generated by BASIC if a string value was found where a number was expected, or a number was found where a string was expected. There are many ways that this error can be caused, including assigning a string to a number (and vice-versa) or giving the wrong type of argument to a function.

Error conditions:

This error is not recoverable.

Error 7 – No FN

This error is generated by BASIC when an equals sign is found at the start of a statement (signalling a return from a FN), but a FN is not currently being executed. The FN return routine only decides that a FN is in progress if the 6502 stack pointer is below &FC, and there is a FN token $(AA4)$ as the first item on the stack, at &1FF. [See section 5.3](#page-71-0) for more on FNs and PROCs.

When inside a FN, the 6502 S register should be &F5 (the next available byte), and the contents of the stack should be:

Note that the stack is 'upside down': the *top of stack* works downwards in page 1. Note also that the parameter values are stored on the BASIC STACK, rather than the 6502 stack.

[Section 8.3](#page-135-0) illustrates how this error can be used to throw away an overlayed FN when it exits, by substituting a different byte on the bottom of the 6502 stack when the FN is called.

Error conditions:

Y undefined

Recovery should only be attempted if:

2 The condition of the stack due to which the error occurred can be determined.

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack.
- 2 Evaluate the \leq numeric $>$ or \leq string \geq following the \leq , and check that it is at the end of the statement.
- **3** If we are in a FN (but it had been 'hidden' by changing the token at &1FF, for example) then executing an RTS will exit from the FN. The result of the FN should be in IntA, FPA, or StrA, with the result type stored in &27 (this is done automatically by the 'Get <numeric> or <string>' routine).

Note that the recovery performed in [section 8.3](#page-135-0) is more complex than this, as it also has to throw away the FN from the STACK.

Error 8 – \$ range

This error is generated by BASIC if an attempt is made to use the string indirection operator to assign or read from a string in page zero. For example, the statement 'PRINT \$80' will cause this error.

It is possible to recover from this error to allow strings to be *assigned* in page zero, but it is not possible to *read* from a page zero string that has 'got through' the \$ range check. If the BASIC 'Get value of variable' routine discovers that the address of an indirected string is only a single byte (i.e. in page zero), it will interpret it as 'CHR\$' instead. Thus, if this error is being recovered, 'PRINT \$&70' will behave the same as 'PRINT CHR\$&70' (although '\$&70=A\$' will place A\$ at location $&70$ onwards). This mechanism does not appear to have any possible use in BBC BASIC, as it should not allow the address of strings to be less than &100. However, the BASIC on the Acorn ATOM used '\$' with a single-byte number instead of 'CHR\$', so it could be left over from this.

Error conditions:

Recovery should only be attempted if:

1 The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 7

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack.
- **2** Set the type of of the variable to be a defined string, by storing $\&80$ in location $\&2C$ (the 'type' byte of the variable descriptor block).
- **3** Clear the Z flag (this may have been done already), and set the C flag: this indicates that a valid string variable has been found ([see 'Find variable' in section 10.5](#page-195-0)).
- **4** Execute an RTS instruction, to return to the code which called the 'Find variable routine'.

Error 9 – Missing "

This error is generated by BASIC if the end of the line is found before the closing quote mark of a string. Anything which uses quoted strings (i.e. READ, INPUT, and the 'Get <string-factor>' routine) can cause this error.

Error conditions:

This error is not recoverable.

Error 10 – Bad DIM

This error is generated by BASIC if an error is encountered in a 'DIM' statement. The possible causes of this are:

- (a) An attempt is made to re-dimension an array which already exists
- (b) One of the dimensions of the array is either negative, or greater than &3FFF
- (c) The total number of bytes required by the array is greater than &FFFF
- (d) The size given to a 'reserve bytes' DIM is either less than −1, or greater than &FFFE
- (e) An invalid variable name is found as the DIM subject

[See also error 11 – 'DIM space'.](#page-280-0)

Error conditions:

This error is not recoverable

Error 11 – DIM space

This error is generated by BASIC if there is not enough memory for the space required by a 'DIM' statement. This can be caused by:

- (a) The new value of the HEAP pointer calculated for an array would be above the BASIC STACK, or would have 'wrapped round' the memory map
- (b) The new value of the HEAP pointer calculated for a 'reserve bytes' DIM would be above the BASIC STACK; no test for wrap-round is made (so 'DIM A% &FFFE' will move the HEAP pointer down by 1 byte).

If the DIM statement runs out of memory while it is allocating space for the *name* of the array on the HEAP, then a No room' error will be produced instead.

This error can only be recovered if more space can be allocated somehow (by forcing a MODE change and shifting the STACK, perhaps).The two possible causes of this error, (a) and (b), must be recovered differently.

Error conditions:

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at (&FD) is 11 (&B)
- **2** The new HEAP pointer (in A,Y) is above the BASIC STACK pointer. If it is not, the HEAP pointer has wrapped round over the top of the memory, and recovery should be aborted.
- **3** The BASIC STACK can be shifted up out of the way, so that there is enough room for the new HEAP.
- **4** The STACK has not already been corrupted by the array header information. In case (a), the 'offset' byte pointed to by the old HEAP pointer gives the number of bytes already written on to the HEAP; if these would be above STACK, then the STACK has been corrupted. In case (b) there is no header information.

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the 6502 stack.
- 2 Shift the BASIC STACK so that the STACK pointer is above the required new HEAP pointer (moving the HEAP would be more tricky, due to all the pointers which point into it).
- **3** Test if the pointer in locations &37 and &38 is equal to the pointer in locations $&2$ and $&3$: if it is, then the error is due to (a); otherwise it is due to (b).
- **4** If the error is due to (a), execute a JMP to &91A0 $(BASIC1)$ or $\&91EB$ $(BASIC2)$; if it was due to (b), execute a JMP to &90B5 (BASIC1) or &9108 (BASIC2).

The new HEAP value will be set, and the DIM statement will continue (the DIM'd area will also be cleared if it is for an array).

Error 12 – Not LOCAL

This error is generated by the BASIC 'LOCAL' statement if a FN or PROC is not currently being executed.

BASIC decides that a FN or PROC is not in progress, if the 6502 stack pointer is &FC or above. [See section 5.3](#page-71-0) for more on PROCs and FNs.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 13 – No PROC

This error is generated by BASIC when an 'ENDPROC' statement is found, but a PROC is not currently being executed. The ENDPROC handler only decides that a PROC is in progress if the 6502 stack pointer is below &FC, and there is a \angle PROC token $(\&$ F2) as the first item on the stack, at $\&$ 1FF. [See section](#page-71-0) [5.3](#page-71-0) for more on FNs and PROCs.

When inside a PROC, the 6502 S register should be &F5 (the next available byte), and the contents of the stack should be:

Note that the stack is 'upside down': the 'top of stack' works downwards in page 1. Note also that the old parameter values are stored on the BASIC STACK, rather than the 6502 stack.

[Section 8.3](#page-135-0) illustrates interception of this error to remove an overlayed PROC from the STACK when it exits, by changing the token on the bottom of the stack when it is called.

Error conditions:

X copy of S (after TSX)
Y undefined undefined

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 13
- **2** The condition of the stack which caused the error can be determined.

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack.
- **2** Call the routine to 'Check end of statement at PTRA', at &9810 in BASIC1 or &9857 in BASIC2.
- **3** If we are in a PROC (but it had been 'hidden' by changing the token at &1FF, for example), executing an RTS will exit from the PROC. This could be done by JMPing to the 'Check end of statement' routine instead.

Error 14 – Array

This error is generated by the BASIC 'Find variable' routine. It will be caused either if an array name is referenced which has not already been dimensioned; or if the array referenced has fewer dimensions than the one in the original DIM statement (if it has more than the one in the DIM statement, a 'Missing)' error will be generated).

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 15 – Subscript

This error is generated by the BASIC 'Find variable' routine, if the subscript which is used with an array is out of range. This can be caused if the subscript is negative, or if it is larger than the subscript which the array was DIM'd with.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 16 – Syntax error

This error is generated by the BASIC 'Check for end of statement' routine if the end of a statement was not found. It can also be caused if the first character of the statement is not a statement token, a variable name, or a special symbol (like '*', ϵ '=', or ϵ '['); as BASIC will assume that it is dealing with an empty statement. For example, 'COUNT' at the start of a statement will generate a 'Syntax error'. It will also be caused if an invalid variable name was found after a 'LET'.

In BASIC1, this error can also be caused if the $\#$ is missing after a statement or function which expects a file handle. BASIC2 has the new error 'Missing $#$ ' (error $\overline{45}$) for this condition.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 17 – Escape

This error is generated by the BASIC 'Check for end of statement' routine (or the last part of it ,which tests the ESCAPE flag in &FF) if an ESCAPE condition is active (i.e. the ESCAPE key has been pressed).

If this error is to be recovered from (ignored), then the ESCAPE condition should be acknowledged with a call to OSBYTE &7E before continuing (or it could be just cleared by OSBYTE &7C). If this is not done, then the escape condition will still be active on return to the BASIC interpreter; and it will generate this error again at its earliest opportunity.

A better way of 'recovering' from this error is to disable the ESCAPE key, to prevent the error from being generated in the first place.

Error conditions

Recovery should only be attempted if:

1 The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 17

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack.
- **2** Call OSBYTE &7E (or OSBYTE &7C) to acknowledge the ESCAPE condition.
- **3** Execute an RTS

Error 18 – Division by zero

This error is generated by the BASIC division routines if the divisor of the the attempted division is zero.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 19 – String too long

This error is generated by BASIC if an attempt is made to form a string longer than 255 characters. This can either be caused by concatenating 2 long strings together, or by the STRING\$ function creating a string which is longer than 255 bytes. Note that only the LSB of the number sent to the STRING\$ command is used; so STRING\$(260,"*") will produce a string of 4 asterisks, but $STRINGS(130,$ ***") will produce an error.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.
Error 20 – Too big

This error is generated by BASIC if an overflow occurs. This can be due to:

- (a) A floating point number has overflowed after the end of a calculation. This is discovered by the 'Round and check for overflow' routine, before the floating point number is written out to memory (or to one of the temporary stores).
- (b) An attempt was made to 'fix' (i.e. convert to integer) a number which would not fit into a 32-bit 2's complement integer.

Note that this error is not generated when two 32-bit integers are added or subtracted: if an overflow happens here, it will go undetected (try 'PRINT 200000000+20000000000').

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 21 – -ve root

This error is generated by BASIC if the 'SQR' routine is given a negative argument. ASN and ACS can also generate this error (if the ABS value of their argument is greater than 1), because they are derived from ATN using the SQR routine:

> $A SN(Y) = A T N(Y/SOR(1-Y*Y))$ $ACS(X) = PI/2 - ASN(X)$

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 22 – Log range

This error is generated by BASIC if the 'LN' routine is given a negative or zero argument. LOG can also generate this error, as it is derived from LN:

 $LOG(X) = LN(X)/LN(10)$

(BASIC stores 1/LN(10) as a constant, and uses a multiply to convert the LN to a LOG.)

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 23 – Accuracy lost

This error is generated by the BASIC SIN, COS, or TAN routines if the binary exponent of the floating point argument is &98 or greater. If it is, then at least 24 of the 32 bits in the mantissa make up the integer part of the number, leaving only 8 bits (or less) for the fractional part. This gives a resolution of worse than 1/256 (0.004) in the result from a SIN or COS (and all of this from the least significant byte).

The angle given to these trigonometric routines is reduced to the range $\overline{0}$ to PI/2 by subtracting a multiple of PI/2 from it. This does not introduce a significant amount of extra inaccuracy, as BASIC stores a more accurate (41 bits) −PI/2 as 2 separate numbers: a 'coarse' −PI/2, and an accurate adjustment to it.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 24 – Exp range

This error is generated by BASIC if an attempt is made to take the EXP of a number greater than or equal to 89.5. However, using EXP with an argument between 88 and 89.5 will produce a 'Too big' error. This error can also be generated by the exponentiation operator, as it is derived from the EXP and LN functions:

 Δ ^A $B = FXP(R*LM(\Delta))$

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 25 – Bad MODE

This error is generated by the BASIC 'MODE' statement if there is not enough room for the new MODE above the HEAP or the TOP of the BASIC program, or if the BASIC STACK is not empty; i.e. if an attempt is made to change MODE inside a FN or a PROC. HIMEM and the STACK pointer are reset by a MODE change, and if this happened inside a FN or PROC, BASIC would probably crash on exit (like it does if you set 'HIMEM' inside a FN or PROC).

It is possible to recover from this error and perform the MODE change if the BASIC STACK can be preserved. This can be achieved by either shifting it to where the new HIMEM is, or (more simply) by leaving HIMEM where it was, and only allowing MODE changes which leave the bottom of screen memory higher than this. [See section 9.1](#page-144-0) for a 'Bad MODE' trap program.

Error conditions

&2A Prospective MODE number (LSB of IntA)

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 25
- **2** The bottom of the new MODE (found using OSBYTE $&85$) would not be below the top of the HEAP
- **3** The bottom of the new MODE would not be below TOP
- **4** The contents of the BASIC STACK can be preserved

To recover from the error:

- **1** Check that the bottom of the new MODE would not be below the current HIMEM, and abort the MODE change if it would be.
- **2** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack.
- **3** Pull the MODE change character from the 6502 stack, and print it (using OSWRCH)
- **4** Get the new mode number from &2A, and send that to OSWRCH
- **5** Continue with the execution of the BASIC statements by making a JMP to the 'Continue execution' routine at &8B0C (BASIC1) or &8B9B (BASIC2).

This will allow a MODE change inside a FN or PROC, although HIMEM must be brought down below the bottom of the lowest MODE first. It will always allow a MODE change to a smaller mode. It should also be possible to allow mode changes to a larger mode without previously allocating the space, but that would involve shifting the BASIC STACK bodily, and repointing the STACK pointer.

Error 26 – No such variable

This error is generated by the BASIC 'Get <factor> or <stringfactor>' routine if it tries to read the value of a variable which doesn't exist. If the assembler is being used with an OPT value which has bit 1 cleared (i.e. OPT 0, 1, 4, 5), this error will be suppressed , and the current value of P% will be returned by the 'Get <factor>' routine instead. This error is suppressed if OPT 4 or 5 is used (unlike error 1 'Out of range').

By trapping this error it is possible to to add new functions to BASIC. Note, however, that the first character to be found after the name of the function must not be a '(', or BASIC will think that it is an array, and generate the 'Array' error instead (this is much more difficult to recover from). Bracketed expressions can be included after a new function, but the first '(' must be separated from the function name by a space.

Error conditions

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 26
- **2** The C flag is 0, signalling that a valid (but non-existent) variable name was found (unless you are trying to recognise a special symbol).
- **3** The name can be matched with the name of a new function. The length of the function name should be the same as that in &39 (if it is not, PTRB will have to be adjusted to point after the function name). Note that the first character of the name can be read by the sequence:

 LDY #1 LDA (&37),Y

To recover from the error:

- **1** Ensure that the non-existent variable is actually a new function; if it is not, recovery should be aborted.
- **2** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack.
- **3** Evaluate the function, and place the value in IntA, StrA, or FPA (depending on the type).
- **4** Load A with a byte which signals the type of the value of the function. This should be the last action performed before returning, as it sets the Z and N flags which will be tested by the code which is returned to. The type bytes are:

5 Execute an RTS.

This will return the value of the new function to the code which called the 'Get <factor> or <string-factor>' routine.

Error 27 – Missing)

This error is generated by BASIC if a closing bracket is expected, but none is found. This can either be caused by leaving off the '', or by sending too many arguments to a function, or too many dimensions to an array.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 28 – Bad HEX

This error is generated by BASIC if the first character after an '&' was not a hexadecimal digit (i.e. 0 to 9, or A to F).

It is possible to recover from this error (if, for example, you want an $\langle \hat{\mathbf{\alpha}} \rangle$ by itself to mean 0)

Error conditions

Recovery should only be attempted if:

1 The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 28

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack.
- **2** Load A with &40, to signal that the type of the result is an integer.
- **3** Execute an RTS.

This will return 0 to the code which called the 'Get <factor> or <string-factor>' routine, if no HEX character followed the '&'.

Error 29 – No such FN/PROC

This error is generated by BASIC if an attempt is made to access a FN or PROC which is not defined inside the program. First, the FN/PROC handler tries to find it in the list on the HEAP; if it isn't found, it looks through the program for the definition; if it still doesn't find it, this error is generated.

If this error is trapped, it is possible to overlay procedures and functions from disc, for example, and continue execution. Any routine which attempts to recover from this error should be *very* careful with the state of the 6502 stack, as the FN/PROC routine is in the middle of saving the information it needs to enable it to return properly at the end of the PROC or FN. [See chapter 8](#page-129-0) for more on overlaying FNs and PROCs.

Error conditions

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 29
- **2** The FN or PROC can be overlayed (from disc, for example).
- **3** The FN or PROC is of the correct type (the token is held in location &1FF)

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack.
- **2** Save PTRA base on the stack, by pushing the contents of $&B$ followed by the contents of $&C$.
- **3** Load the FN or PROC to be overlayed, allocating space for it as necessary.
- **4** Restart the FN/PROC handler, to execute the FN or PROC.

There are two major alternative ways to re-start the FN/PROC handler:

- (a) Set PTRA base (in $\&B,\&C$) to point to the first byte of the program section just overlayed (this will be the &0D usually at PAGE). Then JMP to &B149 (BASIC1) or &B11A (BASIC2). This will cause the 'Look for FN/ PROC in program' routine to search for the FN/PROC again, but this time starting from PTRA base, instead of PAGE. When the FN/PROC is found, it will be added to the list, and the main FN/PROC handler will be re-joined.
- (b) Set PTRA base to point to the byte following the name of the defined PROC or FN in the overlayed section (this will be a '(' if any arguments are being used). Then JMP to $&B223$ (BASIC1) or $&B1F4$ (BASIC2). This directly rejoins the FN/PROC handler, without adding the name of the overlayed FN/PROC to the list.

Note that if (a) is being used, the same error may be generated again if the name is still not found; if (b) is being used, the name will not be tested (and does not even need to be in the file itself, as long as PTRA can still be set up to point to the character which would be after it).

Error 30 – Bad call

This error is generated by BASIC if no valid name is found after a PROC or FN token. Note that there can be no spaces between the FN or PROC token, and the name.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 31 – Arguments

This error is generated by BASIC if the number of parameters passed to a FN or PROC is not the same as in the definition of the FN or PROC. It can also be caused if the types of the parameters do not match (i.e. a string being passed where a number is expected).

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 32 – No FOR

This error is generated by the BASIC 'NEXT' statement if there is nothing on the FOR stack. [See section 5.6](#page-78-0) for more on FOR…NEXT loops.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 33 – Can't match FOR

This error is generated by the BASIC 'NEXT' statement if the loop variable was specified (as in 'NEXT I'), but it could not find a FOR loop using that variable on the FOR stack. This error will not be generated if the variable specified in the 'NEXT' statement does not exist: a 'Syntax error' (error 16) will be generated instead.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 34 – FOR variable

This error is generated by the BASIC 'FOR' statement if there is no valid numeric variable after the FOR (i.e. either it is invalid, or it is a string variable). This variable can be an indirected variable (like $'!X'$), although single byte variables should not be used, as NEXT does not deal with them properly.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 35 – Too many FORs

This error is generated by the BASIC 'FOR' statement if there are already 10 'FOR' loops on the FOR stack ([see section 5.6\)](#page-78-0).

It is possible to recover from this error, to extend the FOR stack into the REPEAT stack area, for example. This should not normally be attempted, as any REPEAT statement will corrupt an extended FOR stack.

Error conditions

Initial value already assigned to loop variable

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 35
- **2** No REPEATs will be used in the program (or GOSUBs if the GOSUB stack area will be used as well).
- **3** The FOR stack pointer (in &26 and Y) is less than &BE (this gives room for 3 more entries). If the GOSUB stack area is to be used as well, the FOR stack pointer should be less than &F2 (this gives a total of 17 entries in the FOR stack).

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the 6502 stack
- **2** JMP to &B7F5 (BASIC1) or &B7DA (BASIC2)

This will continue with the FOR statement, as though the FOR stack had not overflowed. The Y register should not be altered by the recovery routine, as it is used on return to the FOR handler.

Error 36 – No TO

This error is generated by the BASIC 'FOR' statement if the first non-space character after the initial value that the loop variable is to be set to, is not a 'TO' token. The initial value must be a <numeric>.

Recovery from this error is not easily possible, although it could be trapped to allow 'FOR lists'; i.e. a line of the form:

FOR I=1,3 TO 5,10

which would step through the loop with I taking the values 1,3,4,5, and 10. If this was to be implemented, a new 'NEXT' statement would have to be used for this type of 'FOR' (possibly trapped from the 'Mistake' error), as the normal NEXT would not handle it.

Error conditions

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 36
- **2** An alternative form of the 'FOR' statement can be used. Another NEXT should be used for this structure ('ENDFOR' ?), to handle the next value to be assigned to the loop variable.

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the 6502 stack.
- **2** Handle the new FOR structure, either using the FOR stack, or by creating a different stack. The address and type of the loop variable (i.e. its *variable descriptor block*) is already on the FOR stack.
- **3** If a FOR list is being used, the ENDFOR will have to look at the next item on the list; thus the current value of PTRB should be saved for it.
- **4** If the whole of the FOR list is to be parsed before the loop is entered, the 'Check for end of statement' routine at &9810 (BASIC1) or &9857 (BASIC2) should be called after the FOR list has been checked. Then the statements in the loop can be started with a JMP to the 'Continue execution' routine at &8B0C (BASIC1) or &8B9B (BASIC2).
- **5** If the FOR list is not to be parsed until the ENDFOR tries to use it, execution can be continued with a JMP to the 'Skip rest of line, and continue' routine at &8AED $(BASIC1)$ or $&8B7D$ (BASIC2). This will continue execution on the next program line (alternatively, the new FOR routine could just search for a^{λ} ; and continue from there).

Error 37 – Too many GOSUBs

This error is generated by the BASIC 'GOSUB' statement if there are already 26 GOSUBs on the GOSUB stack. [See section](#page-70-0) [5.2](#page-70-0) for more on GOSUBs.

Due to way that the GOSUB stack is stored (as 2 stacks, one after the other), it is not easily possible to recover this error and extend the stack in a similar manner to the FOR stack.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 38 – No GOSUB

This error is generated by the BASIC 'RETURN' statement if the GOSUB stack is empty.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 39 – ON syntax

This error is generated by the BASIC 'ON' statement if the first non-space character following the <factor> after the 'ON' is not a 'GOTO' or a 'GOSUB' token. This may be caused if the <factor> is mis-formed, as in:

ON A#3 GOTO ...

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 40 – ON range

This error is generated by the BASIC 'ON' statement if the controlling <factor> is either less than 1, or greater than the number of entries in the 'GOTO' or 'GOSUB' list.

This error can be avoided by using an 'ELSE' clause after the GOTO or GOSUB list (such as 'ON I GOTO 20,30 ELSE END'), but in BASIC1 the 'GOTO' or 'GOSUB' token is left on the 6502 stack if the ELSE clause is executed. If this ELSE clause is executed inside a FN or PROC, the return from this FN or PROC will fail, as the return address will no longer be on the top of the stack. In BASIC2, this has been rectified, and the ELSE clause works correctly.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 41 – No such line

This error is generated by the BASIC 'Evaluate and find line number' routine if the line number it is given does not exist. This routine is used by GOTO, GOSUB, and RESTORE, so all of these can generate this error if given a non-existent line number.

This error could be recovered from if, for example, some sort of program overlaying mechanism is being used.

Error conditions

&2A,&2B: line number which was not found

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 41
- **2** The line can be looked for in an alternative area (for example, in an overlayed program section)

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack.
- **2** Find the line in the alternative program section, and set the pointer at &3D,&3E to point 1 before the first byte of text of the line (i.e. to point to the length byte of the line). Care should be taken not to generate this error again, unless some flag is used to signal that this overlay has already been tried. If the line number is not found in the new section, and the error is generated again, this recovery routine will be called repeatedly, and the machine will 'hang up'.
- **3** When the line has been found, clear the carry flag (to signal that the line has been found), and execute an RTS.

This will return to the code which called the 'Evaluate and find line number' routine, which will then continue.

Error 42 – Out of DATA

This error is generated by the BASIC 'Find next DATA item' routine of the 'READ' statement if all of the DATA items in the program have been read.

This error could be recovered, either if some sort of overlaying mechanism is being used, or perhaps by forcing a 'RESTORE' on an 'Out of DATA' error.

Error conditions

 $&1C_{\mathcal{S}}&1D$: point after the last DATA item read

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 42
- **2** Either a RESTORE will be forced, or the DATA will be found in an alternative area
- **3** The DATA pointer in &1C,&1D does not still point at PAGE. If it does, there is no DATA in the program at all, and so forcing a RESTORE would have no effect.

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack.
- **2** Set PTRB to point to the area where the DATA will be read from. This will be PAGE to force a RESTORE to the start of the program, or it will point to the new area if an overlay has been loaded.
- 3 Execute a JMP to &BB7A (BASIC1) or &BB60 (BASIC2). This re-starts the 'Find next DATA item' routine looking from PTRB. If PTRB points at a comma or a 'DATA' token when the routine is re-started, then that routine will return to the READ statement handler, with PTRB pointing at the following DATA item.

Care should be taken that this recovery routine is not called again due to a failure to find any DATA in the new area. The DATA pointer could be used as a flag for this, by setting it to PAGE inside this recovery routine. If no DATA is found on return to the READ handler, then this error will be generated again, but with the DATA pointer still set to PAGE.

Error 43 – No REPEAT

This error is generated by the BASIC 'UNTIL' statement if the REPEAT stack is empty.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 44 – Too many REPEATs

This error is generated by the BASIC 'REPEAT' statement if the REPEAT stack already contains 20 entries.

The REPEAT stack cannot be extended like the FOR stack, as it saves the MSB and LSB of the pointer in 2 stacks, 1 after the other. [See section 5.5](#page-77-0) for more on REPEAT loops.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable.

Error 45 – Missing #

This error is generated by the BASIC file handling routines if the file handle given to a BPUT, BGET, PTR, or EXT is not preceeded by a '#'. This error is only generated by BASIC2; BASIC1 will generate a 'Syntax error' (error 16) instead.

Error conditions (BASIC2 only)

Error number: 45 'Missing #'

Stack contents: RTI information 3 bytes

A character not a '#'
X undefined

X undefined
Y undefined undefined

This error is not recoverable.

11.3 Fatal errors

These errors cannot be trapped by the 'ON ERROR' statement. Some of them are just messages, with a JMP to immediate mode after the message has been printed; others have error number 0, which cannot be trapped (in BASIC 2).

Some of the errors in this section can still be intercepted by a BRK handler, although those that can be intercepted, will all have error number 0. This means that the error message string following the error number byte must be tested if the error is to be identified correctly.

Bad program

This message is printed if the current program in memory has been corrupted when a check is made. After the message has been printed, a JMP is made to restart BASIC in immediate mode: this cannot be trapped.

If the program is OK, the 'Bad program' check routine resets TOP to the top of the program, and returns to the calling routine. The check is made when:

- (a) A new program has been loaded (either by 'LOAD' or 'CHAIN').
- (b) An 'OLD' statement has been executed.
- (c) A 'LIST' statement is about to be executed.
- (d) A 'RENUMBER' command is about to be executed.
- (e) An 'END' statement is executed. As an END statement is executed at the end of the default BASIC ERROR handler, this check will also be made whenever an error occurs.

[See section 9.2](#page-148-0) for a 'Bad program' salvage routine.

Failed at xxx

This message is printed by the 'RENUMBER' command if it finds any references to non-existent line numbers. This error cannot be trapped, but it will not abort the RENUMBERing of the program; it will just produce a list of the lines on which it found unresolved line number references.

Line space

This error is generated by the 'Insert line in program' routine if there is not enough room to insert the line into the program (i.e. the length of the line is longer than the gap between TOP and HIMEM).

This error, although 'fatal' to BASIC, could be recovered from if more memory could be allocated (by forcing a MODE change, perhaps).

Error conditions

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at (&FD) is 0, followed by the string 'Line space', terminated by a zero byte.
- **2** HIMEM can be moved up from its present position, perhaps by a MODE change. If it can't be moved, then recovery should be aborted.

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack.
- **2** Change MODE to shift HIMEM to a higher value.
- **3** Execute a JMP to &BC96 (BASIC1 or BASIC2 the addresses coincide).

This will re-enter the routine to insert the line in the program. Note that if this recovery is attempted *without* moving HIMEM up, then this error will just be generated again, and the machine will 'hang up'.

No room

This error is generated by BASIC if an attempt is made to extend the HEAP above the STACK, or extend the STACK below the HEAP. In BASIC1, this is a message which is printed before a JMP to immediate mode (so it gives no line number); but in BASIC2 it is an error with error number 0.

In BASIC2 it is possible to trap this error, and recover from it under certain circumstances (providing some more memory can be found from somewhere); but in BASIC1 it does not go through the BRK handler, and so cannot be trapped.

The 'No room' error can be caused in one of 3 ways:

- (a) An attempt was made to allocate space for a new *variable information block* on top of the HEAP. If this is the case, then the error is not recoverable, because the 'Allocate new information block' routine clears the space for the block before checking for a clash with the STACK: thus the contents of the STACK will be corrupted.
- (b) An attempt was made to allocate space for a dynamic string on the HEAP. This error is recoverable, as a clash with the STACK is tested for before the string is written into the new area.
- (c) An attempt was made to allocate space on the BASIC STACK. This error is also recoverable, because a clash with the HEAP is tested for before the item to be pushed is written into the allocated area.

These 3 different causes of a 'No room' must be handled differently, as they require different return conditions, and in the case of (a), recovery should not be attempted at all.

Error conditions (BASIC2 only)

Recovery should only be attempted if:

- **1** The error number at $(\&$ FD) is 0, followed by the string 'No room', terminated by a zero byte.
- **2** The error was not caused by case (a). If the carry flag was clear when the BRK occurred (this should be tested from the RTI information on the 6502 stack) then it was due to case (c), and recovery is possible. Otherwise, if the X register is non-zero it was due to case (b), and recovery is also possible. If the carry flag was set, and the X register is zero, it was due to case (a), and recovery should be aborted.

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the stack (the top byte was the 6502 status word when the BRK occurred, and the carry can be checked from there)
- **2** Allocate some more memory. This could either be done by forcing a mode change, or perhaps by throwing away any overlayed program sections which have been placed between HIMEM and the bottom of the screen. Both of these will involve shifting the STACK bodily, and pointing the STACK pointer (in $\&4,\&5$) at the bottom of the new STACK.
- **3** Check that the HEAP/STACK clash does not still exist: it may be that not enough memory could be cleared. If (c) is being dealt with, then the STACK and HEAP will be in the pointers already; but in case (b), the old HEAP pointer is in $&2,\&3$ and the new one is in X (MSB) and Y (LSB).
- **4** If (c) is being dealt with, then simply executing an RTS will return to the code that called the 'Check for STACK/ HEAP clash' routine.
- **5** If (b) is being dealt with, then the 'Assign string' routine can be continued with a JMP to &8C6F (BASIC2 only). The new HEAP pointer must be in the X and Y registers as on entry (alternatively, if the new HEAP pointer is already set up by the recovery routine, a JMP can be made to &8C73 instead).

Trapping this routine, together with trapping the 'No such FN/ PROC' error (error 29), would give a very neat method of procedure and function overlaying. When a FN or PROC is not found in the program, the STACK can be shifted down and an overlay loaded from disc between HIMEM and the bottom of the screen; and when the computer runs out of memory and issues a 'No room' error, the overlay can be removed, and the STACK shifted up again.

RENUMBER space

When the RENUMBER statement is used, it creates a list of the old line numbers above TOP so that it can match up the GOTO and GOSUB references after the lines have been renumbered. This error is generated if there is not enough room between the TOP of the program and HIMEM to fit this list.

Error conditions

This error is not recoverable

Silly

This error is generated by the AUTO or RENUMBER commands if the interval in their call is either 0 or greater than 255.

It is possible to recover from this error (if you *really* want to have all the lines in your program with the same line number).

Error conditions

IntA: AUTO/RENUMBER interval

This error should only be recovered if:

1 The error number at (&FD) is 0, followed by the string 'Silly', terminated by a zero byte.

To recover from the error:

- **1** Pull the 3 bytes of RTI information from the 6502 stack.
- **2** Execute a JMP to &8F28 (BASIC1) or &8F8B (BASIC2).

This will continue with the AUTO or RENUMBER command, ignoring any silly restrictions on the size of the interval.

STOP at line xxx

This error is generated by the BASIC 'STOP' statement. In BASIC1, this is just a message which is printed before a JMP to immediate mode; but in BASIC2 it is an error with error number 0. The BASIC2 error message does not use the 'STOP' token (probably because it was converted from the BASIC1 message).

Error conditions (BASIC2 only)

Error number 0 'STOP' Stack contents: RTI information 3 bytes

This error is not recoverable

Appendix A – Syntax definition

This syntax definition is written in Backus-Naur form, or BNF, in a similar manner to the 'Syntax' sections in Chapter 33 of the BBC *User Guide*, or chapter 25 of the Electron *User Guide*. As well as the syntax of the keywords, it also includes the expression evaluator, and non-keyword statements. Although this syntax definition is not particularly easy to read at first, it is very useful when trying to understand what BASIC is doing whilst decoding a particular statement or function.

Note that EVAL and FN may be either string or numeric functions (i.e. they may return either a string or numeric value).

OSCLI and OPENUP are not implemented in BASIC1.

Symbols

The following symbols have special meaning in this section:

- <> enclose defined items ('syntactic entities'), like <numeric> or <factor>.
- ::= should be read as 'is defined as'.
- | should be read as 'or': it is used to separate alternative items.
- {} denote possible repetition of the enclosed section **zero** or more times.
- [1] enclose optional items.

Any other symbols are as read (like '+' and 'MOD'). Note that the \leq and \geq symbols in the definition of <relation operator> do not enclose a syntactic entity, but are 'less than' and 'greater than' symbols respectively.

Example

As an illustration, the definition of the RENUMBER command is:

<renumber command> ::= RENUMBER [<line-num> [,<line-num>]]

There are two optional sections in this line, so the command can be one of three forms:

```
1) RENUMBER
```

```
2) RENUMBER <line-num> (e.g. RENUMBER 1000)
```

```
3) RENUMBER <line-num>,<line-num> (e.g.
RENUMBER 100, 5 – the second number is not an actual line
number, but syntactically it is just the same)
```
Statements

```
<immediate-statement> ::= <line-entry> | <command>
      | <statement>
<line-entry> ::= <line num><line>
<line> ::= {anything}{carriage return}
<command> ::= {a statement starting with a command keyword}
<statement> ::= <keyword-statement> | <assignment-statement>
      | <FN-return-statement> | <OS-statement>
      | <enter-assembler-statement> | <empty-statement>
\leqkeyword-statement> ::= {a statement starting with a keyword}
<assignment-statement> ::= <num-var>=<numeric>
      | <string-var>=<string>
<FN-return-statement> ::= =<string> | =<numeric>
<OS-statement> ::= *<line>
<enter-assembler-statement> ::= [
<empty-statement> ::= {nothing}
<auto command> ::= AUTO [<line-num> [,<line-num>]]
<delete command> ::= DELETE <line-num>, <line-num>
```
<load command> ::= LOAD <string> <list command> ::= LIST <line-num> | [<line-num>],[<line-num>] <listo command> ::= LISTO <numeric> <new command> ::= NEW <old command> ::= OLD <renumber command> ::= RENUMBER [<line-num> [,<line-num>]] <save command> ::= SAVE <string> <ptr statement> ::= PTR# <factor>=<numeric> <page statement> ::= PAGE =<numeric> <time statement> ::= TIME =<numeric> <lomem statement> ::= LOMEM =<numeric> <himem statement> ::= HIMEM =<numeric> <bput statement> ::= BPUT# <factor>, <numeric> <call statement> ::= CALL <numeric> {,<variable>} <chain statement> ::= CHAIN <string> <clear statement> ::= CLEAR <close statement> ::= CLOSE# <factor> <clg statement> ::= CLG <cls statement> ::= CLS <colour statement> ::= COLOUR <numeric> <data statement> ::= DATA <line> <def fn statement> ::= DEF FN<variable name> [(<variable> {,<variable>})] <def proc statement> ::= DEF PROC<variable name> [(<variable> {,<variable>})] <dim statement> ::= DIM <dim section> {,<dim section>} <dim section> ::= <variable>(<numeric> {,<numeric>}) | <num-var><numeric>

<draw statement> ::= DRAW <numeric>, <numeric> <end statement> ::= END <endproc statement> ::= ENDPROC <envelope statement> ::= ENVELOPE <numeric>, <numeric> <for statement> ::= FOR <num-var>=<numeric> TO <numeric> [STEP<numeric>] <gcol statement> ::= GCOL <numeric>, <numeric> <gosub statement> ::= GOSUB <numeric> <goto statement> ::= GOTO <numeric> <if statement> ::= IF <testable-condition> [THEN<statement> | THEN<line-num>] {<statement>} [ELSE{<statement>}] <input statement> ::= INPUT [LINE] {{[<input-message>] ,|;} <variable>} <input message> ::= <string-const> | <format-items> <input# statement> ::= INPUT# <factor> {,<variable>} <let statement> ::= LET <string-var>=<string> | LET <num-var>=<numeric> <local statement> ::= LOCAL {<variable>} <mode statement> ::= MODE <numeric> <move statement> ::= MOVE <numeric>, <numeric> <next statement> ::= NEXT [<num-var>] <on-error statement> ::= ON ERROR <statement>|OFF <on statement> ::= ON <numeric> GOTO|GOSUB <numeric> {,<numeric>} [ELSE <statement>] <oscli statement> ::= OSCLI <string-factor> <plot statement> ::= PLOT <numeric>, <numeric>, <numeric> $\{$ >print statement> ::= PRINT $\{^* | , | ; | \$ $\}$ $\{$ format items> $|$ <numeric> | <string>}
```
<format items> ::= ' | SPC<factor> | TAB(<numeric>[,<numeric>])
<proc statement> ::= PROC <variable name> [(<variable>
       {,<variable>})]
<read statement> ::= READ {[<variable>] [,]}
<rem statement> ::= REM<line>
<repeat statement> ::= REPEAT
<report statement> ::= REPORT
<restore statement> ::= RESTORE
<return statement> ::= RETURN
<run statement> ::= RUN
<sound statement> ::= SOUND <numeric>, <numeric>, <numeric>,
       <numeric>
<stop statement> ::= STOP
<trace statement> ::= TRACE ON|OFF|<numeric>
<until statement> ::= UNTIL <testable condition>
\langle \text{vdu statement} \rangle ::= VDU \langle \text{numeric} \rangle {, |; \langle \text{numeric} \rangle } [, |; ]
<width statement> ::= WIDTH <numeric>
```
Expression evaluator

```
<numeric> ::= <testable-condition>
<testable-condition> ::= <logical-expression>
      {OR|EOR <logical-expression>}
<logical-expression> ::= <relnl-expression>
      {AND <relnl-expression>}
<relnl-expression> ::= <expression> |
      <expression><relation-operator><expression> |
      <string><relation-operator><string>
\langle relation operator> ::= = | \langle | \rangle = | \langle | > | >=
<expression> ::= <term> {+|- <term>}
<term> ::= <sub-term> {<term-operator><sub-term>}
```

```
<term-operator> ::= * | / | MOD | DIV
<sub-term> ::= <factor> {^<factor>}
<factor> ::= <primitive> | -<primitive> | +<primitive>
<primitive> ::= <function> | <num-var> | <num-const> |
      &<hex-number> | (<testable expression>)
<variable> ::= <string-var> | <num-var>
<num-var> ::= <simple-var> | ?<factor> | !<factor> |
      <simple-var>?<factor> | <simple-var>!<factor>
<string> ::= <string-factor> {+ <string-factor>}
<string-factor> ::= <string-function> | <string-var> |
      <string-const> | (<string>)
<string-var> ::= <dynamic-string> | $<factor>
\text{Sum--const} ::= {a number like 12 or 1.3E-15}
<line-num> ::= {a positive decimal integer}
\{hex-number\} ::= \{a \text{ hexadecimal number } like FFF4\}\sinh(e - \varphi): := {a numeric variable like A% or FRED(3)}
\langledynamic-string> ::= {a string variable like A$ or BBC$(1)}
<string-const> ::= {a string in quotes, "like this string"}
```
Functions

<function> ::= {a numeric-valued function} <string-function> ::= {a string-valued function} <abs function> ::= ABS<factor> <acs function> ::= ACS<factor> <adval function> ::= ADVAL<factor> <asc function> ::= ASC<string> <asn function> ::= ASN<factor> <atn function> ::= ATN<factor> <bget function> ::= BGET#<factor>

<cos function> ::= COS<factor> <count function> ::= COUNT <deg function> ::= DEG<factor> <eof function> ::= EOF#<factor> <erl function> ::= ERL <err function> ::= ERR <eval function> ::= EVAL<string-factor> <exp function> ::= EXP<factor> <ext function> ::= EXT#<factor> <false function> ::= FALSE <fn function> ::= FN<variable name> [(<variable> {,<variable>})] <get function> ::= GET <himem function> ::= HIMEM <inkey function> ::= INKEY<factor> <instr function> ::= INSTR(<string>, <string> [,<numeric>]) <int function> ::= INT<factor> <len function> ::= LEN<string-factor> <ln function> ::= LN<factor> <log function> ::= LOG<factor> <lomem function> ::= LOMEM <not function> ::= NOT<factor> <openin function> ::= OPENIN<string-factor> <openout function> ::= OPENOUT<string-factor> <openup function> ::= OPENUP<string-factor> <page function> ::= PAGE <pi function> ::= PI

<point function> ::= POINT(<numeric>, <numeric>) <pos function> ::= POS <ptr function> ::= PTR#<factor> <rad function> ::= RAD<factor> <rnd function> ::= RND[(<numeric>)] <sgn function> ::= SGN<factor> <sin function> ::= SIN<factor> <sqr function> ::= SQR<factor> <tan function> ::= TAN<factor> <time function> ::= TIME <top function> ::= TOP <true function> ::= TRUE <usr function> ::= USR<factor> <val function> ::= VAL<string-factor> <vpos function> ::= VPOS <chr string-func> ::= CHR\$<factor> <eval string-func> ::= EVAL<string-factor> <fn string-func> ::= FN<variable name> [(<variable> {,<variable>})] <get string-func> ::= GET\$ <inkey string-func> ::= INKEY\$<factor> <left string-func> ::= LEFT\$(<string>, <numeric>) <mid string-func> ::= MID\$(<string>, <numeric> [,<numeric>]) <right string-func> ::= RIGHT\$(<string>, <numeric>) <str string-func> ::= STR\$[~]<factor> <string string-func> ::= STRING\$(<numeric>, <string>)

Appendix B – BASIC ROM summary

BASIC1 BASIC2 ROUTINE

Appendix C – 6502 Instruction Set Summary

- ADC Add Memory to Accumulator with Carry
AND 'AND' Memory with Accumulator
- AND 'AND' Memory with Accumulator
ASL Shift Left one bit (Memory or Accu
- Shift Left one bit (Memory or Accumulator)
- BCC Branch on Carry Clear
BCS Branch on Carry Set
-
- BCS Branch on Carry Set
BEO Branch on result Zer BEQ Branch on result Zero
BIT Test bits in Memory w
- Test bits in Memory with Accumulator
- BMI Branch on result Minus
- BNE Branch on result not Zero
- BPL Branch on result Plus
- BRK Force Break
- BVC Branch on Overflow Clear
- BVS Branch on Overflow Set
- CLC Clear Carry flag
CLD Clear Decimal n
- CLD Clear Decimal mode
CLI Clear Interrunt disable
- CLI Clear Interrupt disable bit
CLV Clear Overflow flag
- CLV Clear Overflow flag
CMP Compare Memory a
- CMP Compare Memory and Accumulator
CPX Compare Memory and index X
- CPX Compare Memory and index X

CPY Compare Memory and index Y
- Compare Memory and index Y
- DEC Decrement Memory by one
DEX Decrement index X by one
- Decrement index \overline{X} by one
- DEY Decrement index Y by one
- EOR 'Exclusive-OR' Memory with Accumulator
- INC Increment Memory by one
INX Increment index X by one
- INX Increment index X by one
INY Increment index Y by one
- Increment index Y by one
- JMP Jump to new location
JSR Jump to subroutine
- Jump to subroutine
- LDA Load Accumulator with Memory
- LDX Load index X with Memory
LDY Load index Y with Memory
- Load index Y with Memory
- LSR Shift one bit right (Memory or Accumulator)
- NOP No operation
- ORA 'OR' Memory with Accumulator
- PHA Push Accumulator on Stack
PHP Push Processor Status on Sta
- PHP Push Processor Status on Stack
PLA Pull Accumulator from Stack
- PLA Pull Accumulator from Stack
PLP Pull Processor Status from Sta
- Pull Processor Status from Stack
- ROL Rotate one bit left (Memory or Accumulator)
ROR Rotate one bit right (Memory or Accumulator
- ROR Rotate one bit right (Memory or Accumulator)
RTI Return from Interrupt
- RTI Return from Interrupt
RTS Return from subroutin
- Return from subroutine
- SBC Subtract Memory from Accumulator with Carry
SEC Set Carry flag
- SEC Set Carry flag
SED Set Decimal m
- Set Decimal mode
- SEI Set Interrupt disable status
STA Sore Accumulator in Mem
- Sore Accumulator in Memory
- STX Store index X in Memory
STY Store index Y in Memory
- Store index Y in Memory
- TAX Transfer Accumulator to index X
TAY Transfer Accumulator to index Y
- TAY Transfer Accumulator to index Y
TSX Transfer Stack Pointer to index X
- TSX Transfer Stack Pointer to index X
TXA Transfer index X to Accumulator
- TXA Transfer index X to Accumulator
TXS Transfer index X to Stack Registe
- Transfer index X to Stack Register
- TYA Transfer index Y to Accumulator

Appendix D – Keyword list

For a list of the keyword tokens, and their associated flags, in token value order, [see section 2.3](#page-42-0).

FE WIDTH

Appendix E – Operating System Calls and Vectors

Appendix F – OSBYTE/*FX Call Summary

Appendix G – Variable locations

For the format of these variables, [see section 3.1](#page-48-0).

Resident integers

Variable list base pointers

The pointers marked with a '*' are not available (those characters are not allowed as part of a variable name).

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Glossary

Accumulator – a register used to perform mathematical operations. The 6502 has one accumulator, A, which can deal with 8-bit integers.

Addressing Mode – specifies how any data will be used by a machine code instruction.

ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange) – the ASCII code of a character is the value of the byte which is used to store it in the computer.

Assembler – a program which converts a series of mnemonics into a machine code program.

Bit of memory – this is the fundamental unit of a computer's memory. It may only be in one of two possible states, usually represented by a 0 or 1.

BNF (Backus Naur Form) – a way of writing down the syntax of a computer language.

Buffer – a software buffer is an area of memory set aside for data in the process of being transferred from one device or piece of software to another.

Byte of memory – 8 bits of memory. Data is normally transferred between devices one byte at a time over the data bus.

Chip – derived from the small piece of silicon wafer or chip which has all of the computer logic circuits etched into it. A chip is normally packaged in a black plastic case with small metal leads to connect it to the outside world.

Command – similar to a BASIC statement, but it can only be executed if it is typed in at the keyboard directly (i.e. in *command mode*), rather than as part of a BASIC program. For example, 'AUTO' is a command.

CPU (Central processing unit) – the 6502A in the BBC microcomputer and the Electron. It is this chip which does all of the computing work associated with running programs.

Disassembler – a program which converts a series of bytes in a machine code program into assembler mnemonics.

Field – a space allocated for some data in a register, or in a program listing, or in a storage area. For example, in a Variable Descriptor Block, the first field contains a pointer to the location of the variable, and the second field contains the type of the variable.

Flag – a bit (or byte) which is used to signal a particular condition. For example, the N (negative) flag in the 6502 is set if the number just calculated is negative.

Heap – BASIC uses a HEAP to store the variables used during a program. Data can be added on top of a heap, but once used, the space cannot be recovered until it is completely cleared.

High – sometimes used to designate logic '1'

Indirection – pointing to a variable in memory with the indirection operators ?, ! or \$, rather than using a value directly. For example, !&4000 points to the 4-byte integer variable in locations &4000 to &4003.

Interrupt – this signal is produced by peripheral devices and is always directed to the 6502A CPU. Upon receiving an interrupt, the 6502 will normally run a special interrupt routine program before continuing with the task in hand before it was interrupted.

Keyword – a special word (sometimes called a *Reserved Word*) which BASIC uses for a special purpose. For example, PRINT is a keyword which is put before items to be printed out.

Linked list – a list of items in memory, where each item contains a pointer to the next one. The end of the list is usually marked by a null pointer in the last item. A base pointer is used to point to the first item in the list.

Low – sometimes used to designate logic '0'.

Machine code – the programs produced by the 6502 BASIC Assembler are machine code. A machine code program consists of a series of bytes in memory which the 6502 can execute directly.

Mnemonic – the name given to the text string which defines a particular 6502 operation in the BASIC assembler. LDA is a mnemonic which means *load accumulator*.

Opcode – the name given to the binary code of a 6502 instruction. For example, &AD is the opcode which means *load accumulator* (absolute addressing).

Operand – a piece of data on which some operation is performed. This could be a number in a BASIC program, or it could be a byte in the accumulator of the 6502.

Operator – a symbol or device which takes one or two *operands* to produce a single result. If an operator takes one operand, it is a *unary* operator; if it takes two operands, it is a *binary* operator. For example, the '\$' operator takes the number following it, and gives as a result the static string at that location.

Overflow – a condition caused when the result of a calculation is too large to be represented properly.

Overlay – a part of a program which is loaded into memory while the main program is running. Large programs can be run in a computer by splitting them up into several overlays, and each one will only be loaded in when they are needed.

Page – a page of memory in the 6502 memory map is $&100(256)$ bytes long. There are therefore 256 pages in the entire address space. 256 pages of 256 bytes each account for the 65536 bytes of addressable memory.

Page zero – the locations from $&0000$ to $&00$ FF. These are very useful on the 6502, because any machine code instructions which use them are shorter and faster than those which use any other section of the memory.

Peripheral – any device connected to the 6502 central processor unit, such as the printer port, disc interface etc., but not including the memory.

Program – a BASIC program is a sequence of statements which the BASIC interpreter is to execute one after the other. A machine code program is a sequence of bytes which the 6502 is to execute one after the other as machine code instructions.

RAM (Random Access Memory) – the main memory in the BBC microcomputer and the Electron is RAM because it can be both written to and read from.

Register – a location which can be written to or read from, usually for a special purpose, but which is not necessarily in the main memory map of the computer. The 6502 and peripheral devices contain registers, and BASIC uses a series of page zero locations as if they were its own registers.

ROM (Read only memory) – as the name implies, ROM can only be read from and cannot be modified by being written to.

Stack – the 6502 and BASIC each use a stack for temporary storage of data. Data is pushed onto a stack in sequence, then removed by pulling the data off the stack. The last byte to be pushed is the first byte to be pulled off again. The 6502 stack is used to store return addresses from subroutines; the BASIC stack is used to store temporary results during a calculation, and other data inside a PROC or FN call.

Statement – a sequence of symbols which tells the BASIC interpreter to perform a certain action. For example, the statement 'A=10' tells BASIC to assign the value 10 to the variable 'A' (this is an *assignment statement*).

Static string – a string whose characters are stored in memory starting at a fixed location. The string is terminated by a $\&0D$ byte (carriage return character), which is not counted as one of the characters of the string. For example, \$&2000 is the static string whose first character is stored in location &2000.

String Information Block – this block is used to reference the characters of a dynamic string on the BASIC HEAP. It contains a pointer to the start of the string, the amount of memory allocated to the string, and the current length of the string. The *String Information Block* is held in the *value field* of the *Variable Information Block* of a string variable.

Token – a single byte which is used by BASIC to represent a keyword. This saves memory when programs are stored. For example, &80 is the token for 'AND'.

Variable – is used to hold a number or a string (depending on its type). Named variables are stored on the BASIC HEAP (or in page 4 if they are resident integer variables), but indirected variables (accessed using the \$, ? and ! operators) can be anywhere in memory.

Variable Descriptor Block – this is passed between routines inside BASIC as a description of a variable, once its location and type has been found. It consists of a pointer to the value of the variable, and a byte which gives the type of the variable.

Variable Information Block – the format used to store variables (and FN/PROC locations) on the BASIC HEAP. It consists of a pointer to the next *Variable Information Block*, the name of the variable, and the value of the variable.

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This book contains a detailed description of the BASIC system used on the BBC Microcomputer and Acorn Electron. It covers the operation of BBC BASIC I, BBC BASIC II and Electron BASIC, and enables the serious programmer to considerably enhance the facilities of his machine.

A number of useful examples are provided including a complete disassembler, and various facilities such as listing active variables and overlaying procedures are described.

Extensive reference sections cover the ROM routines and error recovery, including changing MODE inside procedures and salvaging bad programs.

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